**Document number 299**

**Text number 0**

Annelids are double-symmetrical, three-celled, cocoon-like, invertebrate invertebrates. They also have parapodia for locomotion. Most textbooks still use the traditional division into polychaete worms (almost all marine animals), oligochaetes (which include terrestrial worms) and leech-like species. Cladistic studies since 1997 have radically changed this system, with leeches being considered a subset of oligochaetes and oligochaetes a subset of polychaetes. In addition, Pogonophora, Echiura and Sipuncula, previously considered as separate tribes, are now considered as a subgroup of polychaetes. Annelids are considered to belong to the group Lophotrochozoa, a 'superfamily' of protostomes that also includes molluscs, brachiopods, flatworms and nemerteans.

**Question 0**

What is the symmetry of annelids?

**Question 1**

How do annelids move?

**Question 2**

To which subtype of annelids do most cormorants belong?

**Question 3**

What subtype of annelids do earthworms belong to?

**Question 4**

Since 1997, leeches have been considered a sub-category.

**Question 5**

What kind of symmetry is missing in annelids?

**Question 6**

How do annelids fly?

**Question 7**

To which subtype of annelids do most space worms belong?

**Question 8**

Which subtype of annelids do migratory waders belong to?

**Question 9**

Which leeches have been considered a subgroup since 1897?

**Text number 1**

The basic shape of annelids consists of several segments. Each segment has the same organs, and most polychaetes have a pair of parapodia, which many species use for locomotion. In many species the segments are distinct, but in others they are poorly distinguishable or absent, and in Echiura and Sipuncula there are no obvious signs of segmentation. In species with well-developed septa, the blood circulates entirely in blood vessels, and the blood vessels of the segments near the front end of these species are often built up with muscles that act as hearts. The septa of such species also allow individual segments to change shape, facilitating movement by peristalsis ('waves' running along the body) or undulation, which improves the efficiency of parapodia. In species where the septa is incomplete or non-existent, blood circulates through the cavity of the main body without any kind of pump, and there are a variety of locomotor techniques - some burrowing species turn their pharynx inside out to pull themselves through the sediment.

**Question 0**

What distinguishes the many segments of annelids?

**Question 1**

Which annelids are not segmented?

**Question 2**

Which well-developed segmented annelids have muscles at the end that act like a heart?

**Question 3**

What is wave motion?

**Question 4**

What kind of movement do some burrowing annelids use?

**Question 5**

What links the many segments of annelids?

**Question 6**

Which annelids show only segmentation?

**Question 7**

Where in the head of a well-segmented annelid has muscles that act like a brain?

**Question 8**

What is no longer called a wave movement?

**Question 9**

What form of locomotion do some extinct annelids use?

**Text number 2**

Although many species can reproduce asexually and use similar mechanisms to regenerate after severe injury, asexual reproduction is the normal method in species whose reproduction has been studied. A minority of living polychaete worms whose reproduction and life cycle are known produce trophozoan larvae that live as plankton, sink and then become small adults. Oligocetes are full hermaphrodites and produce a ring-shaped enclosure around their periphery where eggs and chicks feed until they are ready to be born.

**Question 0**

How do annelids usually reproduce?

**Question 1**

How can asexual reproduction techniques help annelids?

**Question 2**

Which larvae live like plankton?

**Question 3**

Which annelids are hermaphrodites?

**Question 4**

Which annelids form an enclosure around themselves?

**Question 5**

How do annelids never multiply?

**Question 6**

What can asexual reproduction techniques prevent annelids from doing?

**Question 7**

Which larvae live like whales?

**Question 8**

Which annelids do not like hermaphrodites?

**Question 9**

Which annelids form a pyramid-shaped enclosure around themselves?

**Text number 3**

Earthworms are worms of the species Oligochaeta, which support above-ground food chains both as prey and, in some areas, as important for soil aeration and enrichment. Burrowing marine polychaete worms, which may represent up to a third of all species in near-shore environments, contribute to ecosystem development by allowing water and oxygen to penetrate the seabed. In addition to improving soil fertility, anelids provide food and bait for humans. Scientists monitor annelids to monitor marine and freshwater quality. Although bloodletting is no longer popular with doctors, some species of leech are considered endangered because they have been overfished for this purpose in recent centuries. Engineers are now studying the jaws of the rattlesnake because they are an exceptionally light and strong combination.

**Question 0**

How do earthworms help the soil they live in?

**Question 1**

What proportion of coastal marine animals are burrowers?

**Question 2**

How do burrowing marine animals help marine ecosystems?

**Question 3**

Which annelid jaws do engineers study?

**Question 4**

Why are some leeches endangered?

**Question 5**

How do earthworms pollute the soil they live in?

**Question 6**

How many of the aerial annelids living near the coast are burrowing?

**Question 7**

How do burrowing marine animals deplete marine ecosystems?

**Question 8**

Which annelid ears do engineers study?

**Question 9**

Why are leeches not threatened?

**Text number 4**

Because annelids are soft-bodied, their fossils are rare - mostly jaws and mineralised tubes that some species excreted. Although some late Ediacaran fossils may represent annelids, the oldest known fossil that has been identified with certainty dates back to about 518 million years ago, at the beginning of the Cambrian period. Fossils of most modern mobile polychaete groups appeared by the end of the Carboniferous period, around 299 million years ago. Palaeontologists disagree on whether some of the body fossils from the mid-Ordovician period, around 472-461 million years ago, are oligochaete remains, with the earliest undisputed fossils of the group dating from the Tertiary period, 65 million years ago.

**Question 0**

Why are annelid fossils rare?

**Question 1**

What fossil evidence of annelids has been found?

**Question 2**

How old is the earliest annelid fossil?

**Question 3**

What types of annelids existed 299 million years ago?

**Question 4**

Which period began about 472 million years ago?

**Question 5**

Why are spinal foci common?

**Question 6**

What fossil evidence of annelids can no longer be found?

**Question 7**

How old is the oldest living annelid?

**Question 8**

What type of annelids disappeared 299 million years ago?

**Question 9**

Which period began about 372 million years ago?

**Text number 5**

No single feature distinguishes annelids from other invertebrate phyla, but they do have a distinctive combination of traits. Their bodies are long and their segments are divided externally by shallow annular contractions, called annuli, and internally by septa ('partitions') at the same points, although in some species the septa are incomplete and in some cases absent. Most segments have the same organs, although a common gut, circulatory system and nervous system make them interdependent. The arthropod body is covered by a cuticle (outer shell), which does not contain cells but is secreted by cells under the skin, and is made of tough but flexible collagen and does not change - the arthropod cuticle, on the other hand, is made of the more rigid α-chitin and changes until the arthropods reach their full size. Most reptiles have a closed circulatory system, with blood flowing through blood vessels throughout its entire circuit.

**Question 0**

What externally divides the annelid segments?

**Question 1**

What divides the annelid segments internally?

**Question 2**

What do annelid segments have in common?

**Question 3**

What covers the outer shell of annelids?

**Question 4**

What is an animal cuticle made of?

**Question 5**

What externally connects the annelid segments?

**Question 6**

What connects the annelid segments internally?

**Question 7**

What is missing from the annelid segments?

**Question 8**

What hides the appearance of annelids?

**Question 9**

What is an animal cuticle made of?

**Text number 6**

Most annelid bodies are made up of almost identical segments, with the same internal organs and external setae (χαιτη in Greek, meaning hair) and, in some species, appendages. However, the anterior and posterior segments are not considered segments proper because they do not have normal organs and do not develop in the same way as the segments proper. The anterior segment, called the prostomium (Greek προ-, meaning "front" and στομα, meaning "mouth"), contains the brain and sensory organs, while the posterior segment, called the pygidium (Greek πυγιδιον, meaning "little tail") or periproct, contains the anus, which is usually located below. The first segment behind the prostomium, called the peristomium (Greek περι-, meaning "around", and στομα, meaning "mouth"), is not considered by some zoologists to be a segment proper, but some multi-mammalian peristomium have cases and appendages similar to other segments.

**Question 0**

From which language does the term "chaetae" come?

**Question 1**

What does 'chaetae' mean?

**Question 2**

Which parts of annelids are different from the real segments?

**Question 3**

From what language does "prostomium" come?

**Question 4**

What does 'pygidium' mean?

**Question 5**

In which language is the term "chaetae" banned?

**Question 6**

What does "chaetae" no longer mean?

**Question 7**

Which parts of annelids are different from false segments?

**Question 8**

What kind of annelid has four real segments?

**Text number 7**

The cuticles of annelids are made up of collagen fibres, usually in alternating layers that are twisted so that the fibres cross each other. They are secreted by the unicellular deep epidermis (the outermost layer of the skin). A few tube-dwelling marine animals do not have cuticles, but their tubes are similar in structure and their skin is protected by mucus glands secreted by the epidermis. Underneath the epidermis is the dermis, which is made up of connective tissue, i.e. a combination of cells and extracellular substances such as collagen. Underneath it are two layers of muscles that develop from the lining of the sheath (body cavity): the circular muscles lengthen and slim the segment as they contract, while underneath them are the longitudinal muscles, usually four separate strips, whose contraction makes the segment shorter and fatter. Some annelids also have oblique internal muscles that connect the lower half of the trunk to either side.

**Question 0**

How are the layers arranged in the annelid cuticles?

**Question 1**

What are annelid cuticles made of?

**Question 2**

What do non-pupae annelids use to protect their skin?

**Question 3**

What layer is under the epidermis?

**Question 4**

What does 'coelom' mean?

**Question 5**

How are the eyes arranged in the annelid cuticles?

**Question 6**

What are annelid brains made of?

**Question 7**

How do non-pupae of annelids protect their offspring?

**Question 8**

What kind of cancer is under the epidermis?

**Text number 8**

The hair coverings ("hairs") of annelids protrude from the epidermis and provide traction and other properties. The simplest of these are unarticulated and form paired bundles on either side of each segment. The parapodia ("limbs") of annelids that have them often have more complex hairs, such as those that are articulated, comb-like or hooked. The sheaths are composed of a moderately flexible β-chitin and are made up of follicles, each with a ketoblast ("hair-forming") cell at the base and muscles that can extend or retract the sheath. Ketoblasts produce fats by forming microvilli, fine hair-like projections that increase the area available for fatty secretion. When the cheta is complete, the microvilli retract into the chetoblast, leaving parallel tunnels running almost the entire length of the cheta. Thus, annelid chetae differ structurally from arthropod setae ('bristles'), which are made of a more rigid α-chitin with a single internal cavity and are attached to flexible joints in shallow wells in the cuticle.

**Question 0**

What do chetoblast cells do?

**Question 1**

What hair-like extensions do chetoblasts make?

**Question 2**

What are threads?

**Question 3**

What are parapodia against?

**Question 4**

What do chetoblast cells destroy?

**Question 5**

What hair-like extensions do chetoblasts eat?

**Question 6**

What is never considered a halo?

**Text number 9**

Almost all polychaete mammals have parapodia as limbs, while other large groups of annelids lack them. Parapodia are non-articulating paired extensions of the trunk wall, and their muscles are derived from the trunk's circular muscles. They are often internally supported by one or more large, thick chetae. The parapodia of burrowing and tube-dwelling polychaete worms are often just ridges with hooked apical branches at their tips. The parapodia of active crawlers and swimmers are often divided into large upper and lower fins on a very short body, usually flanked by chetae and sometimes cirri (fused bundles of cilia) and gills.

**Question 0**

What are cirri?

**Question 1**

What kind of parapodia do burrowing annelids often have?

**Question 2**

What types of annelids have limb-like parapodia?

**Question 3**

What are parapodia?

**Question 4**

Where can cirri never be found?

**Question 5**

What kind of parapodia do airborne annelids often have?

**Question 6**

What types of annelids have sleep-like parapodia?

**Question 7**

What parapodia is no longer considered?

**Text number 10**

The brain usually forms a ring around the pharynx (throat) and consists of a pair of ganglia (local control centres) above and in front of the pharynx, connected by nerve conductors on either side of the pharynx to another pair of ganglia just below and behind the pharynx. The brains of polychaetes are usually located in the prostomium, while those of clitoral animals are located in the peristomium or sometimes in the first segment behind the peristomium. In some highly mobile and active polychaetes, the brain is larger and more complex, with visible occipital, midbrain and forebrain sections. The rest of the central nervous system is generally 'ladder-like', consisting of a pair of nerve fibres running through the lower part of the trunk, each segment containing paired ganglia connected by a transverse connection. Branching from each segmental ganglion is a system of local nerves that run along the body wall and then wrap around the body. However, in most polychaetes the two main nerve fibres are fused together, and in the tubular Owenia the only nerve fibre has no ganglia and is located in the epidermis.

**Question 0**

What are ganglia?

**Question 1**

What are the annelid brains around?

**Question 2**

What is a gullet?

**Question 3**

Where are the clitoral brains?

**Question 4**

Where are the brains of the multi-cellular worms?

**Question 5**

What are the spherical annelid brains around?

**Question 6**

Where are the teeth of the clitoris?

**Question 7**

Where are the bodies of the multi-cellular worms?

**Question 8**

What is rarely "sticky"?

**Question 9**

Which nerve fibres never fuse in multicellular worms?

**Text number 11**

As in arthropods, each muscle fibre (cell) is controlled by more than one nerve cell, and the speed and force of fibre contraction depends on the combined action of all the nerve cells. Vertebrates have a different system, with a single nerve cell controlling a group of muscle fibres. The longitudinal nerve sheaths of most annelids contain giant axons (output signal conductors for nerve cells), whose large diameter reduces their resistance, allowing them to transmit signals exceptionally fast. This allows these worms to retreat quickly from danger by shortening their bodies. Experiments have shown that cutting off the giant axons prevents this escape reaction, but does not affect normal movement.

**Question 0**

With which group of species is the muscle control of the annelids similar?

**Question 1**

What are giant taxa?

**Question 2**

How do annelids withdraw from danger?

**Question 3**

Which species group does annelid mind control resemble?

**Question 4**

What do giant taxa destroy?

**Question 5**

How do annelids increase the risk?

**Question 6**

Which worms are very slow to retreat from danger?

**Text number 12**

Sensors are mainly single cells that detect light, chemicals, shock waves and touch, and are found in the head, appendages (if any) and other parts of the body. The cochleae ('neck') are paired, filamentous structures found only in multi-cellular reptiles and are thought to be chemical sensors. Some polychaetes also have various combinations of ocelli ('little eyes'), which detect the direction of light, and camera eyes or compound eyes, which are probably capable of forming images. The compound eyes are likely to have evolved independently of the arthropod eyes. Some tubeworms use ocelli spread over their body to detect the shadows of fish, so that they can retreat quickly into their tubes. Some burrowing and tube-dwelling polychaete worms have statocysts (tilt and balance sensors) that tell them which way is down. A few genera of polychaetes have antennae below their heads, which are used both for feeding and as 'feelers', and some also have antennae, which are similar in structure but probably used mainly as 'feelers'.

**Question 0**

What kinds of things can sensors in annelids detect?

**Question 1**

What is 'whiplash'?

**Question 2**

What types of annelids have cervical vertebrae?

**Question 3**

What are the occipital organs thought to do?

**Question 4**

What is the term for 'small eyes'?

**Question 5**

What kind of things can annelid sensors remove?

**Question 6**

What kind of annelids have human organs?

**Question 7**

What is thought to be killed by necklaces?

**Question 8**

What is the term for 'massive eyes'?

**Text number 13**

Most annelids have a pair of enclosures (body cavities) in each segment, separated from each other by partitions and vertical intestinal flaps. Each septum forms a sandwich with connective tissue in the middle, with the mesothelium (a membrane that acts as a lining) of the previous and next segments on either side. Each mesentery is identical except that the mesothelium is the lining of each pair of shells, and embedded in it are blood vessels and, in polychaetes, the main nerve fibres. The mesothelium is composed of modified epithelio-muscular cells; that is, their bodies form part of the epithelium, but their bases extend to form muscle fibres in the body wall. The mesothelium can also form radial and circular muscles in the septa and circular muscles around the blood vessels and intestines. Parts of the mesothelium, especially outside the intestine, can also form chlorophagocytes, which have functions similar to those of the vertebrate liver: producing and storing glycogen and fat, producing oxygen-carrying haemoglobin, digesting proteins and converting nitrogenous waste products into ammonia and urea for excretion.

**Question 0**

What are chelometry?

**Question 1**

What distinguishes annelid body cavities from other segments?

**Question 2**

What distinguishes the body cavities of annelids from each other?

**Question 3**

What is mesothelium made of?

**Question 4**

Where is the chelometry removed from?

**Question 5**

How are annelid body cavities connected to other segments?

**Question 6**

What distinguishes the body cavities of annelids from the eyes?

**Question 7**

What mesothelium has never been made of?

**Text number 14**

Many annelids move by peristalsis (contraction and expansion waves that sweep across the body) or bend the body when crawling or swimming by parapodia. In these animals, the septa allow round and longitudinal muscles to change the shape of individual segments by making each segment a separate fluid-filled 'balloon'. However, septa are often incomplete in semi-solid animals that do not move by peristalsis or parapodial movements. For example, some animals move with body-whipping movements, some small marine species move with spines (fine muscle-powered hairs), and some burrowing animals turn their pharynx (throat) upside down to penetrate and crawl along the seafloor.

**Question 0**

How does peristalsis work?

**Question 1**

Why are annelid segments like water balloons?

**Question 2**

What are frynget?

**Question 3**

What are hairs?

**Question 4**

How does peristalsis stop working?

**Question 5**

Why are the segments of annelids like helium balls?

**Question 6**

What are often perfect for annelids?

**Question 7**

What has no cucumber?

**Text number 15**

The fluid in the cheloma contains chelomocyte cells that defend animals against parasites and infections. In some species, chelocytes may also contain respiratory pigment - red haemoglobin in some species, green chlorocrurorin in others (dissolved in the plasma) - and transport oxygen in their segments. The respiratory pigment is also soluble in blood plasma. Species with well-developed septa also tend to have blood vessels running their entire length above and below the intestine, the upper one carrying blood forward and the lower one carrying blood backward. Capillary networks in the wall of the trunk and around the intestine move blood between the main blood vessels and to the parts of the segment that need oxygen and nutrients. Both main blood vessels, especially the upper one, can pump blood by contracting. In some annelids, the anterior end of the upper artery is dilated with muscle to form the heart, while in many nectarines the anterior end of part of the arteries connecting the upper and lower main arteries acts as the heart. Species with poorly developed or non-existent septa usually have no blood vessels and depend on the internal circulation of the enclosure to transport nutrients and oxygen.

**Question 0**

What can chelomocyte cells defend against?

**Question 1**

What type of pigment is dissolved in the blood of annelids?

**Question 2**

What is the body length of annelids with well-developed septa?

**Question 3**

What should non-septic annelids be used for the bloodstream?

**Question 4**

What can chelomocyte cells cure?

**Question 5**

What type of pigment is produced in the blood of annelids?

**Question 6**

What is the brain length of annelids with well-developed septims?

**Question 7**

What do annelids using septa vessels use blood for?

**Text number 16**

However, the body structure of leeches and their closest relatives is very uniform within the group, but it differs considerably from that of other annelids, including other members of the Clitellata family. There are no septa in leeches, the connective tissue layer of the body wall is so thick that it occupies a large part of the body, and the two sheaths are far apart and run the length of the body. They act as the main blood vessels, although they are side by side rather than above and below. However, they are lined with mesothelium, like the coelomata and unlike the blood vessels of other annelids. The leeches usually use the suction cups on their front and back ends to move like inchworms. The anus is on the upper surface of the pygidium.

**Question 0**

What types of annelids are very different from others?

**Question 1**

What type of tissue takes up most of the leech's body?

**Question 2**

How many enclosures do leeches have?

**Question 3**

What is lining the enclosure structure of leeches?

**Question 4**

On what leeches move?

**Question 5**

Which types of annelids are very similar to others?

**Question 6**

What kind of tissue eats up most of the leech's body?

**Question 7**

How many brains do leeches have?

**Question 8**

What lines the bones of leeches?

**Question 9**

What leeches fly on?

**Text number 17**

The food structures in the mouth area vary widely and have little correlation with animal diets. Many mammals have a muscular pharynx that can be turned outwards (turned upside down to expand it). In these animals, the few anterior segments often lack partitions, so when the muscles of these segments contract, the strong increase in fluid pressure caused by all segments opens the pharynx very quickly. Two genera, Eunicidae and Phyllodocidae, have developed jaws that can be used for catching prey, biting pieces of vegetation or grasping dead and decaying matter. On the other hand, some predatory polychaetes have neither jaws nor pivoting mandibles. Selective carnivores usually live in tubes on the seabed and use palpettes to find food particles in the sediment and then sweep them into their mouths. Filter feeders use "crowns", which are palms covered with spines that flush food particles towards their mouths. Non-selective sediment eaters feed on soil or marine sediment with their mouth, which is usually unspecialised. Some clitellates have sticky pads on the roof of their mouths, and some can turn the pads upside down to catch prey. Leech worms often have a pivoting pharynx or a muscular pharynx with two or three teeth.

**Question 0**

What does "everted" mean?

**Question 1**

Which part of a polychaete can be inverted?

**Question 2**

What kind of annelids have developed the jaws?

**Question 3**

What do annelids use their jaws for?

**Question 4**

Where do some annelideas get their "crown" from?

**Question 5**

Which part of a millipede can be upside down?

**Question 6**

What kind of annelids are missing jaws?

**Question 7**

What do annelids use robots for?

**Question 8**

What do some annelids have "trophies" for?

**Text number 18**

The intestine is usually a nearly straight tube, supported by intestinal flaps (vertical partitions between segments), and ends in the anus below the pygidium. However, in tubular members of the Siboglinidae, the intestine is blocked by a swollen mucosa inhabited by symbiotic bacteria, which can account for up to 15 % of the total weight of the worms. The bacteria convert inorganic matter - such as hydrogen sulphide and carbon dioxide or methane from hydrothermal vents - into organic matter that feeds them and their hosts, while the worms stick their diaphragms into gas streams to suck up the gases the bacteria need.

**Question 0**

What types of annelids live in tubes?

**Question 1**

What blocks the intestines of Siboglinids?

**Question 2**

How much of the weight of the Siboglinidae is made up of symbiotic bacteria?

**Question 3**

What gases come from hydrothermal sources?

**Question 4**

What gases come from the leaks?

**Question 5**

What types of annelids live in the brain?

**Question 6**

What clogs the blood of Siboglinides?

**Question 7**

How much of the consciousness of the Siboglinidae is made up of symbiotic bacteria?

**Question 8**

What liquids come from hydrothermal bottles?

**Question 9**

What are the food sources that seep out?

**Text number 19**

Annelids with blood vessels use methanephridia to remove soluble waste products, while those without blood vessels use protonephridia. Both systems use a two-stage filtration process, where the liquid and waste products are first removed and then filtered again to reabsorb any reusable substances, while toxic and spent substances are removed in the urine. The difference is that protonephridia combine both filtration steps in the same organ, while methanephridia perform only the second filtration and rely on other mechanisms to perform the first filtration - special filter cells in the vascular walls of the annelids release fluids and other small molecules into the chelating fluid, from where they circulate to the methanephridia. In the annelids, the points where the fluid enters the protonephridia or the methanephridia are in the anterior part of the septum, while the second-stage filter and the nephridiopore (an outlet in the body wall) are in the next segment. Thus, the rearmost segment (before the growth zone and pygidium) has no structure to remove the waste because there is no next segment to filter and remove it, while the first segment has a removal structure that moves the waste to the second segment but does not contain structures to filter and remove the urine again.

**Question 0**

What does methanephridia remove?

**Question 1**

How do non-vascular annelids remove waste?

**Question 2**

How many steps are there in the filtration of annelid waste?

**Question 3**

Which annelid system combines both filtration modes in one organ?

**Question 4**

What does methanephridia produce?

**Question 5**

What do non-vascular annelids do to increase the amount of waste?

**Question 6**

How many steps are there in annelid water filtration?

**Question 7**

Which annelid system combines both filtration modes in eight organs?

**Text number 20**

Annelids are thought to have originally been animals with two distinct sexes that released eggs and sperm into the water through their nephridia. The fertilised eggs develop into trophozoan larvae, which live as plankton. Later, they sink to the seafloor and become miniature adults: the segment between the apical tuft and the prototroch becomes the prostomium (head); the small area around the anus becomes the pygidium (tail segment); the narrow strip immediately in front of it becomes the growth zone, which gives rise to new segments; and the rest of the trochus becomes the peristomium (segment containing the mouth).

**Question 0**

How many sexes did annelids originally have?

**Question 1**

What releases sperm from the annelids?

**Question 2**

What will eggs become?

**Question 3**

What is life like for annelid larvae?

**Question 4**

What does the trophora change into when the annelids are mature?

**Question 5**

What releases sperm from the eyes of annelids?

**Question 6**

Inside which eggs explode?

**Question 7**

What do annelid larvae like to eat?

**Question 8**

What does the trophora turn into when the annelids die?

**Text number 21**

However, the life cycles of most living polychaete worms, almost all of which are marine animals, are not known, and only about 25% of the more than 300 species whose life cycles are known follow this pattern. Around 14% use similar external fertilisation but produce eggs with yolk that reduce the time the larva spends among the plankton, or eggs that produce small adults instead of larvae. Others care for the fertilised eggs until hatching - some produce gelatinous egg masses which they nurse, some attach the eggs to their bodies and some species keep the eggs in their bodies until hatching. These species use different methods of sperm transfer; in some species, for example, females collect sperm released into the water, while in others males have a penis that injects sperm into the female. There is no guarantee that this is a representative sample of the reproductive behaviour of polychaete worms, and it only reflects the current state of knowledge of scientists.

**Question 0**

How many species of mammals have a known life cycle?

**Question 1**

What percentage of polychaete birds produce eggs containing yolk?

**Question 2**

What are the benefits of egg yolks?

**Question 3**

What are most eggs of polychaete worms coated with?

**Question 4**

How many multispecies have an impossible life cycle?

**Question 5**

What percentage of polychaete birds produce milk?

**Question 6**

What are the benefits of rotten eggs?

**Question 7**

What is the coating on all the eggs of polychaete worms?

**Text number 22**

Some polychaete birds breed only once in their lifetime, while others breed almost continuously or for several breeding seasons. Most polychaetes remain the same sex throughout their lives, but a significant proportion of species are full hermaphrodites or change sex during their lifetime. Most of the polychaete worms whose reproduction has been studied do not have permanent gonads, and it is uncertain how they produce eggs and sperm. In a few species, the posterior part of the body detaches and becomes a separate individual that lives only long enough to swim to a suitable environment, usually close to the surface, and spawn.

**Question 0**

What do some non-single-sex multiracial people do?

**Question 1**

What do most polychaete worms lack to reproduce?

**Question 2**

How do some annelids get a one-off chance at a better spawning ground?

**Question 3**

What do all non-single-sex, multi-cat people do?

**Question 4**

What are worms lacking for reproduction?

**Question 5**

How do some annelids get a triple chance of a better spawning ground?

**Question 6**

How many multispecies worms reproduce an infinite number of times?

**Text number 23**

Most mature clitellates (a group that includes earthworms and leeches) are full hermaphrodites, although in some leeches the younger adults act as males and become females at maturity. All have well-developed gonads and all mate. The earthworms store their partner's sperm in spermathecae ('sperm reservoirs'), and the clitoris then produces an enclosure that collects eggs from the ovaries and sperm from the spermathecae. The fertilisation and development of the earthworm eggs takes place in the capsule. The eggs of the leech are fertilised in the ovaries and then transferred to the cocoon. In all clitorids, the cocoon also produces either yolk when the eggs are fertilised or nutrients as the eggs develop. All clitellates hatch into miniature adults rather than larvae.

**Question 0**

What group of annelids do leeches and earthworms belong to?

**Question 1**

What sex are most earthworms?

**Question 2**

Where do leech eggs fertilise?

**Question 3**

Where do leeches lay their eggs?

**Question 4**

What types of annelids hatch as miniature adults?

**Question 5**

Which group of annelids hates leeches and earthworms?

**Question 6**

What type of creatures are most earthworms?

**Question 7**

Where are leech gardens fertilised?

**Question 8**

Where do leeches eat their eggs?

**Question 9**

What types of annelids hatch into giant adults?

**Text number 24**

Charles Darwin's The Formation of Vegetable Mould through the Action of Worms (1881) was the first scientific analysis of the contribution of earthworms to soil fertility. Some burrow, while others live entirely on the surface, usually in moist leaf litter. Both surface and burrowing worms contribute to soil formation by mixing organic and mineral matter, by speeding up the decomposition of organic matter and making it more readily available to other organisms, and by enriching minerals and converting them into more useful substances for plants. Earthworms are also important prey for birds ranging in size from robins to herons and mammals from crows to badgers, and in some cases earthworm conservation may be necessary to protect endangered birds.

**Question 0**

Who published a book about worms in 1881?

**Question 1**

What was the first scientific study on how earthworms help the soil?

**Question 2**

Where do earthworms prefer to live on the ground?

**Question 3**

How does the removal of excavators help the soil?

**Question 4**

What is the biggest bird that eats earthworms?

**Question 5**

Who published a book about worms in 1781?

**Question 6**

What was the only scientific study on how the earthworm helps the soil?

**Question 7**

Where do earthworms prefer to live in space?

**Question 8**

How does tightening excavators help the soil?

**Question 9**

What is the only bird that can eat earthworms?

**Text number 25**

Terrestrial annelids can be invasive in some situations. For example, in the glaciated regions of North America, almost all the native earthworms are believed to have died out in the glaciers, and the worms that now occur in these regions are all imported from elsewhere, mainly from Europe and more recently Asia. Invasive worms have a particularly negative impact on northern deciduous forests, causing a reduction in leaf ash, loss of soil fertility, changes in soil chemistry and loss of ecological diversity. Amynthas agrestis is of particular concern and has been listed as a prohibited species in at least one state (Wisconsin).

**Question 0**

Where did the glaciers kill the original lions?

**Question 1**

Where do most of the current dewormers in the Ice Age areas come from?

**Question 2**

What types of forests can be damaged by invasive worms?

**Question 3**

Where did glaciers kill Asian lizards?

**Question 4**

Where did all the current glacial drifts come from?

**Question 5**

What kind of forests are immune to invasive worms?

**Question 6**

Which species are no longer considered invasive?

**Text number 26**

Earthworms have a significant impact on soil fertility. The Palolo worm, a marine polychaete worm that penetrates coral, sheds its hind end to spawn on the surface, and Samoans consider these spawning modules a delicacy. Fishermen sometimes find the worms more effective bait than artificial flies, and the worms can be stored for several days in a jar lined with moist moss. Worms are of commercial importance as bait and as a source of food for aquaculture, and proposals have been made to farm them to reduce overfishing of their natural populations. The predation of molluscs by some marine polychaete worms causes serious losses to fishing and aquaculture activities.

**Question 0**

What type of ringed beetle passes through coral?

**Question 1**

Which animal's backside do Samoans like to eat?

**Question 2**

What kind of baits do experienced anglers prefer?

**Question 3**

What do some polychaete worms eat that has caused problems?

**Question 4**

What type of worm has been proposed for cultivation?

**Question 5**

What kind of ring beetle passes through gold?

**Question 6**

Which annelid's backside do Samoans like to drink?

**Question 7**

What kind of baits do experienced anglers dislike?

**Question 8**

What do some worms eat that is harmless?

**Question 9**

What kind of worm is proposed to be killed?

**Text number 27**

The years in which leeches were used for medically questionable bloodletting date back to China around 30 AD. , from India around 200 AD. , ancient Rome around 50 AD and later all over Europe. In the 20th century, the medical demand for leeches was so great that some regions ran out of stocks and others imposed export restrictions or bans, and Hirudo medicinalis is a threatened species under both the IUCN and CITES. Recently, leeches have been used as an aid in microsurgery, and their saliva has been used to extract anti-inflammatory compounds and several important anticoagulants, including one that prevents tumour proliferation.

**Question 0**

When did leeches start to be used for bleeding?

**Question 1**

Where did leeches start to be used for bleeding?

**Question 2**

When did Rome start using leeches?

**Question 3**

When did India start using leeches?

**Question 4**

Which organisations consider Hirudo medicinalis to be endangered?

**Question 5**

Where did leeches start to be used for blood transfusions?

**Question 6**

When did Russia start using leeches?

**Question 7**

Which organisations consider Hirudo medicinalis to be extinct?

**Question 8**

When did India stop using leeches?

**Text number 28**

Because annelids are soft-bodied, their fossils are rare. The fossil record of multispecies worms consists mainly of jaws, which some species had, and mineralised tubes, which some species excreted. Some Ediacaran fossils, such as Dickinsonia, bear some resemblance to polychaetes, but the similarities are too vague for these fossils to be reliably classified. The small shell-shaped fossil Cloudina, dating from 549-542 million years ago, has been classified as annelid by some authors, but as a mollusc (i.e. the phylum to which jellyfish and sea anemone belong) by others. Until 2008, the earliest fossils generally accepted as annelioids were the multispecies Canadia and Burgessochaeta, both from the Burgess Shale of Canada, which formed around 505 million years ago in the Early Cambrian. The Myoscolex found in Australia, which is slightly older than the Burgess Shale, was possibly an annelid. However, it lacks some typical annelid features and has features not normally found in annelids, some of which are associated with other phyla. Then Simon Conway Morris and John Peel reported Phragmochaeta from Sirius Passet, which is about 518 million years old, and concluded that it was the oldest annelid known so far. There has been heated debate about whether the Burgess Shale fossil Wiwaxia was a mollusc or an annelid. Multispecies worms differentiated in the Early Ordovician, around 488-474 million years ago. The first annelid jaws are found only in the Early Ordovician, so the crowned group could not have appeared before this time, but probably a little later. By the end of the Carboniferous, around 299 million years ago, fossils had appeared of most of the modern mobile multicellular groups. Many of the fossil tubes resemble those produced by modern sedentary polychaete worms, but the first clearly polychaete worm-produced tubes date from the Jurassic period, less than 199 million years ago.

**Question 0**

When did Cloudina exist?

**Question 1**

What do some people think Cloudina should be called instead of annelids?

**Question 2**

How old were the Canadian and Burgessochaeta fossils found in Canada?

**Question 3**

What era was going on 505 million years ago?

**Question 4**

Where was Myoscolex found?

**Question 5**

When did Cloudina disappear?

**Question 6**

What does everyone think Cloudina should be called instead of Annelids?

**Question 7**

How old were the Canadian and Burgessochaeta fossils found in Australia?

**Question 8**

Where was Myoscolex unknown?

**Text number 29**

The earliest good evidence of oligochaetes dates back to the Tertiary period, 65 million years ago, and it has been suggested that these animals evolved around the same time as flowering plants in the Early Cretaceous, 130-90 million years ago. The trace fossil, which consists of a winding pit partly filled with small fecal pellets, may be evidence that earthworms were present in the Early Triassic 251-245 million years ago. Body fossils dating back to the middle Ordovician, 472-461 million years ago, have been tentatively classified as oligochaetes, but these identifications are uncertain and some have been disputed.

**Question 0**

When did the tertiary period start?

**Question 1**

In which era did the oligochaetes evolve?

**Question 2**

What types of annelid fossils have been found in the middle Ordovician?

**Question 3**

When were the earliest annelid fossils found?

**Question 4**

When did the tertiary period cease to exist?

**Question 5**

In which era did the oligochaetes evolve?

**Question 6**

What types of annelid fossils have disappeared in the middle Ordovician?

**Question 7**

When were the only annelid fossils discovered?

**Text number 30**

Traditionally, annelids have been divided into two main groups, the multicellular and the clitoral. Clitellates are divided into oligochaetes, which include earthworms, and hirudinomorphs, of which leeches are the best known members. For many years, there was no clear order from the 80 or so multicellular families to the higher level groups. In 1997, Greg Rouse and Kristian Fauchald attempted, on the basis of anatomical structures, to take "the first heuristic step towards bringing the systematics of polychaetes to an acceptably rigorous level" and divided polychaetes into the following groups:

**Question 0**

Into which two groups have annelids traditionally been divided?

**Question 1**

Which subtype of clitoral species do clitoral flagella belong to?

**Question 2**

Which clitoral subtype contains leeches?

**Question 3**

How many multiracial families are there?

**Question 4**

When did Greg Rouse start trying to classify polychaetes?

**Question 5**

Into which three groups have annelids traditionally been divided?

**Question 6**

Which subtype of clitoral species contains space worms?

**Question 7**

Which subtype of clitoral species do lemurs belong to?

**Question 8**

How many political parties are there?

**Question 9**

When did Greg Rouse start trying to classify planets?

**Text number 31**

In 2007, Torsten Struck and colleagues compared three genes in 81 taxa, nine of which were outgroups, i.e. those not considered closely related to annelids, but which were included to give an indication of where the organisms under study fit into the wider tree of life. The study used cross-checking analysis of 11 genes (including the original 3 genes) in 10 taxa. This analysis showed that clitellates, pogonophores and echiurans were in different branches of the polychaete phylogeny. It also concluded that the classification of the polychaetes into Scolecida, Canalipalpata and Aciculata was useless because members of these putative groups were scattered throughout the resulting phylogeny of the 81 taxa compared. Furthermore, it placed the onionculans, then generally regarded as a separate tribe, in the second branch of the multispecies tree and concluded that the leeches were a subgroup of the oligochaetes rather than a sister group to them among the clitorids. Rouse accepted analyses based on molecular phylogenetics, and their main conclusions are now the scientific consensus, although the details of the annelid phylogeny remain uncertain.

**Question 0**

Who compared annelid genes in 2007?

**Question 1**

How many annelid genes was Torsten Struck the first to compare?

**Question 2**

How many annelid genes did Torsten Struck cross-reference?

**Question 3**

Which subtypes of multi-species were useless classifications according to the 2007 survey?

**Question 4**

Which subgroup did Rouse decide leeches were?

**Question 5**

Who compared annelid genes in 1807?

**Question 6**

How many annelid genes was Torsten Struck the first to discover?

**Question 7**

How many annelid genes did Torsten Struck never compare for cross tabulation?

**Question 8**

Which subtypes of polychaetes were useless classifications according to the 1997 study?

**Question 9**

How did Rouse decide that leeches are a super assembly?

**Text number 32**

In addition to rewriting the classification of annelids and the three previously independent genera, molecular phylogenetic analyses undermine the emphasis of decades of previous writing on the importance of segmentation in invertebrate classification. The bodies of polychaetes, identified as a phylum in these analyses, are fully segmented, whereas the bodies of polychaetes echiurans and sipunculan branchiate are not segmented and the bodies of pogonophores are segmented only at the posterior parts of the body. It now appears that segmentation can appear and disappear during evolution much more easily than previously thought. A 2007 study also found that the ladder-like nervous system associated with segmentation is less common in both annelids and arthropods than previously thought[n 2].

**Question 0**

How many previously separated tribes were reclassified by the 2007 survey?

**Question 1**

What was the population group of annelids in the 2007 study?

**Question 2**

Which polychaete by-products are unsegmented?

**Question 3**

Which multispecies laterals are segmented only at the back?

**Question 4**

Which nervous system structure is not as common among annelids as was thought before 2007?

**Question 5**

How many previously separated tribes were reclassified by the 1837 survey?

**Question 6**

In a 2007 study, what was the slave group of annelids?

**Question 7**

Which descendants of polychaetes are immortal?

**Question 8**

Which offspring of polychaetes are segmented only in the head?

**Question 9**

Which nervous system structure is not as common among annelids as was thought before 1907?

**Text number 33**

Annelids belong to the protostomes, which are one of the two largest superphyla of amphibians - the other is the deuterostomes, which includes vertebrates. Protostome annelids were previously grouped with arthropods in the supergroup Articulata ('arthropods') because segmentation is evident in most members of both phyla. However, the genes that control segmentation in arthropods do not appear to function in the same way in annelids. Both arthropods and annelids have close relatives that are not segmented. It is at least as easy to assume that they have evolved to be segmented independently of each other as it is to assume that the ancestral protostome or bilateria was segmented and that segmentation disappeared in many descendant lineages. The current understanding is that annelids are classified with molluscs, brachiopods and several other phyla containing lophophores (fan-shaped food structures) and/or trochophore larvae in the phylum Lophotrochozoa. Bryzoa may be the most rudimentary (first to stand out) genus of Lophotrochozoa, and the relationships between the other members are not yet known. Arthropods are now considered members of the Ecdysozoa ('molting animals'), as are some unsegmented tribes.

**Question 0**

Which superclass do annelids belong to?

**Question 1**

What is the other superfamily besides protostomes?

**Question 2**

Which superclass do vertebrates belong to?

**Question 3**

What does 'Articulata' mean?

**Question 4**

What are lofos?

**Question 5**

To which super-generation are annelids now excluded?

**Question 6**

What is one of the many superphylls besides protostomes?

**Question 7**

Where is the superpower of vertebrates?

**Question 8**

What are lophosmores?

**Text number 34**

The Lophotrochozoa hypothesis is also supported by the fact that many of the phyla in this group, such as annelids, molluscs, nemerteans and flatworms, follow a similar pattern of fertilised egg development. When their cells divide after the 4-cell stage, the progeny of these 4 cells form a spiral pattern. The "fates" of the embryonic cells in these tribes, i.e. the roles of their offspring in the adult animal, are the same and can be predicted from a very early stage. This is why this evolutionary pattern is often described as a "spiral determinate distribution".

**Question 0**

Which genus of Lophotrochozoa has similar egg development?

**Question 1**

How are the cells of Lophotrochozoa eggs organised?

**Question 2**

What is the spiral oviposition pattern of Lophotrochozoa?

**Question 3**

Which animals of the genus Lophotrochozoa do not develop oocytes?

**Question 4**

How do Lophotrochozoa egg cells destroy themselves?

**Question 5**

What is the spiral egg cell pattern of Lophotrochozoa required to call?

**Question 6**

Which animal does not contain cells?

**Question 7**

Which species of animal can no longer lay eggs?

**Document number 300**

**Text number 0**

In monotheism and henotheism, God is conceived as the supreme being and the main object of faith. The concept of God as described by theologians usually includes the following attributes: omniscience (infinite knowledge), omnipotence (infinite power), omnipresence (present everywhere), omnipresence (perfect goodness), divine simplicity, and eternal and necessary existence. God is also usually defined as an incorporeal being who has no human biological sex, but the notion that God actively (as opposed to receptively) creates the universe has led some religions to give "Him" the metaphorical name "Father". Since God is not thought to be a corporeal being, God cannot (some say should not) be represented by a literal visual image; some religious groups use a man (sometimes old and bearded) to symbolize God because he has created the human mind in his own image.

**Question 0**

What does it mean that God is omnipotent?

**Question 1**

What is the sense that God is everywhere?

**Question 2**

What is the extent of God's knowledge?

**Question 3**

How is infinite information classified?

**Question 4**

What is God's benevolence called?

**Question 5**

Does God have sex?

**Question 6**

What kind of person is God portrayed as in some religions?

**Question 7**

What is God in monotheism?

**Question 8**

How should monotheism not be described?

**Question 9**

What gender do theologians usually use to define a person's biological sex?

**Question 10**

What has the creation of an incorporeal being led some religions to do about divine simplicity?

**Question 11**

What is the universe in biological sex?

**Question 12**

What are the concepts of the universe according to the theologians?

**Text number 1**

In theism, God is the creator and sustainer of the universe, while in deism God is the creator but not the sustainer. Monotheism is the belief in the existence of one God or the oneness of God. In pantheism, God is the universe itself. In atheism, God is not believed to exist, while in agnosticism, God is believed to be unknown or unknowable. God is also thought to be an immaterial, personal being, the source of all moral obligations, and the "greatest conceivable thing that exists". Many prominent philosophers have developed arguments for and against the existence of God.

**Question 0**

According to which belief is God the creator and sustainer of the universe?

**Question 1**

What does deism believe is God's role in the universe?

**Question 2**

What is the belief that God is the universe?

**Question 3**

Which belief system definitively believes that there is no higher power or supreme being?

**Question 4**

What belief system believes in some kind of higher powwer or some other, but not organized religion?

**Question 5**

What is God in theism?

**Question 6**

What is God in deism?

**Question 7**

What is monotheism?

**Question 8**

What is atheism?

**Question 9**

What two characteristics describe God in deism?

**Question 10**

What does God in theism not do about the universe?

**Question 11**

What does monotheism say God is made of?

**Question 12**

As an agnostic, what do you think does not exist?

**Question 13**

What have many prominent agnostics developed from pantheism?

**Text number 2**

God has many names, and different names are associated with different cultural understandings of God's identity and attributes. In ancient Egyptian Atheism, possibly the earliest recorded monotheistic religion, the deity was called Aten, and was assumed to be the only 'true' supreme being and creator of the universe. The Hebrew Bible and Judaism use the words "He who is", "I am who I am" and the tetragrammaton YHWH as names of God, while Christianity sometimes uses Yahweh and Jehovah as pronunciations of YHWH. In Christian Trinitarianism, the triune God is called Father, Son and Holy Spirit. In Judaism, God is commonly referred to as Elohim or Adonai, the latter of which some scholars believe to be descended from the Egyptian Aten. In Islam, Allah, "Al-El" or "Al-Elah" ("God") is used, and Muslims also have numerous names for God. In Hinduism, Brahman is often regarded as a monistic deity. In other religions, God has names such as Baha in Bahá'íism, Waheguru in Sikhism and Ahura Mazda in Zoroastrianism.

**Question 0**

What are the pronunciations of God's name, YHWH?

**Question 1**

What is the Holy Trinity?

**Question 2**

What name was God called in the days of atheism?

**Question 3**

What is the Islamic name of God?

**Question 4**

What do Bahá'ís call God?

**Question 5**

What was the first monotheistic religion?

**Question 6**

What is the name of God in the Hebrew Bible?

**Question 7**

What is the name of the Christian God?

**Question 8**

What are the two names of God in the Jewish religion?

**Question 9**

Where do researchers believe the name Adonai originated?

**Question 10**

What were the names given to YHWH and I Am Who I Am during the era of Egyptian atheism?

**Question 11**

What names are Yaweh and Jehovah used in atheism?

**Question 12**

What is considered a Bramen in Christianity?

**Question 13**

What is the name of the Holy Spirit in Aten?

**Question 14**

How many persons does God have in Sikhism?

**Text number 3**

The earliest written form of the Germanic word for God (always capitalised here) comes from the 6th century Christian Codex Argenteus. The English word itself is derived from the proto-germanic \* ǥuđan. The reconstructed Proto-Indo-European form \* ǵhu-tó-m was probably based on the root \* ǵhau(ə)-, which meant either 'to call' or 'to invoke'. The Germanic words for God were originally neutral - they applied to both sexes - but as the Germanic peoples became Christianized from the original Germanic paganism, the words changed to a masculine syntactic form.

**Question 0**

Where does the English word God come from?

**Question 1**

Are the first Germanic words to God masculine or feminine?

**Question 2**

When did Germanic words meaning God take on a masculine form?

**Question 3**

What did the Germanic peoples do before they became Christians?

**Question 4**

What does the word "God" in Gaelic just mean?

**Question 5**

Where did the word God originally come from?

**Question 6**

Where does the English word God come from?

**Question 7**

What gender were the original Germanic words for God?

**Question 8**

What is the origin of the earliest masculine form of the English word "God"?

**Question 9**

What is the origin of the word Codex?

**Question 10**

What was the basis for the use of Argenteus?

**Question 11**

What does Argenteus mean?

**Question 12**

How were the English words to call originally used?

**Text number 4**

In English, the capitalised form of God still represents the difference between the monotheistic "God" and the monotheistic "gods". The English word God and its equivalents in other languages are generally used for all concepts, and despite significant differences between religions, the term remains the common English translation for all. The same is true of the Hebrew Eli, but in Judaism God is also given his own name, the tetragrammaton YHWH, which is possibly of Edomite or Midianite deity origin, Yahweh. In many translations of the Bible, when the word HERRA is written in capital letters, it means that the word represents a tetragrammaton.

**Question 0**

What separates God from gods?

**Question 1**

Which faith has many gods?

**Question 2**

What does it mean that the word LORD is written in capital letters in the Bible?

**Question 3**

What is a tetragrammaton gor God?

**Question 4**

Whatever the religion, what is usually used as the name of the Supreme Being?

**Question 5**

Which form of the word God refers to the polytheistic gods?

**Question 6**

What is the name of God in Judaism?

**Question 7**

What does the capitalised word LORD in some Bibles mean?

**Question 8**

What is represented in Edom by the capitalised form of God?

**Question 9**

How is the Midianese word God usually used?

**Question 10**

Regarding the Midianite deity, what word remains in Edom?

**Question 11**

What name is given to God in Midian?

**Question 12**

What does the word El mean in English?

**Text number 5**

There is no clear consensus on the nature or even the existence of God. Abrahamic concepts of God include the monotheistic concept of God in Judaism, the Trinitarian view of God in Christianity and the Islamic concept of God. Dharmic religions differ in their conceptions of God: Hinduism's conceptions of God vary by region, sect and caste, from monotheistic to polytheistic and atheistic. The historical Buddha acknowledged divinity, especially Śakra and Brahma. However, other sentient beings, including the gods, can at best only be a support on one's personal path to salvation. In the later development of the Mahayana tradition, concepts of deity take on a more prominent role in conceptions of gods[citation needed].

**Question 0**

What is the Christian view of God?

**Question 1**

How much can belief in God vary in Hinduism?

**Question 2**

Does Hinduism believe in only one god?

**Question 3**

What is the Jewish community's understanding of God?

**Question 4**

What kind of religion is Hinduism considered to be?

**Question 5**

What kind of religion is Judaism?

**Question 6**

What kind of religion is Christianity?

**Question 7**

How many gods do Hindus have?

**Question 8**

How many gods do Christians have?

**Question 9**

What do the Buddhist religions do about God?

**Question 10**

How do Sakra's views on God differ?

**Question 11**

What role does the Mahayana tradition play in salvation?

**Question 12**

How is the concept of God treated in the Dharma religions?

**Text number 6**

Monotheists believe that there is only one god, and they may argue that the one true god is worshipped under different names in different religions. The view that all theists actually worship the same god, whether they know it or not, is particularly emphasised in Hinduism and Sikhism. In Christianity, the doctrine of the Trinity describes God as one God in three persons. The Trinity includes God the Father, God the Son (Jesus) and God the Holy Spirit. The most fundamental concept in Islam is tawhid (meaning "oneness" or "uniqueness"). God is described in the Qur'an as follows, "Say: He is Allah, one and only; Allah, eternal, absolute; He is not born, nor is He begotten; and there is none like Him." Muslims reject the Christian doctrine of the Trinity and the divinity of Jesus and compare it to polytheism. According to Islam, God is above all understanding or comparison and in no way resembles any of His creatures. Thus, Muslims are not iconographers and are not expected to visualise God.

**Question 0**

What do Muslims believe that trinitism resembles too much?

**Question 1**

Which belief is ever expected to try to visualise God?

**Question 2**

What is the basic religion of the Muslim religion?

**Question 3**

Which religious text helps to confirm to Muslims that Christianity is more like polytheism?

**Question 4**

What is the Muslim concept of tawhid?

**Question 5**

What do monotheists believe?

**Question 6**

Which religion believes that all theists worship the same god?

**Question 7**

What is the Trinity in Christianity?

**Question 8**

What do Muslims think about Christianity?

**Question 9**

What are Christians not expected to do because they are iconoclasts?

**Question 10**

What view of monotheists does Islam emphasise?

**Question 11**

What does the doctrine of the Trinity describe, according to theists?

**Question 12**

What do Hindus compare the divinity of Jesus to?

**Question 13**

What is Jesus not like in Christianity?

**Text number 7**

According to theism, God exists realistically, objectively and independently of human thought, God created and sustains everything, God is omnipotent and eternal, and God is personal and interacts with the universe through, for example, religious experience and human prayer. According to theism, God is both transcendent and immanent; that is, God is both infinite and somehow present in the affairs of the world. Not all theists subscribe to all of these claims, but everyone tends to subscribe to some of them (see the genealogy for comparison). According to Catholic theology, God is infinitely simple and not inadvertently subject to time. Most theists believe that God is omnipotent, omniscient and benevolent, although this belief raises questions about God's responsibility for evil and suffering in the world. Some theists attribute God's omnipotence, omniscience, or benevolence to a self-conscious or deliberate limitation. Open theism, on the other hand, argues that the nature of time means that God's omniscience does not mean that the deity can predict the future. Sometimes theism is used to refer generally to any belief in a god or gods, i.e. monotheism or polytheism.

**Question 0**

What is the basis of Catholic theology?

**Question 1**

In what ways can God interact with the universe?

**Question 2**

Why is it sometimes difficult to think of God as benevolent?

**Question 3**

What is the suffix theism used for?

**Question 4**

What are examples of different types of theism?

**Question 5**

Which three things do most theists agree on?

**Question 6**

Which religion believes that God is infinitely simple and not subject to time?

**Question 7**

What does theism mean in general?

**Question 8**

What is one property of the universe?

**Question 9**

How does the universe work?

**Question 10**

What does the term Catholicism sometimes refer to?

**Question 11**

What two things make it difficult for theists to believe that the universe is benevolent?

**Question 12**

What do Catholics believe about God's limited omniscience?

**Text number 8**

According to deism, God is fully transcendent: God exists, but he does not intervene in the world beyond what was necessary to create it. According to this view, God is not anthropomorphic, nor does he answer prayers or perform miracles. Common to deism is the belief that God is not interested in humanity and may not even be aware of it. Pandeism and panentheism respectively combine deism and pantheistic or panentheistic beliefs. Pandeism, like deism, is proposed to explain why God would create the universe and then abandon it, and pantheism to explain the origin and purpose of the universe.

**Question 0**

What is the deistic concept of God?

**Question 1**

How does the deist God relate to us?

**Question 2**

What is Pandeism?

**Question 3**

What does a deistic God not do?

**Question 4**

Which religion believes that God is transcendent?

**Question 5**

What is deism?

**Question 6**

Is God represented in deism in human form?

**Question 7**

Does God answer prayers in deism?

**Question 8**

What does deism usually have in common?

**Question 9**

What is the pantheistic view of God abandoning his creation?

**Question 10**

What does a pandemic god not do?

**Question 11**

What belief is common to deism in Pandeism?

**Question 12**

Does the universe answer prayers in pantheism?

**Text number 9**

Pantheism holds that God is the universe and the universe is God, while panentheism holds that God contains the universe but is not identical with it. It is also the view of the liberal Catholic Church, theosophy, some Hindu sects, with the exception of Vaishnavism, which believes in panentheism, Sikhism, some elements of neo-paganism and Taoism, and many individuals within different denominations and faiths. Kabbalah, Jewish mysticism, paints a pantheistic/panentheistic view of God - which has wide acceptance in Hasidic Judaism, especially by its founder, the Baal Shem Tov - but only as an adjunct to the Jewish view of a personal God, not in the original pantheistic sense, which denies or limits the personal God[citation needed][citation needed].

**Question 0**

What is pantheism?

**Question 1**

What is panentheism?

**Question 2**

What is Kabbalah?

**Question 3**

Who is the founder of Hasidic Judaism?

**Question 4**

Who was the founder of Hasidic Judaism?

**Question 5**

What is panentheism?

**Question 6**

Which part of Hinduism does not believe in panentheism?

**Question 7**

What is another name for Jewish mysticism?

**Question 8**

What is pantheism?

**Question 9**

What is God identical to in panentheism?

**Question 10**

What does the Baal Shem Tov believe if God is the universe?

**Question 11**

Who is the founder of the liberal Catholic Church?

**Question 12**

In which group is Vaishnavism accepted as part of Jewish mysticism?

**Question 13**

What is another name for Vaishnavism?

**Text number 10**

Even non-theists have different views on gods. Some non-theists eschew the concept of God, although they accept that it is significant to many; other non-theists understand God as a symbol of human values and aspirations. The 19th-century English atheist Charles Bradlaugh declared that he refused to say "there is no God" because "the word 'God' is to me a sound that gives no clear or distinct affirmation"; more specifically, he said that he did not believe in a Christian God. Stephen Jay Gould proposed an approach that divides the world of philosophy into "non-overlapping magisteria" (NOMA). According to this view, supernatural questions, such as those concerning the existence and being of God, are not empirical and fall within the domain of theology. The methods of science should then be used to answer all empirical questions about the natural world, and theology should be used to answer questions about ultimate meaning and moral value. According to this view, the absence of any observable empirical trace of supernatural events to natural events makes science the sole actor in the natural world.

**Question 0**

What do some non-theists think God is like?

**Question 1**

Who said, as a professed atheist, that "the word 'God' is a voice to me that gives no clear or definite confirmation"?

**Question 2**

What is a NOMA?

**Question 3**

What should the NOMA use to answer questions about the physical world?

**Question 4**

What should be used to answer the fundamental questions of morality and meaning?

**Question 5**

Name a 19th century English atheist?

**Question 6**

What does Stephen Jay Gould call philosophy that deals with the supernatural?

**Question 7**

Which category does NOMA belong to?

**Question 8**

What did 19th century non-theist Stephen Jay say about God?

**Question 9**

What should Christianity be used for in relation to nature?

**Question 10**

What should philosophy be used for in relation to morality?

**Question 11**

Where does the lack of supernatural influence make human dignity the only actor?

**Question 12**

What does NOMA avoid about God?

**Text number 11**

Another view put forward by Richard Dawkins is that the existence of God is an empirical question, because "a universe with a god would be completely different from a universe without a god, and that would be a scientific difference". Carl Sagan argued that the doctrine of the Creator of the universe is difficult to prove or disprove and that the only conceivable scientific discovery that could disprove the existence of a Creator would be the discovery that the universe is infinitely old.

**Question 0**

What did Sagan claim was the only way to prove the existence of God?

**Question 1**

What does Richard Dawkins believe about the existence of God?

**Question 2**

What difference does Dawkins believe the existence of God makes?

**Question 3**

Who claimed that the existence of God is an empirical question?

**Question 4**

Who said that God is difficult to prove or disprove?

**Question 5**

How could science discover if there were no creator?

**Question 6**

How would the universe be different according to Carl Sagan?

**Question 7**

On what grounds did Carl Sagan explain the existence of God and how it would change the universe?

**Question 8**

What did Richard Dawkins find difficult to prove?

**Question 9**

What does Richard Dawkins think could disprove the existence of a Creator?

**Question 10**

What did Carl Sagan think about the existence of God?

**Text number 12**

Stephen Hawking and co-author Leonard Mlodinow, in his book The Grand Design, say that it makes sense to ask who or what created the universe, but if the answer is God, the question is just a transposition of the question of who created God. However, both authors argue that these questions can be answered purely within the realm of science and without reference to any divine beings. Neuroscientist Michael Nikoletseas has argued that questions about the existence of God are no different from questions in science. Taking a biological comparative approach, he concludes that it is highly probable that God exists, and that even if he is not visible, it is possible that we know some of his attributes.

**Question 0**

What do Stephen Hawking and Leonard Mlodinow prefer to the question "Does God exist"?

**Question 1**

Who wrote The Grand Design?

**Question 2**

What is Michael Nikoletseas's occupation?

**Question 3**

How do Hawking and Mlodinow believe that the question of God can be answered?

**Question 4**

What is the title of Stephen Hawking's book?

**Question 5**

Who was Hawking's second author?

**Question 6**

Who says that the question of whether or not God exists is the same question as in science?

**Question 7**

What is the title of Michael Nikoletseas' book?

**Question 8**

What does Stephen Hawking think we can know about God?

**Question 9**

What is Leonard Mlodinow's occupation?

**Question 10**

What does Michael Nikoletseas say in his book If God Created the Universe?

**Question 11**

What do both authors believe about God, if you look at it from a biological comparative point of view?

**Text number 13**

Pascal Boyer argues that although there is a wide variety of supernatural concepts in the world, supernatural beings generally behave like humans. The construction of gods and spirits in the likeness of humans is one of the most well-known features of religion. He cites examples from Greek mythology, which he says is more like a modern soap opera than other religious systems. Bertrand du Castel and Timothy Jurgensen show, by formalising, that Boyer's explanatory model is consistent with the epistemology of physics in that it posits non-directly observable entities as mediators. Anthropologist Stewart Guthrie argues that humans project human features onto non-human features of the world because it makes them more familiar. Sigmund Freud also argued that concepts of gods are projections of one's own father.

**Question 0**

How does Pascal Boyer believe gods and other supernatural beings behave?

**Question 1**

Why does Stewart Guthrie believe that people project their human traits onto non-human things?

**Question 2**

What did Frued believe about faith in God?

**Question 3**

According to Boyer, what is one of the most common features of religion?

**Question 4**

Who says there are many supernatural things in the world?

**Question 5**

How do supernatural beings work?

**Question 6**

Which religion does Boyer equate with modern soap opera?

**Question 7**

Who believed that gods are just projections of the human father?

**Question 8**

What does Sigmund Freud believe about the behaviour of supernatural beings?

**Question 9**

What is one of the most famous features of the Jurgensen model?

**Question 10**

Why do humans make spirits look like humans, according to Timothy Jurgensen?

**Question 11**

What does Pascal Boyer believe religious systems are projections?

**Question 12**

What is Sigmund Freud's opinion on Greek mythology?

**Text number 14**

Émile Durkheim was also one of the first to suggest that the gods represent an extension of human social life to supernatural beings. Psychologist Matt Rossano argues that as people began to live in larger groups, they may have created gods as a means of enforcing morality. In small groups, morality can be controlled by social forces such as gossip or fame. However, it is much more difficult to control morality through social forces in much larger groups. Rossano shows that, by involving ever-monitoring gods and spirits, people found an effective strategy to curb selfishness and build more cooperative groups.

**Question 0**

In what ways can small social groups impose morality?

**Question 1**

Who suggested that by incorporating the presence of an omniscient God, selfishness can be controlled and cooperation can be achieved?

**Question 2**

What did Émile Durkheim suggest about the existence of God?

**Question 3**

Why would people have started to create gods?

**Question 4**

Who suggested that humans created gods to create morality in social groups?

**Question 5**

Ubiquitous gods are a way of controlling large groups and controlling what?

**Question 6**

The almighty gods helped build what?

**Question 7**

What concept did Matt Rossano propose earlier?

**Question 8**

What did Emile Durkheim think happened when people lived in groups?

**Question 9**

How can selfishness be curbed in large groups?

**Question 10**

Where is it more difficult to build partnerships?

**Question 11**

According to Durkheim, what social forces were used to implement morality?

**Text number 15**

St Anselm's approach was to define God as "something greater than can be imagined". The famous pantheist philosopher Baruch Spinoza later took this idea to the extreme: "By God I mean an absolutely infinite being, that is, a substance consisting of infinite attributes, each of which expresses an eternal and infinite essence." For Spinoza, the whole natural universe consists of one substance, God, or its counterpart, Nature. His proof of the existence of God was a variant of the ontological argument.

**Question 0**

How did St Anselm define the existence of God?

**Question 1**

Who said that God is a "substance of infinite properties"?

**Question 2**

What did Baruch Spinoza use as proof of the existence of God?

**Question 3**

What did Spinoza believe the world was made of?

**Question 4**

Who defined God as "something greater than can be imagined"?

**Question 5**

Name a famous pantheist?

**Question 6**

What was Spinoza's idea of God?

**Question 7**

Spinoza believed that the universe consists of a single substance, which is?

**Question 8**

What does St Anselm think the universe is made of?

**Question 9**

How does St Anselm prove the existence of God?

**Question 10**

What did Baruch Spinoza say that nothing is greater than nothing?

**Question 11**

What kind of philosopher is St Anselm?

**Question 12**

Whose idea of God did Saint Anselm take to the extreme?

**Text number 16**

Atheists (such as Lawrence M. Krauss and Sam Harris) interpret some research in cosmology, evolutionary biology and neuroscience as evidence that God is just a fantasy with no basis in reality. A single omniscient God, who is imagined to have created the universe and who is particularly attentive to human life, has been imagined, embellished and passed down from generation to generation. Richard Dawkins interprets the various observations not only as a lack of evidence for the material existence of such a God, but also as extensive evidence to the contrary.

**Question 0**

How does Dawkins interpret the evidence for or against the existence of God?

**Question 1**

What do atheists believe about God?

**Question 2**

How long has the idea of the existence of God been going on?

**Question 3**

How Dawkins interprets his findings about the existence or non-existence of God.

**Question 4**

Who believes that God is not real?

**Question 5**

What disciplines does Richard Dawkins use to prove the existence of God?

**Question 6**

In what way does Richard Dawkins believe the universe has continued to exist?

**Question 7**

Who has used discovery to prove the existence of God in a generational way?

**Question 8**

What does Richard Dawkins think describes the creation of the universe?

**Question 9**

Who will use cosmology, evolutionary biology and neuroscience to prove that God is omniscient?

**Text number 17**

According to the paradox of omnipotence, the "paradox of the stone", can God create a stone so heavy that he cannot lift it? Either he can or he can't. If he cannot, the argument goes, then he cannot do something, namely create the stone, and therefore he is not omnipotent. If he can, it continues, he also cannot do something, namely lift a stone, and therefore he is not omnipotent. Either way, therefore, God is not omnipotent. However, a being who is not omnipotent is not God, according to many theological models. So there is no such God. Several answers to this paradox have been proposed.

**Question 0**

What is the paradox of omnipotence?

**Question 1**

What is another term for the paradox of omnipotence?

**Question 2**

Does either outcome of the stone paradox prove the existence of God?

**Question 3**

What shows that God is not omnipotent if he creates a stone that he cannot lift?

**Question 4**

What does God have to be to be the Supreme Being?

**Question 5**

What paradox says that God cannot create a stone so heavy that he cannot lift it?

**Question 6**

What does Kivi's paradox say?

**Question 7**

What does it mean if God is not omnipotent?

**Question 8**

Are there any answers to Kivi's Pradox?

**Question 9**

What question does the paradox of the theological model pose?

**Question 10**

How many claims about God's power prove that God exists?

**Question 11**

What is the term for the existence of God?

**Question 12**

Which model proves that God can lift the stone He created?

**Question 13**

If God can create a stone that he cannot lift, what is the proof of his existence?

**Text number 18**

Different religious traditions give God different (though often similar) attributes and characteristics, such as extensive powers and abilities, psychological traits, gender characteristics and preferred names. The attribution of these attributes often varies according to the cultural conceptions of God from which they originate. For example, the attributes of the God of Christianity, the attributes of the God of Islam, and the thirteen attributes of grace of Judaism have certain similarities due to their common roots.

**Question 0**

What do religions have in common in their belief structures?

**Question 1**

What religious traditions can be found within different religions?

**Question 2**

With whom does Christianity have common roots?

**Question 3**

How many characteristics of mercy are there in Judaism?

**Question 4**

Which three religions share similar elements?

**Question 5**

Which three religions have similar origins?

**Question 6**

What characteristics do religions roughly share?

**Question 7**

Which beliefs have similar psychological characteristics?

**Question 8**

With which religion does Islam share a common culture?

**Question 9**

How many qualities of mercy are there in Islam?

**Question 10**

What are the characteristics of different cultures?

**Question 11**

What is one thing that Christianity gives to different religions?

**Text number 19**

The gender of God can be seen as either a literal or a metaphorical aspect of the divinity, which, according to classical Western philosophy, transcends bodily form. Polytheistic religions generally define gender for each god, allowing each god to interact sexually with any other god and perhaps also with humans. In most monotheistic religions, a god has no counterpart with whom he can have sexual intercourse. Thus, in classical Western philosophy, the sex of this one and only deity is likely to be an analogous expression of how humans and God address and relate to each other. Indeed, God is seen as the originator of the world and of revelation, which corresponds to an active (as opposed to receptive) role in the sexual relationship.

**Question 0**

How does God deal with sex in a monotheistic religion?

**Question 1**

How do polytheistic religions view sex with God or gods?

**Question 2**

What is God's role in the creation of the world?

**Question 3**

In what ways can God's gender be viewed?

**Question 4**

What do polytheistic religions give to their gods?

**Question 5**

What is the role of sexual intercourse?

**Question 6**

In which religion does God not have a sexual partner?

**Question 7**

What does Western philosophy associate with each god?

**Question 8**

What is the role of God's counterpart in creation?

**Question 9**

In what ways can the sexuality of God's adversary be viewed?

**Question 10**

How does Western philosophy allow God to interact with human beings?

**Question 11**

What does God's response exceed?

**Text number 20**

Prayer plays an important role among many believers. Muslims believe that the purpose of existence is to worship God. He is regarded as a personal God and cannot be contacted without intermediaries such as clergy. Prayer often includes supplication and apology. God is often believed to be forgiving. For example, a hadith says that God will replace a sinless nation with one that sinned but still asked for repentance. Christian theologian Alister McGrath writes that there are good reasons to assume that a "personal god" is an integral part of the Christian worldview, but that it must be understood that this is an analogy. "To say that God is like a person is to affirm the divine ability and desire to be in relationship with other human beings. This does not imply that God is a person or located at a particular point in the universe."

**Question 0**

What is the purpose of a Muslim's life?

**Question 1**

Which aspect of Christianity does Alister McGrath claim is important?

**Question 2**

What does prayer usually involve in Islam?

**Question 3**

What kind of God is the Muslim God?

**Question 4**

What does Alister McGrath write about the existence of a Muslim god?

**Question 5**

What role does a personal god play for Alister McGrath?

**Question 6**

What is the purpose of Christian life?

**Question 7**

What is an example of an Islamic mediator?

**Question 8**

What are the two things that worship of God involves?

**Text number 21**

Adherents of different religions tend to disagree about how best to worship God and what God's plan, if any, is for humanity. There are different approaches to reconciling the conflicting claims of monotheistic religions. One view is that of exclusivists, who believe they are a chosen people or have exclusive access to absolute truth, usually through revelation or divine encounter, which adherents of other religions do not. Another view is religious pluralism. A pluralist typically believes that his or her religion is the correct one, but does not deny the sub-truths of other religions. In Christianity, an example of pluralism is supersessionism, the belief that one's own religion is the fulfilment of previous religions. A third approach is relativistic inclusivism, where all are considered equally right; an example is universalism: the doctrine that salvation is ultimately available to all. The fourth approach is syncretism, which mixes elements from different religions. An example of syncretism is the New Age movement.

**Question 0**

Who believe they are the only chosen ones?

**Question 1**

Who believe that they are the only people who know the truth?

**Question 2**

What do you call a person who believes that he has one religion but that others are not necessarily wrong?

**Question 3**

What do you call it when someone believes that their own religion is an advance on the older religions?

**Question 4**

What is the religion that believes that all religions are right?

**Question 5**

What is one thing that Christians don't have, but Christians do?

**Question 6**

What is an example of syncretism in Christianity?

**Question 7**

What does the pluralist believe will eventually be available to all?

**Question 8**

What does the New Age movement believe they have exclusive rights to?

**Question 9**

How does the New Age movement believe it has access to absolute truth??

**Text number 22**

Many medieval philosophers developed arguments for the existence of God while trying to understand the precise implications of God's attributes. Reconciling some of these attributes gave rise to important philosophical problems and debates. For example, God's omniscience may seem to imply that God knows how free agents choose to act. If God knows this, their apparent free will may be illusory, or foreknowledge does not imply predestination, and if God does not know this, God may not be omniscient.

**Question 0**

What does it mean if God cannot predict the future?

**Question 1**

Who proposed the existence of God?

**Question 2**

What philosophical debates emerged in the Middle Ages?

**Question 3**

What does it mean if medieval philosophers think that God is predetermined?

**Question 4**

Who developed the arguments that God is philosophical?

**Question 5**

What were the free agents trying to understand about God?

**Question 6**

What will happen during the debate according to God's foreknowledge?

**Question 7**

What were the philosophical debates among free agents about?

**Text number 23**

In recent centuries of philosophy, there have been fierce questions about arguments for the existence of God from philosophers such as Immanuel Kant, David Hume and Antony Flew, although Kant argued that the moral argument was valid. Theists have responded either by arguing, as Alvin Plantinga did, that faith is 'properly fundamental', or by taking, as Richard Swinburne did, an evidentialist position. Some theists agree that none of the arguments for the existence of God are convincing, but argue that faith is not a product of reason, but requires risk. They argue that there would be no risk if the arguments for God's existence were as robust as the laws of logic, a position summed up by Pascal in the words "the heart has reasons of which reason is ignorant". Recent theory, using concepts from physics and neurophysiology, suggests that God can be conceptualised within the framework of integrationist theory.

**Question 0**

How does Alvin Plantinga describe faith?

**Question 1**

Who said that "the heart has reasons that reason does not know"?

**Question 2**

Which philosopher represents the evidentialist position?

**Question 3**

Name three philosophers of the last 100 years who have claimed the existence of God?

**Question 4**

What was David Hume's view of the moral argument?

**Question 5**

What does Pascal think about faith?

**Question 6**

What does Antony Flew believe physics requires?

**Question 7**

Which two areas are used to say that the arguments for the existence of God are solid?

**Question 8**

Which three philosophers believed that God can be conceptualised in integrative level theory?

**Document number 301**

**Text number 0**

On 16 September 2001 at Camp David, President George W. Bush used the war on terror in an unscripted and controversial comment when he said: "This crusade - this war on terrorism - is going to take some time, ...". ' Bush later apologized for this remark because the term crusade is negative for people of Muslim faith, for example. The word crusade was no longer used. In a televised speech to a joint session of Congress on 20 September 2001, Bush stated that "(o)ur 'war on terror' begins with al-Qaeda, but it does not end there. It will not end until every global terrorist group has been found, stopped and defeated. "

**Question 0**

When did George W. Bush first talk about the war on terror?

**Question 1**

What word did George W. Bush apologise for using when talking about the war?

**Question 2**

When did George W. Bush first talk about the war on terror?

**Question 3**

Where did Bush say the war on terror would start?

**Question 4**

When did Bush say the war on terror would end?

**Question 5**

What controversial term did George W. Bush use on 20 September 2001?

**Question 6**

Where did George W. Bush make his speech on 20 September 2001?

**Question 7**

In which part of the government did George W. Bush speak on 16 September 2001?

**Question 8**

On what day did George W. Bush apologise for the word crusade?

**Question 9**

Where was Bush during the televised speech?

**Question 10**

Who opposed the use of the word crusade?

**Question 11**

Which religion used the term "crusade" in the context of terrorism?

**Question 12**

When was the second time Bush talked about war as a crusade?

**Text number 1**

US President Barack Obama has rarely used the term, but in his inaugural address on 20 January 2009 he said that "our nation is at war against a vast network of violence and hatred". In March 2009, the Department of Defense officially changed the name of operations from the "Global War on Terror" to the "Overseas Contingency Operation" (OCO). In March 2009, the Obama administration asked Pentagon staff to avoid using the term and instead use the term "Overseas Contingency Operation". The basic objectives of the Bush administration's war on terror, such as fighting al-Qaeda and building international coalitions against terrorism, remain valid. In December 2012, in a speech at Oxford University, Jeh Johnson, Chief Legal Adviser to the Department of Defence, stated that military combat would be replaced by law enforcement operations, and predicted that al-Qaeda had been weakened to the point of ineffectiveness and had been "effectively destroyed", and that the conflict was therefore not an armed conflict under international law. In May 2013, Obama stated that the aim was to "dismantle the specific networks of violent extremists threatening America", which coincided with the US Office of Management and Budget's change in 2010 of the wording from "Overseas Contingency Operations" to "Countering Violent Extremism".

**Question 0**

What did Obama say the US was at war with in 2009?

**Question 1**

What name was officially given to the "global war on terror" in March 2009?

**Question 2**

What term did Obama want the government to stop using?

**Question 3**

Who said in 2012 that combat would change from military to law enforcement?

**Question 4**

What was the name of the "Overseas Contingency Operations" renamed in 2010?

**Question 5**

What name did Barack Obama give to the "global war on terror"?

**Question 6**

What is OOC known as?

**Question 7**

Who spoke at Oxford University in December 2013?

**Question 8**

Who defined the target in his speech in May 2012?

**Question 9**

What year was "Overseas Contingency Operations" changed to "Violent Extremism Countering"?

**Question 10**

What was the name of the Overseas Contingency Operation renamed in 2009?

**Question 11**

Under what name did the Ministry of Defence change its name?

**Question 12**

Which university did Jeh Johnson work at?

**Question 13**

What did Obama say would replace military combat?

**Question 14**

Who did the Pentagon staff ask to avoid the term "war on terror"?

**Text number 2**

Given the fragmented nature of the activities involved in the "war on terror" and the ambiguity of the criteria for their inclusion, political theorist Richard Jackson has argued that the "war on terror" is thus simultaneously a set of actual practices - wars, covert operations, agencies and institutions - and the assumptions, beliefs, arguments and narratives associated with them - it is a whole language or discourse". Among many examples, Jackson cites John Ashcroft's statement that 'the attacks of 11 September drew a bright line between civility and savagery'. Administration officials also described 'terrorists' as hostile, treacherous, barbaric, insane, twisted, perverse, infidel, parasitic, inhuman and mostly evil. Americans, on the other hand, were described as brave, loving, generous, strong, resourceful, heroic and respectful of human rights.

**Question 0**

Who said that the "war on terror" is "a whole language of discourse"?

**Question 1**

Who said that the events of 11 September drew a line between "civilians and savages"?

**Question 2**

What did the Bush administration describe as parasites?

**Question 3**

What did the Bush administration describe as heroic?

**Question 4**

What is Richard Ashcroft's job title?

**Question 5**

What statement did John Jackson make?

**Question 6**

What has Richard Ashcroft claimed about the "war on terror"?

**Question 7**

Of whom does Richard Jackson cite many examples?

**Question 8**

Who said that the war on terror is fragmented?

**Question 9**

What is John Ashcroft's job?

**Question 10**

Who did Jackson say was deceptive?

**Question 11**

Who did Ashcroft call brave?

**Question 12**

Which have clear criteria?

**Text number 3**

Al-Qaeda's roots go back to the Soviet war in Afghanistan (December 1979 - February 1989). The United States, the United Kingdom, Saudi Arabia, Pakistan and the People's Republic of China supported Islamic Afghan mujahadeen guerrillas against Soviet and Afghan Democratic Republic military forces. A small number of 'Afghan Arab' volunteers joined the fight against the Soviets, including Osama bin Laden, but there is no evidence that they received outside help. In May 1996, the World Islamic Front for Jihad Against Jews and Crusaders (WIFJAJC), supported by bin Laden (and later reconstituted as al-Qaeda), began to establish a large base of operations in Afghanistan, where the Taliban's extremist Islamist regime had seized power earlier in 1996. In February 1998, Osama bin Laden signed a fatwa as al-Qaeda leader declaring war against the West and Israel, and later in May that year al-Qaeda released a video declaring war against the United States and the West.

**Question 0**

What war gave birth to al-Qaeda?

**Question 1**

When did the Soviet Union leave Afghanistan?

**Question 2**

Which countries supported the Afghan Islamists against the Soviet Union?

**Question 3**

Who did Osama bin Laden volunteer to help fight in the 1980s?

**Question 4**

Which group later became al-Qaida?

**Question 5**

What happened between February 1979 and December 1989?

**Question 6**

Which group started to form in February 1996?

**Question 7**

What did Osama bin Laden sign in May 1998?

**Question 8**

Who did Osama bin Laden declare war on in a video released in February 1998?

**Question 9**

What is WIJFAJC known as?

**Question 10**

Which war did al-Qaida start in 1979?

**Question 11**

Who sponsored bin Laden in 1996?

**Question 12**

What was the original name of WIFJAJC?

**Question 13**

Which document declared war on the Soviet Union?

**Question 14**

Who volunteered to fight with the Islamist Afghan mujahadeen guerrillas?

**Text number 4**

On August 7, 1998, al-Qaeda attacked the US embassies in Kenya and Tanzania, killing 224 people, including 12 Americans. In response, US President Bill Clinton launched Operation Infinite Reach, a bombing campaign in Sudan and Afghanistan against targets the US claimed were linked to WIFJAJC, although others have questioned whether a pharmaceutical factory in Sudan was used as a chemical warfare factory. The factory produced a large proportion of the region's anti-malarial drugs and about 50% of Sudan's medical needs. The attacks failed to kill any WIFJAJC or Taliban leaders.

**Question 0**

When did al-Qaeda attack the US embassy in Kenya?

**Question 1**

How many people died when al-Qaeda attacked US embassies in 1998?

**Question 2**

How many Americans were killed when al-Qaeda attacked US embassies in 1998?

**Question 3**

What operation did Bill Clinton launch in retaliation for the 1998 embassy attacks?

**Question 4**

How much of the medicine in Sudan was produced in the pharmaceutical factory that was bombed by the Clinton operation?

**Question 5**

What happened on 8 August 1997?

**Question 6**

Who launched Operation Reach Infinite?

**Question 7**

Where was the pharmaceutical factory that was said to produce 12% of Sudan's medicine?

**Question 8**

What happened when 224 people, including 50 Americans, died?

**Question 9**

How many people were killed by Operation Infinite Reach?

**Question 10**

When was Operation Infinite Reach launched?

**Question 11**

What percentage of Afghanistan's pharmaceutical needs were produced in the factory?

**Question 12**

Which operation killed several Taliban members?

**Question 13**

Which US embassies were bombed in Operation Infinite Reach?

**Text number 5**

On the morning of September 11, 2001, 19 al-Qaeda operatives hijacked four passenger planes bound for California. After taking over the planes, the hijackers told the passengers that they had a bomb on board and that they would spare the lives of the passengers and crew if their demands were met - none of the passengers or crew actually suspected that they were using the planes as suicide weapons, as this had never happened before. The hijackers - members of al-Qaeda's Hamburg cell - deliberately crashed two passenger planes into the twin towers of the World Trade Center in New York. Both buildings collapsed within two hours from the fire damage caused by the crashes, which destroyed nearby buildings and damaged others. The hijackers crashed a third passenger plane into the Pentagon in Arlington County, Virginia, just outside Washington D.C. A fourth plane crashed into a field near Shanksville, Pennsylvania, after some of the passengers and crew had attempted to retake the plane, which the hijackers had diverted from Washington D.C. towards the White House or U.S. Capitol. There were no survivors on the flights. A total of 2 977 victims and 19 hijackers died in the attacks.

**Question 0**

How many al-Qaeda members hijacked planes on 11 September?

**Question 1**

How many planes were hijacked on 9/11?

**Question 2**

Where were the 9/11 planes originally heading?

**Question 3**

Which al-Qaeda cell did the September 11 hijackers belong to?

**Question 4**

How soon after the planes crashed into them did the WTC towers collapse?

**Question 5**

Which building is located in Shanksville, Virginia?

**Question 6**

In which area in Arlington, Pennsylvania did the fourth plane crash?

**Question 7**

How many victims died in the attacks, in addition to the 11 hijackers?

**Question 8**

Where did the passenger planes leave from?

**Question 9**

How long did it take before the Pentagon collapsed?

**Question 10**

How many passengers died?

**Question 11**

Which cell did the passengers and crew belong to?

**Question 12**

What plane crashed into the White House?

**Text number 6**

The Authorization for Use of Military Force Against Terrorists (AUMF) was enacted into law on 14 September 2001 to allow the use of US military force against those responsible for the attacks of 11 September 2001. It authorized the President to use all necessary and appropriate force against those nations, organizations, or persons that he determines planned, authorized, committed, or aided and abetted the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, or harbored such organizations or persons, in order to prevent future international terrorist attacks against the United States by such nations, organizations, or persons. Congress declares that this is intended to be a specific statutory authorization under section 5(b) of the War Powers Act of 1973.

**Question 0**

Which law was signed on 14 September 2001?

**Question 1**

Who did the AUMF authorise the US military to attack?

**Question 2**

What law did Congress refer to as the basis for the AUMF?

**Question 3**

When was the War Powers Resolution adopted?

**Question 4**

What is UAMF also known as?

**Question 5**

What was enacted on 11 September 2001?

**Question 6**

Which resolution was written in 1974?

**Question 7**

What does the AUMF authorise Congress to do?

**Question 8**

What was legislated on 11 September?

**Question 9**

Which part of the AUMF authorised the armed forces to respond?

**Question 10**

In which month was the War Powers Resolution signed?

**Question 11**

Who authorised the AUMF?

**Question 12**

Which previous resolution was the AUMF in conflict with?

**Text number 7**

Then, in October 2001, US forces (together with the UK and the Allies) invaded Afghanistan to oust the Taliban regime. The formal invasion began on 7 October 2001, when UK and US forces carried out air strikes on enemy targets. The Afghan capital Kabul fell by mid-November. The remaining remnants of al-Qaeda and the Taliban retreated into the rugged mountains of eastern Afghanistan, mainly the Tora Bora. In December, coalition forces (US and its allies) fought in this area. Osama bin Laden is believed to have fled to Pakistan during the fighting.

**Question 0**

When did the United States invade Afghanistan?

**Question 1**

Who helped the US invade Afghanistan?

**Question 2**

What was the US objective in invading Afghanistan?

**Question 3**

When did the United States start air strikes in Afghanistan?

**Question 4**

Where did bin Laden flee to in December 2001?

**Question 5**

Which city fell by mid-October during the invasion of Afghanistan?

**Question 6**

In which area did the Allied forces fight in November?

**Question 7**

Who fled to Tora Bora in Pakistan during the December fighting?

**Question 8**

When did Afghan troops attack the UK?

**Question 9**

Who allied with Afghanistan?

**Question 10**

What happened in October 2001?

**Question 11**

What is the name of the mountain range in Kabul?

**Question 12**

Who fled to Afghanistan in December?

**Text number 8**

The Taliban regrouped in West Pakistan and in late 2002 began to launch an insurgency-style offensive against coalition forces. Throughout southern and eastern Afghanistan, gun battles broke out between Taliban and coalition forces. The coalition forces responded with a series of military offensives and an increase in the number of troops in Afghanistan. In February 2010, coalition forces launched Operation Moshtarak in southern Afghanistan along with other military offensives in the hope of destroying the Taliban insurgency once and for all. Peace talks are also taking place between Taliban fighters and coalition forces. In September 2014, Afghanistan and the United States signed a security agreement allowing US and NATO forces to remain in Afghanistan until at least 2024. The US and other non-NATO and NATO forces are planning to withdraw, as the Taliban claims to have defeated the US and NATO and the Obama administration sees this as a victory. In December 2014, ISAF holstered its colours and Resolute Support began as a NATO operation in Afghanistan. Ongoing US operations in Afghanistan continue under the name "Operation Freedom's Sentinel".

**Question 0**

Where did the Taliban regroup in 2002?

**Question 1**

In which parts of Afghanistan did the Taliban attack coalition forces in 2002?

**Question 2**

Which operation started in February 2010?

**Question 3**

Where was Operation Moshtarak carried out?

**Question 4**

When did Afghanistan sign a security agreement with the United States?

**Question 5**

Where did the Taliban regroup at the end of 2001?

**Question 6**

Which operation was launched by coalition forces in February 2002?

**Question 7**

What did Afghanistan and the United States sign in December 2014?

**Question 8**

What is the name given to NATO's ongoing operations in Afghanistan?

**Question 9**

Where were the coalition forces grouped?

**Question 10**

What was the name of the insurgent attack used by the Taliban?

**Question 11**

What did NATO and the US sign in 2014?

**Question 12**

When will NATO troops have to leave Afghanistan?

**Question 13**

What was the name of the guarantee agreement?

**Text number 9**

In January 2002, the US Pacific Special Operations Command went to the Philippines to advise and assist the Philippine armed forces in their fight against Islamist groups in the Philippines. The operations focused primarily on the removal of the Abu Sayyaf Group and Jemaah Islamiyah (JI) from their base on the island of Basilan. The second part of the operation took the form of a humanitarian programme called "Operation Smiles". The aim of the programme was to provide medical care and services to the Basilan region as part of the "Hearts and Minds" programme. The Joint Special Operations Task Force - Philippines was disbanded in June 2014, ending a 14-year operation. Following the disbandment of JSOTF-P, US forces continued to operate in the Philippines under the name "PACOM Augmentation Team" until November 2014.

**Question 0**

Where was the USSOC Pacific deployed in January 2002?

**Question 1**

What was the objective of the 2002 operation in the Philippines?

**Question 2**

What was the main Islamist group in the Philippines that was attacked?

**Question 3**

Which humanitarian action followed a military operation in the Philippines in 2002?

**Question 4**

What did Operation Smile do to the Philippines?

**Question 5**

On which island were Abu Islamiyah and Jemaah Sayyaf based?

**Question 6**

What was the aim of "Operation Smile"?

**Question 7**

What broke in November 2014?

**Question 8**

Who was the "PAMOC Augmentation Team"?

**Question 9**

Who was sent to help Islamist groups in the Philippines?

**Question 10**

How long had the Abu Sayyaf group been in Basilan?

**Question 11**

Under what name did the PACOM Augmentation Team rename itself?

**Question 12**

What was the name of the operation to remove Abu Sayyaf?

**Question 13**

Where was the headquarters of the Armed Forces of the Philippines?

**Text number 10**

On 14 September 2009, US Special Forces killed two men and wounded and captured two others near the Somali village of Baarawe. According to eyewitnesses, the helicopters used in the operation were launched from French-flagged warships, but this could not be confirmed. Al-Shabaab, a Somali al-Qaeda group, has confirmed the death of 'sheikh commander' Saleh Ali Saleh Nabhan and an unspecified number of fighters. Nabhan, a Kenyan, was wanted in connection with the 2002 Mombasa attacks.

**Question 0**

How many people were killed by US Special Forces on 14 September 2009?

**Question 1**

Where was the event on 14 September 2009?

**Question 2**

According to some witnesses, which country's ships were involved in the Baarawe attack?

**Question 3**

Which Somali group is a member of al-Qaeda?

**Question 4**

What nationality was Saleh Ali Saleh Nabhan?

**Question 5**

What did US Special Forces do on 14 September 2002?

**Question 6**

What was Saleh Nabhan Saleh Ali's name?

**Question 7**

Who was wanted in connection with the 2002 attacks in Kenya?

**Question 8**

In which village do witnesses claim to have seen warships flying the French flag?

**Question 9**

How many US Special Forces soldiers died on 14 September 2009?

**Question 10**

How many of them were captured in the Mombasa attacks in 2002?

**Question 11**

What was the name of the village attacked in Mombasa?

**Question 12**

Which nationality of warships were reinforced?

**Question 13**

What was the name of the Kenyan al-Qaida group?

**Text number 11**

The conflict in northern Mali started in January 2012, when radical Islamists (linked to al-Qaeda) advanced into northern Mali. The Malian government was struggling to maintain full control of its country. The fledgling government called for support from the international community to fight the Islamist militants. In January 2013, France intervened at the request of the Malian government and sent troops to the region. On 11 January 2013, they launched Operation Serval, aimed at expelling al-Qaeda-linked groups from northern Mali.

**Question 0**

When did the conflict in Mali start?

**Question 1**

Which group did the radicals in Mali belong to?

**Question 2**

When did France send troops to Mali?

**Question 3**

Why did France call its operation in Mali?

**Question 4**

What was the aim of Operation Serval?

**Question 5**

What started the conflict in January 2013?

**Question 6**

Which government asked for help from the national community to fight Islamic militants?

**Question 7**

Which country acted on behalf of the Malian government in January 2012?

**Question 8**

When was the Serval operation launched?

**Question 9**

On whose behalf did the Malian government intervene?

**Question 10**

What was the name of the Islamist advance into northern Mali?

**Question 11**

When were al-Qaeda groups removed from northern Mali?

**Question 12**

What did the French government seek to preserve?

**Question 13**

Who did the Islamic militants ask for help from?

**Text number 12**

Following the 1991 ceasefire agreement that ended hostilities in the Gulf War (but which has not been formally concluded), the US and its allies established Iraqi no-fly zones to protect the Iraqi Kurdish and Shia Arab populations - both of whom were under attack by the Hussein regime before and after the Gulf War - in the north and south of Iraq. US forces continued in the combat zones until November 1995 and launched Operation Desert Fox against Iraq in 1998 after Iraq failed to meet US demands for "unconditional cooperation" on weapons inspections.

**Question 0**

When did the first Gulf War start?

**Question 1**

How did the first Gulf War end?

**Question 2**

Who was the US trying to protect in Iraq after the first Gulf War?

**Question 3**

In which part of Iraq do the Kurds live?

**Question 4**

In which part of Iraq do the Shiites live?

**Question 5**

What was done to protect the Arab and Shia Kurdish population in Iraq?

**Question 6**

Who did the Hussein regime attack before the Gulf War?

**Question 7**

Which operation was launched against Iraq in November 1995?

**Question 8**

What did Iraq fail to meet in 1995?

**Question 9**

What year did the first Gulf War end?

**Question 10**

What did the United States and its allies do when hostilities had officially ended?

**Question 11**

What was launched in 1995?

**Question 12**

Who tried to protect the Hussein regime?

**Question 13**

Which Iraqi communities attacked the Hussein regime?

**Text number 13**

The first ground offensive took place in the battle of Umm Qasr on 21 March 2003, when combined British, American and Polish forces captured the port city of Umm Qasr. The Iraqi capital Baghdad fell to American forces in April 2003, and Saddam Hussein's regime quickly collapsed. On 1 May 2003, Bush announced that the major combat operations in Iraq had come to an end. However, insurgents rose up against the US-led coalition and the newly developed Iraqi army and the post-Saddam Hussein government. The insurgency, which included al-Qaeda-linked groups, caused far more casualties to coalition forces than the invasion. Other rebel groups were led by fugitive members of President Hussein's Baathist regime, including Iraqi nationalists and pan-Arabists. Many insurgent leaders are Islamists who claim to be waging a religious war to restore the centuries-old Islamic caliphate. US forces captured former Iraqi President Saddam Hussein in December 2003. He was executed in 2006.

**Question 0**

When was the first ground attack in the Iraq war that started on 11 September 2001?

**Question 1**

Which nationalities worked together in the battle of Umm Qasr?

**Question 2**

When did the United States take Baghdad?

**Question 3**

When did Bush say that the "major combat operations" in Iraq had been completed?

**Question 4**

To which regime did Hussein's loyalists belong?

**Question 5**

When was the Battle of Qasr Umm fought?

**Question 6**

Which city fell to American troops in May 2003?

**Question 7**

What announcement did Bush make on 1 April 2003?

**Question 8**

Who was caught in December 2006?

**Question 9**

Who was part of the Bath administration?

**Question 10**

Which country is the capital of Umm Qasr?

**Question 11**

When did the American troops fall?

**Question 12**

When did Saddam Hussein announce the end of operations?

**Question 13**

Where were there fewer casualties than in the invasion?

**Question 14**

When did US forces execute the Islamic caliphate?

**Text number 14**

There was a major split in the ranks of the al-Qaeda organisation, and al-Qaeda in Iraq, known as al-Qaeda in Iraq, covertly invaded Syria and the Levant and began to participate in the ongoing Syrian civil war. It gained sufficient support and strength to re-invade Iraq's western provinces as the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIS/ISIL), which took over most of the country in a blitzkrieg-like operation, merging the Iraqi insurgency and the Syrian civil war into a single conflict. Due to extreme brutality and a complete change in its general ideology, Al-Qaeda's core organisation in Central Asia eventually condemned ISIS and directed its affiliates to sever all ties with the organisation. Many analysts[who?] believe that because of this split, Al-Qaeda and ISIL are now competing for the title of the most powerful terrorist organisation in the world.

**Question 0**

In which civil war did the Iraqi branch of Al-Qaeda start fighting?

**Question 1**

Under what name did the Iraqi branch of Al-Qaeda rename itself with Syrian support?

**Question 2**

Which part of Iraq did ISIS invade?

**Question 3**

Who condemned ISIS?

**Question 4**

What is the relationship between Al-Qaeda and ISIS now?

**Question 5**

Which group shared the Iraqi insurgency and the Syrian civil war?

**Question 6**

Which group publicly condemned al-Qaeda?

**Question 7**

Which two groups do analysts think have merged?

**Question 8**

Where is the core organisation of ISIS?

**Question 9**

Which country did Syria secretly attack?

**Text number 15**

The Obama administration resumed action in Iraq with air strikes against ISIS that began on 10 August 2014. On 9 September 2014, President Obama stated that he had the necessary authority to take action to destroy the militant group known as the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant, citing the 2001 Authorization for the Use of Military Force against Terrorists, and therefore did not need further approval from Congress. The following day, on 10 September 2014, President Barack Obama delivered a televised speech on ISIL, in which he stated, "Our goal is clear: we will weaken and ultimately destroy ISIL through a comprehensive and sustainable counterterrorism strategy." Obama has authorised the deployment of more US troops to Iraq and direct military action against ISIL in Syria. On the night of 21/22 September, the United States, Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, the United Arab Emirates, Jordan and Qatar launched airstrikes against ISIS in Syria[citation needed].

**Question 0**

When did Obama start air strikes against ISIS?

**Question 1**

Which law did Obama invoke on 9 September 2014?

**Question 2**

When did Obama make a speech about ISIS on TV?

**Question 3**

Which countries cooperated to bomb ISIS on 21-22 September 2014?

**Question 4**

Where were the air strikes of 21-22 September?

**Question 5**

When did Iraq re-engage with the Obama administration?

**Question 6**

Who did Iraq target with its air strikes?

**Question 7**

Who is the President of Iraq?

**Question 8**

What law did Congress invoke to take action against ISIS?

**Question 9**

Which countries did ISIS launch airstrikes against on 21/22 September?

**Text number 16**

After the attacks of 11 September 2001, former Pakistani President Pervez Musharraf sided with the United States against the Taliban regime in Afghanistan after an ultimatum from then US President George W. Bush. Musharraf agreed to make three air bases available to the US for Operation Enduring Freedom. US Secretary of State Colin Powell and other US administration officials met with Musharraf. On 19 September 2001, Musharraf addressed the Pakistani people and stated that while he opposed military action against the Taliban, the Indo-US alliance threatened to endanger Pakistan if it did not cooperate. In 2006, Musharraf testified that he was pressured into this position by threats from the US, and revealed in his memoirs that he had 'played' the US as an adversary and was determined that it would end in Pakistan's defeat.

**Question 0**

Which Pakistani president supported the US attack on the Taliban?

**Question 1**

How many air bases in Pakistan did Musharraf allow the US to use?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the US operation in Afghanistan?

**Question 3**

Who was the US Secretary of State in 2001?

**Question 4**

Who said he was "playing war games" with the US?

**Question 5**

Which former president sided with the Taliban?

**Question 6**

How many air bases did the Taliban get?

**Question 7**

Who was the current President of Afghanistan?

**Question 8**

What did Colin Powell testify in 2006?

**Question 9**

Who was at risk in the US-Pakistan alliance?

**Text number 17**

On 12 January 2002, Musharraf gave a speech against Islamic extremism. He unequivocally condemned all acts of terrorism and promised to fight Islamic extremism and lawlessness in Pakistan. He stated that his government was committed to rooting out extremism and made it clear that banned militant organisations would not be allowed to resurface under any new name. He said the recent decision to ban militant extremist groups was taken in the national interest after thorough consultations. It was not taken under any foreign influence."

**Question 0**

When did Musharraf make his anti-Islamic speech?

**Question 1**

What did Musharraf say he was fighting for?

**Question 2**

What did Musharraf deny?

**Question 3**

What did Musharraf say that did not affect his ban?

**Question 4**

Who gave the speech on behalf of Islamic extremism?

**Question 5**

When were militant organisations banned?

**Question 6**

What did the extremist movements commit to eradicate?

**Question 7**

Who took part in the consultations?

**Question 8**

What should give itself a new name?

**Text number 18**

In 2002, the Musharraf-led government took a tough stance against jihadist and extremist groups, arresting Jaish-e-Mohammed leader Maulana Masood Azhar and Lashkar-e-Taiba leader Hafiz Muhammad Saeed and detaining dozens of activists. The groups were formally banned on 12 January. Later that year, Pakistani authorities arrested Zayn al-Abidn Muhammed Hasayn Abu Zubaydah, a Saudi Arabian national, during a joint US-Pakistani raid. Mr Zubaydah is said to have been a senior al-Qaeda official who served as an operations chief and was responsible for running al-Qaeda training camps. Over the next two years, other prominent al-Qaeda members were arrested, namely Ramzi bin al-Shibh, known to be a financial supporter of al-Qaeda operations, and Khalid Sheikh Mohammed, the third highest ranking al-Qaeda official at the time of his capture, who was directly responsible for planning the September 11 attacks.

**Question 0**

When did Musharraf arrest Maulana Masood Azhar?

**Question 1**

What group was Maulana Masood Azhar leading?

**Question 2**

What group was Hafiz Muhammad Saeed leading?

**Question 3**

What nationality is Zayn al-Abidn Muhammed Hasayn Abu Zubaydah?

**Question 4**

Who was the third highest ranking al-Qaeda officer captured?

**Question 5**

Who led all the jihadist organisations?

**Question 6**

How many government officials were arrested?

**Question 7**

What was the name of the Pakistani official who carried out several raids?

**Question 8**

What is Ramzi bin al-Shibh's nationality?

**Question 9**

What was the value of Ramzi bin al-Shibh?

**Text number 19**

The use of drones by the Central Intelligence Agency in Pakistan in operations linked to the global war on terror is raising a debate about sovereignty and the laws of war. The US government uses the CIA and not the US Air Force for strikes in Pakistan to avoid violating sovereignty through military aggression. The US was criticised [by whom?] in a report on drone warfare and air sovereignty for misusing the term 'global war on terror' to conduct military operations through government agencies without formally declaring war.

**Question 0**

What controversial technology did the US use in Pakistan?

**Question 1**

Which US agency is using its drones in Pakistan?

**Question 2**

Why did the US use the CIA and not the Air Force to run the drones?

**Question 3**

What misuse of the term allowed the absence of an official declaration of war?

**Question 4**

What does the US government use air power for?

**Question 5**

What is the US criticising?

**Question 6**

What does Pakistan use for air strikes?

**Question 7**

What term was Pakistani accused of misusing?

**Question 8**

The term "global war on terror" required that we formally do what?

**Text number 20**

In Osama bin Laden's 2002 letter "Letter to the American people", he stated that one of the reasons for his fight against the United States was its support for India on the Kashmir issue. When US Defence Secretary Donald Rumsfeld visited Delhi in 2002, he hinted that Al-Qaeda was active in Kashmir, although he had no hard evidence. A 2002 investigation uncovered evidence that Al-Qaeda and its affiliates were thriving in Pakistan-administered Kashmir with the tacit approval of Pakistan's National Intelligence Agency's Inter-Services Intelligence unit. A team of Special Air Service and Delta Force troops was sent to Indian-administered Kashmir in 2002 to search for Osama bin Laden after reports that he was being protected by the Kashmiri militant outfit Harkat-ul-Mujahideen. US authorities believed that al-Qaeda helped organise a campaign of terror in Kashmir to provoke conflict between India and Pakistan. Harkat-ul-Mujahideen leader Fazlur Rehman Khalil signed al-Qaeda's 1998 holy war declaration calling on Muslims to attack all Americans and their allies. Indian sources claimed that in 2006 al-Qaeda claimed to have established a wing in Kashmir, which worried the Indian government. India also claimed that al-Qaeda has strong links with the Pakistani-based Kashmiri militant groups Lashkar-e-Taiba and Jaish-e-Mohammed. In January 2010, during a visit to Pakistan, US Secretary of Defence Robert Gates stated that Al-Qaeda was seeking to destabilise the region and was planning to provoke a nuclear war between India and Pakistan.

**Question 0**

Who wrote the "Letter to the American People" in 2002?

**Question 1**

Who was the US Secretary of Defense in 2002?

**Question 2**

Which group did Rumsfeld believe was operating in Kashmir?

**Question 3**

Which groups hunted Bin Laden in Kashmir in 2002?

**Question 4**

Who ran Harkat-ul-Mujahideen?

**Question 5**

Who did India support on the Kashmir issue?

**Question 6**

What was the name of the document written by Donald Rumsfeld?

**Question 7**

Who was the Kashmiri militant group Harkat-ul-Mujahideen trying to hunt?

**Question 8**

Who is the leader of Kashmir?

**Question 9**

Pakistan claimed that al-Qaeda had close links to which region?

**Text number 21**

In September 2009, a US drone strike reportedly killed Ilyas Kashmir, leader of the al-Qaeda-linked Kashmiri militant group Harkat-ul-Jihad al-Islam. Bruce Riedel described Kashmir as a "prominent" member of Al-Qaeda, while others described him as the leader of Al-Qaeda's military operations. Waziristan had now become a new battlefield for Kashmiri militants, who were now fighting NATO in support of Al-Qaeda. Al-Badar Mujahideen, a breakaway faction of the Kashmir-based Hizbul Mujahideen terrorist group, called on 8 July 2012 at the end of its two-day Shuhada conference for mobilising resources to continue the jihad in Kashmir.

**Question 0**

Who was killed by a US drone in September 2009?

**Question 1**

What group was Ilyas Kashmiri leading?

**Question 2**

Who started the fighting in Waziristan after 2009?

**Question 3**

From which group did Al-Badar Mujahideen break away?

**Question 4**

What did Al-Badar Mujahideen demand in 2012?

**Question 5**

Who ordered the SUS drone strike in September 2009?

**Question 6**

Which group was Bruce Riedel the leader of?

**Question 7**

Which faction broke away from Al-Badar Mujahideen?

**Question 8**

How long was Waziristan the new battlefield?

**Question 9**

When did terrorist groups call for an end to jihad in Kashmir?

**Text number 22**

In the following months, NATO took a wide range of measures to respond to the threat of terrorism. On 22 November 2002, the member states of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) adopted a Partnership Action Plan against Terrorism, which explicitly states that "EAPC states are committed to protecting and promoting fundamental freedoms and human rights and the rule of law in the fight against terrorism". NATO launched naval operations in the Mediterranean to prevent the movement of terrorists or weapons of mass destruction and to improve maritime security in general.

**Question 0**

Who declared the Action Plan of the Partnership against Terrorism?

**Question 1**

When was the Counter-Terrorism Partnership announced?

**Question 2**

Where did NATO launch naval operations after 2002?

**Question 3**

What was the NATO operation in the Mediterranean?

**Question 4**

What is the reaction to terrorism?

**Question 5**

What were NATO's counter-terrorism measures called?

**Question 6**

Which Council decided in November 2002 to launch an operation in the Mediterranean?

**Question 7**

Where is the EAPC located?

**Question 8**

On what day did Operation Active Endeavour begin?

**Text number 23**

US support waned when the US made clear its determination to invade Iraq at the end of 2002. Nevertheless, many of the countries of the 'coalition of the willing', which unconditionally supported the US-led military action, have sent troops to Afghanistan, notably neighbouring Pakistan, which has renounced its previous support for the Taliban and sent tens of thousands of troops into the conflict. Pakistan was also involved in the war in north-west Pakistan (the Waziristan war). Pakistan, supported by US intelligence, tried to remove Taliban insurgents and al-Qaeda forces from the northern tribal areas.

**Question 0**

What was the name given to the countries that supported the US attacks after September 11?

**Question 1**

Which country gave up the Taliban?

**Question 2**

How many soldiers did Pakistan contribute to the fight against the Taliban?

**Question 3**

Where in Pakistan is Waziristan located?

**Question 4**

Where did Pakistan try to eliminate the Taliban and Al-Qaeda?

**Question 5**

What action made US support grow?

**Question 6**

Which country refused to send troops to Afghanistan?

**Question 7**

How many soldiers did the coalition of the willing provide?

**Question 8**

What was the name of the Northern Tribal War?

**Question 9**

What was Afghanistan trying to do with the help of the United States?

**Text number 24**

The British 16th Air Assault Brigade (later reinforced by the Royal Marines) formed the nucleus of the force in southern Afghanistan, together with troops and helicopters from Australia, Canada and the Netherlands. The original force consisted of some 3 300 British, 2 000 Canadians, 1 400 Dutch and 240 Australians, plus special forces from Denmark and Estonia and small elements from other countries. More than 4,000 cargo containers worth some 12 billion Pakistani rupees are delivered to ISAF forces in Afghanistan via Pakistan every month.

**Question 0**

What was the primary fighting force in southern Afghanistan?

**Question 1**

Which countries other than the United Kingdom played a significant role in the fighting in southern Afghanistan?

**Question 2**

How many soldiers did Canada initially send?

**Question 3**

How many soldiers did Australia send initially?

**Question 4**

How many soldiers did the Netherlands initially send?

**Question 5**

What was the name of the later British 16th Air Assault Brigade?

**Question 6**

How many Special Forces soldiers were in Denmark?

**Question 7**

How many Pakistanis were involved?

**Question 8**

How many British soldiers helped to invade Denmark?

**Question 9**

What type of vehicle did Estonia supply?

**Text number 25**

In addition to military action abroad, the Bush administration, after the events of September 11, stepped up domestic action to prevent future attacks. The bureaucracies of the State Department, which performs security and military functions, were reorganised. In November 2002, a new cabinet-level agency, the United States Department of Homeland Security, was created to lead and coordinate the largest reorganization of the US federal government since the consolidation of the armed forces into the Department of Defense.

**Question 0**

What new agency did Bush create after 9/11?

**Question 1**

When was the DHS established?

**Question 2**

What other massive agency was the DHS compared to?

**Question 3**

What was DHS focused on?

**Question 4**

What did the Bush administration do instead of military action?

**Question 5**

Which Bush agency was set up before 9/11?

**Question 6**

When were the armed forces united?

**Question 7**

What was merged into the Ministry of Internal Security?

**Question 8**

Which administration created the Ministry of Defence?

**Text number 26**

The USA PATRIOT Act of October 2001 significantly reduces restrictions on law enforcement's ability to search telephone, e-mail, medical, financial and other records; it eases restrictions on the collection of foreign intelligence in the United States; expands the Treasury Secretary's authority to regulate financial transactions, particularly those involving foreign persons and entities; and expands the discretion of law enforcement and immigration authorities to detain and deport immigrants suspected of terrorism-related acts. The Act also expanded the definition of terrorism to include domestic terrorism, increasing the number of activities to which the expanded law enforcement powers of the USA PATRIOT Act could apply. A new Terrorist Finance Tracking Program tracked the movement of terrorist financial resources (the program was shut down after the New York Times exposed it). Global telecommunications usage, including that unrelated to terrorism, is collected and monitored through the NSA's Electronic Surveillance Program. The Patriot Act is still in force.

**Question 0**

When was the Patriot Act passed?

**Question 1**

What did the Patriot Act do to make law enforcement searches easier?

**Question 2**

What did the Patriot Act do to make it easier for immigrants?

**Question 3**

How did the Patriot Act broaden the definition of terrorism?

**Question 4**

Which newspaper exposed a terrorist finance tracking programme?

**Question 5**

Which bill added restrictions on law enforcement authorities?

**Question 6**

Which bill was approved by the Minister of Finance?

**Question 7**

In what year was the Terrorist Finance Tracking Programme closed?

**Question 8**

What programme does the NSA currently use to monitor economic activities?

**Question 9**

Which newspaper exposed the Patriot Act?

**Text number 27**

Political interest groups have argued that these laws remove important limits on government power and are a dangerous intrusion on civil liberties and potentially unconstitutional violations of the Fourth Amendment. On July 30, 2003, the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) filed its first legal challenge to Section 215 of the Patriot Act, arguing that it allows the FBI to violate citizens' First and Fourth Amendment rights and due process of law by giving the government the right to search a person's business, bookstore, and library records in connection with a terrorism investigation without informing the person that the records will be searched. In addition, several community governing bodies have passed symbolic resolutions against the law.

**Question 0**

When did the ACLU first challenge the Patriot Act?

**Question 1**

What rights did the ACLU say were violated by the Patriot Act?

**Question 2**

What did Section 215 of the Patriot Act allow the FBI to investigate?

**Question 3**

Who passed symbolic resolutions against the Patriot Act?

**Question 4**

What did the ACLU break?

**Question 5**

When was Section 215 drafted?

**Question 6**

Where has the government said that laws will remove restrictions?

**Question 7**

What was the ACLU allowed to inspect under Section 215?

**Question 8**

Who sued the ACLU?

**Text number 28**

In 2005, the UN Security Council adopted Resolution 1624 on incitement to commit terrorist acts and the obligations of countries to comply with international human rights law. Although both resolutions require countries that have adopted them to report annually on their counter-terrorism activities, the United States and Israel have both refused to do so. In the same year, the US Department of Defense and the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff released a planning document entitled "National Military Strategic Plan for the War against Terrorism", which stated that it constituted "a comprehensive military plan for the conduct of the global war on terrorism by the United States Armed Forces... including the findings and recommendations of the 9/11 Commission and a thorough review with the Department of Defense."

**Question 0**

Which terrorism-related resolution was adopted by the UN Security Council in 2005?

**Question 1**

Which countries have not submitted the required reports to the UN Security Council?

**Question 2**

Which plan was published by the Ministry of Defence in 2005?

**Question 3**

What was Resolution 1624 intended to protect?

**Question 4**

In what year did Israel adopt the 1964 resolution?

**Question 5**

Why did the UN Security Council refuse to provide reports?

**Question 6**

Which document was published by the Israeli Ministry of Defence?

**Question 7**

Which two countries submitted annual reports?

**Question 8**

Which US agency published Resolution 1624?

**Text number 29**

The critique of the war on terror deals with issues related to the war on terror, morality, efficiency, economics and other issues, and criticises the phrase itself, calling it a misnomer. The concept of a 'war on terror' has proved highly controversial, with critics charging that it has been exploited by the governments involved to pursue long-term political/military objectives, reduce civil liberties and violate human rights. It has been argued that the term 'war' is inappropriate in this context (as in the war on drugs) because there is no identifiable enemy and because it is unlikely that international terrorism can be stopped by military means.

**Question 0**

Which phrase has been called a misnomer?

**Question 1**

What has the "war on terror" been used as an excuse for?

**Question 2**

What other misnamed "war" has the "war on terror" been compared to?

**Question 3**

What is the likely fate of the "war on terror"?

**Question 4**

What is another name for the war on drugs?

**Question 5**

What is likely to be stopped by military means?

**Question 6**

What has the war on drugs been used as an excuse for?

**Question 7**

What term is appropriate for someone who has no identifiable enemy?

**Text number 30**

Other critics, such as Francis Fukuyama, argue that "terrorism" is not an enemy but a tactic; calling it a "war on terror" blurs the distinction between conflicts such as anti-occupation rebels and international mujahideen. The military presence in Iraq and Afghanistan and the collateral damage it causes, according to Shirley Williams, increases resentment and the threat of terrorism against the West. In addition, the US is seen as hypocritical, media-induced hysteria and differences in foreign and security policy have damaged the image of the US in most parts of the world.

**Question 0**

What mistake did Francis Fukuyama make in the name of the war on terror?

**Question 1**

What is the war on terror hiding?

**Question 2**

Who said that the US presence in Iraq will increase resentment and terrorists?

**Question 3**

What fuelled the terrorist hysteria in the US?

**Question 4**

What has the "war on terror" done to the international image of the United States?

**Question 5**

What does Shirley Williams call terrorism instead of the enemy?

**Question 6**

Who said that military presence has reduced resentment?

**Question 7**

What has damaged Iraq's image in the world?

**Question 8**

Which critic blurs the distinction between conflicts?

**Question 9**

What policies have most of the world agreed on?

**Document number 302**

**Text number 0**

Labour has a minority government in the Welsh Parliament led by Carwyn Jones, is the largest opposition party in the Scottish Parliament and has twenty MEPs in the Socialist and Democrat Group. The party is also active in Northern Ireland, but does not participate in the Northern Ireland Assembly elections. The Labour Party is a full member of the Party of European Socialists and the Progressive Alliance and has observer status in the Socialist International. In September 2015, Jeremy Corbyn was elected Labour leader.

**Question 0**

Who will lead the Welsh Assembly?

**Question 1**

What is the largest opposition party in the Scottish Parliament?

**Question 2**

How many MPs does it have in the UK Parliament?

**Question 3**

What year was Jeremy Corbyn elected?

**Question 4**

What leads to a majority government in the Welsh Parliament?

**Question 5**

What is the smallest opposition party in the Scottish Parliament?

**Question 6**

Where does the Labour Party not organise?

**Question 7**

Who was the leader of the Labour Party before 2015?

**Question 8**

Where does the Labour Party have forty MEPs?

**Text number 1**

The Labour Party has its roots in the late 19th century, when it became clear that a new political party was needed to represent the interests and needs of the urban proletariat. The proletariat had grown in numbers and had recently gained the right to vote. Some members of the trade union movement became interested in political activity, and after the further extension of suffrage in 1867 and 1885, the Liberal Party supported some candidates backed by the trade unions. The first Lib-Lab candidate was George Odger in Southwark's by-election in 1870. Around the same time, a number of small socialist groups had been formed to link the movement to political policy. These included the Independent Labour Party, the intellectual and largely middle-class Fabian Society, the Marxist Social Democratic Alliance and the Scottish Labour Party.

**Question 0**

When did Labour Parry start?

**Question 1**

When was George Odger elected?

**Question 2**

When did it become obvious that the rural proletariat needed a new political party?

**Question 3**

Which population group had decreased?

**Question 4**

In what years was voting rights reduced?

**Question 5**

Who was the latest Lib-Lab candidate?

**Question 6**

What socialist group did not form at this time?

**Text number 2**

In 1899, Thomas R. Steels, a Doncaster member of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, proposed in his union booth that the Congress of Trade Unions call a special conference to bring together all the left-wing organizations into a single body to sponsor parliamentary candidates. The TUC accepted the motion at all stages, and the proposed conference was held at the Memorial Hall in Farringdon Street on 26-27 February 1900. The conference was attended by a wide range of working class and left organisations - trade unions represented about a third of the TUC's delegate membership.

**Question 0**

In what year did Thomas R. Steels propose a single-body union branch?

**Question 1**

Where was Thomas R. Steels a member?

**Question 2**

Where was the proposed conference held?

**Question 3**

Who proposed a special conference to bring together all right-wing organisations?

**Question 4**

Which group did not approve the proposal?

**Question 5**

Where was conference aid before 1900?

**Question 6**

What only involved a narrow group of organisations?

**Question 7**

What represented two thirds of the TUC's representatives?

**Text number 3**

After the debate, 129 delegates approved Hardie's motion that there should be "a separate Labour Party group in parliament, with its own whips and its own policies, which must be prepared to cooperate with any party which at present seeks to promote legislation in the direct interests of the working people". Thus an association called the Labour Representation Committee (LRC) was created to coordinate efforts to support union-backed MPs and represent working people. It had no single leader and, in the absence of one, Ramsay MacDonald, an Independent Labour Party candidate, was elected secretary. He had the difficult task of keeping the various strands of opinion in the LRC united. The 'khaki' elections of October 1900 were held too soon for the new party to campaign effectively; the total election expenditure was only £33. There were only 15 candidates, but two of them were successful: Keir Hardie in Merthyr Tydfil and Richard Bell in Derby.

**Question 0**

How many councillors approved the motion?

**Question 1**

Who was elected secretary?

**Question 2**

How many candidates were sponsored in the 1900 elections?

**Question 3**

What did 129 delegates do before the debate?

**Question 4**

Which association was designed to break up attempts to support trade union-backed MPs?

**Question 5**

Which organisation had one leader?

**Question 6**

Who was the failed candidate?

**Question 7**

What was an easy task for Ramsay MacDonald?

**Text number 4**

The LRC's support was boosted in 1901 by the Taff Vale case, a dispute between strikers and the railway company which ended with the union being ordered to pay £23,000 in damages for the strike. The ruling made the strikes effectively illegal, as employers could recover the cost of lost business from the unions. The apparent acquiescence of Arthur Balfour's Conservative government to the interests of industry and business (traditionally allies of the Liberal Party against the interests of Conservative landowners) increased the support of the LRC against a government that seemed to care little for the industrial proletariat and its problems.

**Question 0**

What increased support in 1901?

**Question 1**

What was the Taft Vale case?

**Question 2**

What happened in this case?

**Question 3**

How much were they ordered to pay in damages for the strike?

**Question 4**

What damaged the LRC's support?

**Question 5**

How much did the railway company have to pay the union?

**Question 6**

What made the strikes de facto legal?

**Question 7**

What seemed to be very concerned about the industrial proletariat?

**Question 8**

What refused to listen to the interests of industry and business?

**Text number 5**

At its first meeting after the elections, the members of the group officially decided (on 15 February 1906) to adopt the name "Labour Party". Keir Hardie, who had taken a leading role in founding the party, was elected chairman (effectively leader) of the Parliamentary Labour Party, albeit by only one vote against David Shackleton after several ballots. In the early years of the party, the Independent Labour Party (ILP) formed a large part of the party's activist base, as the party had no individual membership before 1918 and operated as a grouping of affiliated bodies. The Fabian Society provided the party with much intellectual stimulation. One of the first acts of the new Liberal government was to overturn the Taff Vale conviction.

**Question 0**

Who overturned Taft Vale's conviction?

**Question 1**

Who was elected leader of the Labour Party in Parliament?

**Question 2**

How many votes did Keir Hardie win?

**Question 3**

Who was Keir Hardie's opponent?

**Question 4**

What name did the group adopt at its last meeting?

**Question 5**

What name was adopted by the group before 1906?

**Question 6**

Who had not helped the party to consolidate?

**Question 7**

What formed the party's activist base in its later years?

**Question 8**

What was one of the last things the new Liberal government did?

**Text number 6**

In the 1910 election, 42 Labour MPs were elected to the House of Commons, a significant victory since the year before the election the House of Lords had passed the Osborne ruling, which banned British trade unions from donating money to Labour MPs' election campaigns and salaries. The ruling Liberals were unwilling to overturn this court decision by primary legislation. The pinnacle of the Liberal compromise was to introduce MPs' salaries so that unions would no longer have to contribute. By 1913, in the face of opposition from the major trade unions, the Liberal government passed the Trade Disputes Act, which once again allowed trade unions to fund Labour MPs.

**Question 0**

How many MPs were elected in the 1910 elections?

**Question 1**

Who gave the Osborne judgment?

**Question 2**

When was the law on commercial disputes adopted?

**Question 3**

In what year did 42 Labour MPs experience defeat?

**Question 4**

What did the House of Lords approve a year after the elections?

**Question 5**

Who could no longer fund the salaries of Liberal MPs?

**Question 6**

What was the bottom line of the Liberal compromise?

**Question 7**

When did the Labour government pass the Trades Disputes Act?

**Text number 7**

The Communist Party of Great Britain was denied membership of the Labour Party between 1921 and 1923, at a time when the Liberal Party was in rapid decline, and also suffered a catastrophic split that saw Labour win a large proportion of Liberal support. With the Liberals in such disarray, Labour won 142 seats in 1922, making it the second largest political group in the House of Commons and the official opposition to the Conservative government. After the election, the now rehabilitated Ramsay MacDonald was elected Labour's first official leader.

**Question 0**

When did the COmmunist Party refuse membership?

**Question 1**

How many seats did Labour win in 1922?

**Question 2**

Who was elected as the first leader of the Labour Party?

**Question 3**

When did the Communist Party refuse to join the Labour Party?

**Question 4**

What enabled the Liberals to win a large share of Labour's support?

**Question 5**

How many seats did the Liberals win in 1922?

**Question 6**

What was the third largest group in the House of Commons?

**Question 7**

Who was voted in as the last official leader of the Labour Party?

**Text number 8**

The 1923 general election was held on the basis of the Conservatives' protectionist proposals, but although the Conservatives won the most votes and remained the largest party, they lost their majority in parliament, which meant that a pro-free trade government had to be formed. So Ramsay MacDonald, with the agreement of the Asquith Liberals, became the first ever Labour Prime Minister in January 1924, and formed the first Labour government, even though Labour had only 191 MPs (less than a third of the House of Commons).

**Question 0**

In what year did Ramsay MacDonald become Labour Prime Minister?

**Question 1**

How many MPs did they get in the 1924 elections?

**Question 2**

Who was the last Labour Prime Minister?

**Question 3**

Which party had more than a third of the House of Commons?

**Question 4**

When was the first Conservative Prime Minister in office?

**Question 5**

Who won a majority in Parliament?

**Question 6**

Who got the fewest votes?

**Text number 9**

The government fell after only nine months when the Liberals voted in favour of a special committee inquiry into the Campbell case, which MacDonald had declared a vote of confidence. In the 1924 general election, four days before polling day, a letter from Zinoviev was published in which Moscow spoke of a communist revolution in Britain. The letter had little effect on Labour's vote, which remained unchanged. The collapse of the Liberal Party led to a landslide victory for the Conservatives. The Conservatives returned to power despite Labour increasing its share of the vote from 30.7% to a third, with most of the Conservative gains coming at the expense of the Liberals. However, for years many Labour Party members blamed their defeat on fraudulent activity (Zinoviev letter) and, according to A. J. P. Taylor, they thus misunderstood the political forces and delayed necessary reforms in the party.

**Question 0**

When was Zinoviev's letter published?

**Question 1**

After how long did the government collapse?

**Question 2**

What was rebuilt after only nine months?

**Question 3**

What did the Conservatives vote?

**Question 4**

Which letter was published just before the 1920 elections?

**Question 5**

Who talked about a communist revolution in America?

**Question 6**

What had a big influence on the Labour vote?

**Text number 10**

As the economic situation worsened, MacDonald agreed to form a "national government" with the Conservatives and Liberals. On 24 August 1931, MacDonald resigned as a minister and led a small group of senior colleagues to form a national government with other parties. This caused great anger within the Labour Party, which felt betrayed by MacDonald's actions: he and his supporters were immediately expelled from the Labour Party and formed a separate National Labour Party. The remaining Labour MPs (again led by Arthur Henderson) and a few Liberals went into opposition. The next general election in 1931 brought an overwhelming victory for the national government and a disaster for Labour, which won only 52 seats, 225 fewer than in 1929.

**Question 0**

When did MacDonald ask for the resignation of his ministers?

**Question 1**

What prompted MacDonald to form a separate party?

**Question 2**

Who won the 1931 election?

**Question 3**

What happened when the economic situation improved?

**Question 4**

Who refused to form a national government?

**Question 5**

How did the Conservative Party feel about MacDonald's actions?

**Question 6**

Who was fired from the National Labour Organisation?

**Question 7**

Which elections were Labour's overwhelming victory?

**Text number 11**

The nationalist parties, for their part, are demanding devolution to their own states in return for their support for the government. When the Scottish and Welsh devolution referendums were held in March 1979, devolution in Wales was rejected outright, while the Scottish referendum received a narrow majority without reaching the required 40% threshold. When the Labour government refused to go ahead with the proposed Scottish Assembly, the SNP withdrew its support for the government: this eventually brought down the government, with a confidence vote against the Callaghan government, which was lost by one vote on 28 March 1979, making a general election inevitable.

**Question 0**

In what year was devolution for Scotland and Wales rejected?

**Question 1**

How many votes did the confidence vote lose in 1979?

**Question 2**

When was devolution in Wales approved?

**Question 3**

Which referendum reached the 40% support threshold?

**Question 4**

Who pushed for the creation of the Scottish Assembly?

**Question 5**

Which party withdrew its support for the SNP?

**Question 6**

By how much did the Callaghan government win the confidence vote?

**Text number 12**

Callaghan was widely expected to call a general election in the autumn of 1978, when most polls showed Labour in a narrow lead. However, he decided to continue his policy of wage moderation for another year in the hope that the economy would be in better shape for the 1979 elections. In the winter of 1978-79, lorry drivers, railway workers, car workers, local government workers and hospital workers staged widespread strikes for higher pay rises, causing considerable disruption to daily life. These events became known as the 'winter of discontent'.

**Question 0**

What year did the Labour Party have a small lead?

**Question 1**

Who were the strikers between 1978 and 1979?

**Question 2**

Why did they go on strike?

**Question 3**

What was the name of this strike?

**Question 4**

Who did no one expect to call for a general election?

**Question 5**

When did the large-scale strikes end?

**Question 6**

Why did the farmers go on strike?

**Question 7**

What was called the "summer of discontent"?

**Question 8**

Which group of people never went on strike?

**Text number 13**

After the defeat in the 1979 general election, the internal Labour Party rivalry between Tony Benn's left and Denis Healey's right began. The election of Michael Foot as leader in 1980 and his left-wing policies, including unilateral nuclear disarmament, withdrawal from the European Economic Community (EEC) and NATO, increased government influence over the banking system, the creation of a national minimum wage and a ban on fox-hunting, led to the formation of the Social Democratic Party in 1981 by four former Labour right-wing ministers (Shirley Williams, William Rodgers, Roy Jenkins and David Owen). Benn was narrowly defeated by Healey in a bitter deputy leader election in 1981, following the introduction of an electoral commission to extend the franchise for the election of the leader and his deputy. By 1982, the National Executive Committee had concluded that the militant tendency group was in breach of the party's constitution. Five members of the Militant newspaper were expelled on 22 February 1983.

**Question 0**

When did the Labout party lose?

**Question 1**

In what year was Michael Foot elected leader?

**Question 2**

What did the four Labour Party members leave to create?

**Question 3**

Why was the Electoral Commission introduced?

**Question 4**

What did Labour do after its victory in 1979?

**Question 5**

Who lost the election in 1980?

**Question 6**

What policies did Michael Foot oppose?

**Question 7**

Who did Healey beat easily?

**Question 8**

What did the National Executive Committee decide before 1982?

**Text number 14**

Foot resigned and was replaced by Neil Kinnock and Roy Hattersley as his deputy. The new leadership gradually abandoned unpopular policies. The miners' strike in 1984-85 over coal mine closures, for which mining manager Arthur Scargill was blamed, and the Wapping controversy led to clashes with the party left and negative coverage in most of the press. The so-called 'loony left' was vilified in the tabloids, further tarnishing the parliamentary party by associating it with the activities of 'extra-parliamentary' militants in local government.

**Question 0**

Who replaced Foot?

**Question 1**

Who was Neil Knnock's replacement?

**Question 2**

What year was the miners' strike?

**Question 3**

What was the name of the miners' leader who was accused of the strike?

**Question 4**

Who did Foot replace as leader?

**Question 5**

Who was Foot's replacement?

**Question 6**

When was the lorry drivers' strike?

**Question 7**

Who was accused of the truck drivers' strike?

**Question 8**

What was the result of the smearing of the right in the tabloids?

**Text number 15**

In the 2010 general election on 6 May 2010, Labour won the second highest number of seats (258) with 29.0% of the vote. The Conservatives, with 36.5% of the vote, won the largest number of seats (307), but no party had an overall majority, so Labour could still remain in power if it managed to form a coalition with at least one smaller party. However, the Labour Party would have had to form a coalition with more than one smaller party to gain a majority. After negotiations to form a coalition with the Liberal Democrats broke down, Brown announced his intention to step down as leader on 10 May 2010 ahead of the Labour Party conference, but a day later he resigned as both Prime Minister and leader of the party.

**Question 0**

How many seats did Labour win in 2010?

**Question 1**

How many seats did the Conservatives win?

**Question 2**

When did Brown announce his intention to resign?

**Text number 16**

Labour's funding proved to be the biggest problem during this period; the 'cash for peers' scandal that erupted under Blair led to many important donations drying up. The decline in party membership, partly due to the diminishing influence of activists in policy-making following Neil Kinnock and Blair's reforms, also contributed to the funding problems. Between January and March 2008, Labour received just over £3 million in donations and was £17 million in debt, compared with £6 million in donations and £12 million in debt for the Conservatives.

**Question 0**

How much did Labour receive in contributions from January to March 2008?

**Question 1**

How much debt had the party incurred over the same period?

**Question 2**

How much was the Conservative Party in debt?

**Question 3**

What was not Labour's biggest problem during this period?

**Question 4**

Why did the party's membership grow?

**Question 5**

When did Labour receive 6 million in donations?

**Question 6**

When was the Conservative Party 17 million in debt?

**Question 7**

Who increased activists' influence?

**Text number 17**

Labour improved its performance in 1987, gaining 20 seats and reducing the Conservative majority from 143 to 102. They had now established themselves as Britain's second political party, as the Alliance had once again failed to make a breakthrough in terms of seats. The merger of the SDP and the Liberals formed the Liberal Democrats. After the 1987 election, the National Executive Committee continued to take disciplinary action against Militant members who remained in the party, leading to the further expulsion of their activists and two MPs who supported the group.

**Question 0**

How many more seats did LAbour gain in 1987?

**Question 1**

What was the name of the merger between the SDP and the Liberals?

**Question 2**

Who was expelled by the NEC

**Question 3**

When did Labour's performance deteriorate?

**Question 4**

Which party lost 20 seats in 1987?

**Question 5**

How much did Labour's majority shrink?

**Question 6**

What did the National Executive Committee do before 1987?

**Question 7**

How many activists were sacked by the Conservative Party?

**Text number 18**

The "yo yo" of the opinion polls continued in 1992, although after November 1990 Labour's lead in the polls was rarely enough to achieve a majority. Major resisted Kinnock's calls for a general election throughout 1991. Kinnock campaigned on the theme "It's time for a change" and urged voters to elect a new government after more than a decade of uninterrupted Conservative rule. However, the Conservatives themselves had undergone a dramatic change of leadership from Thatcher to Major, at least in style if not in substance. The change was clearly well received from the outset, with Labour's 14-point lead in the November 1990 'Poll of Polls' giving way a month later to an 8% Conservative lead.

**Question 0**

What year did Kinnock call for a general election?

**Question 1**

What was the theme of the Kinnock party?

**Question 2**

What was the original Tory lead percentage?

**Question 3**

Where did the percentage fall to?

**Question 4**

When has the Conservative lead in the polls been enough for a majority?

**Question 5**

Who followed Kinnock's calls for a general election?

**Question 6**

What was the theme of the Major's party?

**Question 7**

How long had the Labour Party ruled unbroken?

**Question 8**

When did the Conservatives have a 14-point lead?

**Text number 19**

Kinnock then resigned as party leader and was replaced by John Smith. Under Smith's leadership, tensions once again arose between the party's left and the 'modernisers', both of whom advocated a radical revision of the party's position, albeit in different ways. At the 1993 party conference, Smith successfully changed the party's rules and reduced the influence of trade unions in the selection of parliamentary candidates by introducing a 'one member, one vote' system, known as 'OMOV' - but only just, after a pompous speech by John Prescott calling on Smith to compromise on other individual negotiations.

**Question 0**

Who replaced Kinnock?

**Question 1**

When did Smith change the party rules?

**Question 2**

What is OMOV?

**Question 3**

Who replaced John Smith as leader?

**Question 4**

Whose leadership eased tensions within the party?

**Question 5**

When did Smith fail to change the party rules?

**Question 6**

What did John Prescott successfully change?

**Question 7**

What increased the influence of trade unions?

**Text number 20**

The Black Wednesday economic disaster of September 1992 left the Conservative government's reputation for monetary excellence in tatters, and by the end of that year Labour was comfortably ahead of the Conservatives in the polls. Although the recession was declared over in April 1993, followed by strong and sustained economic growth accompanied by a relatively rapid fall in unemployment, Labour's lead in the polls remained strong. However, Smith died of a heart attack in May 1994.

**Question 0**

When was Black Wednesday?

**Question 1**

What was Black Wednesday?

**Question 2**

When was the recession declared over?

**Question 3**

When did Smith die?

**Question 4**

Where did Smith die?

**Question 5**

When was Black Friday a disaster?

**Question 6**

What repaired the Conservative government's reputation?

**Question 7**

When were the Conservatives in a comfortable lead over Labour?

**Question 8**

When did the recession start?

**Question 9**

What year was Smith born?

**Text number 21**

"New Labour" was originally an alternative brand for the Labour Party, stemming from the party's 1994 convention slogan, which was later seen in the party's 1996 draft manifesto "New Labour, New Life For Britain". It was a continuation of the trend that had begun under Neil Kinnock. 'New Labour' has no official status as a name, but it is still in common use to distinguish modernists from those who hold more traditional positions, usually referred to as 'Old Labour'.

**Question 0**

What was the second name of the Labout party?

**Question 1**

When was this brand first used?

**Question 2**

When did the Labour Party publish a new draft manifesto?

**Question 3**

What was the name of this manifesto?

**Question 4**

What was the alternative brand for the Conservative Party?

**Question 5**

When was the last time the term New Labour was used?

**Question 6**

Who ended the New Labour movement?

**Question 7**

In which publication was the term New Labour never used?

**Question 8**

What status does the name "old Labour" have?

**Text number 22**

The turning point was perceived to be Blair's controversial alliance with US President George W. Bush in support of the Iraq war, which caused him to lose much of his political support. Among many others, the UN Secretary General considered the war illegal. The Iraq war was deeply unpopular in most Western countries, and Western governments were divided in their support and under pressure from worldwide popular protests. The decisions leading up to and after the Iraq war are currently the subject of Sir John Chilcot's Iraq Inquiry.

**Question 0**

Whose side was Tony Blair on?

**Question 1**

Why did Blair side with Bush?

**Question 2**

Who has active research on the war in Iraq?

**Question 3**

Was the idea of war in Iraq popular or unpopular in the West?

**Question 4**

Who did Blair ally with during the war in Afghanistan?

**Question 5**

What gave Blair political support?

**Question 6**

Who considered the war legal?

**Question 7**

Which war was popular in most Western countries?

**Question 8**

What is the subject of Blair's Iraq inquiry?

**Text number 23**

Blair announced in September 2006 that he would resign as leader within a year, despite pressure to do so earlier than May 2007 in order to get a new leader elected before the May elections, which were expected to be disastrous for Labour. The party lost power in Scotland to a minority Scottish National Party government in the 2007 election, and shortly afterwards Blair resigned as First Minister and was replaced by Chancellor Gordon Brown. Although the party then experienced a brief upturn in the polls, its popularity soon plummeted to its lowest level since the days of Michael Foot. In May 2008, Labour suffered heavy defeats in the London mayoral election, local elections and lost the by-elections in Crewe and Nantwich, resulting in the party's worst ever polling performance since 1943, 23%, with many citing Brown's leadership as a key factor. The party's membership was also on the decline, falling to 156,205 by the end of 2009: more than 40 per cent of the 405,000 members at its highest level in 1997 and believed to be the lowest since the party's inception.

**Question 0**

When did Blair announce he was quitting?

**Question 1**

When were the next elections?

**Question 2**

To whom did Labour lose power in the elections?

**Question 3**

Who replaced Blair?

**Question 4**

What was the party's membership at the end of 2009?

**Question 5**

When was Blair not pressured to resign?

**Question 6**

During which event did people want Blair to be in power?

**Question 7**

Where did the party get its power?

**Question 8**

Who replaced Gordon Brown?

**Question 9**

What did Labour win in May 2008?

**Text number 24**

Clement Attlee's government proved to be one of the most radical British governments of the 20th century, implementing Keynesian economic policies and pursuing a policy of nationalising major industries and utilities such as the Bank of England, coal mining, steel, electricity, gas and land transport (including railways, roads and canals). It developed and implemented the 'cradle to grave' welfare state as conceived by the economist William Beveridge. To this day, the party's proudest achievement is the creation of the publicly funded National Health Service (NHS) in 1948 under the leadership of Aneurin Bevan, the Health Secretary. The Attlee government also began to dismantle the British Empire by granting independence to India and Pakistan in 1947, and the following year to Burma (Myanmar) and Ceylon (Sri Lanka). In January 1947, Attlee and six ministers, including Foreign Secretary Ernest Bevin, decided in a secret meeting to pursue Britain's nuclear weapons programme against the pacifist and anti-nuclear positions of much of the Labour Party.

**Question 0**

Whose government was the least radical of the 20th century?

**Question 1**

Who privatised the big industries?

**Question 2**

When was the UK's NHS destroyed?

**Question 3**

Under which health minister was the NHS dismantled?

**Question 4**

When did the British take control of India and Pakistan?

**Text number 25**

Labour won the 1950 general election, but with a much smaller majority of five seats. Soon afterwards, defence, and in particular defence spending (which peaked at 14% of GDP in 1951 during the Korean War), became a contentious issue within the party, straining public finances and forcing savings elsewhere. The introduction of NHS charges for dentures and spectacles by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Hugh Gaitskell, prompted the resignations of Bevan and Harold Wilson (then chairman of the Chamber of Commerce), who felt that the principle of free care, on which the NHS was based, had been watered down.

**Question 0**

What year did Labour lose the general election?

**Question 1**

What was the unifying factor for the party?

**Question 2**

When was the lowest defence spending in Britain?

**Question 3**

Who made dentures and glasses for free?

**Question 4**

What was not the principle of the NHS?

**Text number 26**

The Wilson government, under the leadership of Home Secretary Roy Jenkins, was responsible for a series of sweeping social and educational reforms, including the abolition of the death penalty in 1964, the legalisation of abortion and homosexuality (initially only for men over 21 and only in England and Wales) in 1967 and the abolition of theatre censorship in 1968. Basic education was extended and the Open University was established. However, the Wilson government had inherited a large trade deficit which led to a currency crisis and ultimately a failed attempt to prevent the devaluation of sterling. Labour lost the 1970 general election to the Conservatives under Edward Heath.

**Question 0**

When was abortion criminalised in Britain?

**Question 1**

When was the death penalty introduced in Britain?

**Question 2**

What was abolished in 1970?

**Question 3**

What stopped the currency crisis?

**Question 4**

What year did Labour win the general election?

**Text number 27**

After losing the 1970 general election, Labour returned to opposition but retained Harold Wilson as leader. The Heath government soon ran into difficulties over a 1973 dispute with the Northern Ireland and miners which led to a three-day working week. The 1970s proved to be a difficult time for both the Conservatives and Labour, as the 1973 oil crisis caused high inflation and a global recession. Labour returned to power again under Wilson a few weeks after the February 1974 general election and formed a minority government with the support of Ulster Unionists. The Conservatives were unable to form a government on their own because they had fewer seats, even though they won more votes. It was the first general election since 1924 in which both main parties had won less than 40% of the vote, and the first of six consecutive general elections in which Labour did not win 40% of the vote. To gain a majority, a second election was held shortly afterwards in October 1974, in which Labour, still led by Harold Wilson, won a three-seat majority but only 18 seats, bringing its total to 319.

**Question 0**

What did Labour do after winning the 1970 general election?

**Question 1**

Who won the 1970 general election?

**Question 2**

What was an easy time to be in government?

**Question 3**

Which group of people supported the Conservatives?

**Question 4**

Why were the Conservatives able to form a government on their own?

**Text number 28**

Fear of the advance of nationalist parties, particularly in Scotland, led to the suppression of a report by Scottish economist Gavin McCrone, which suggested that an independent Scotland would have a "chronically surplus" economy. By 1977, Callaghan led a minority government that was forced to bargain with smaller parties in order to govern. The 1977 arrangement negotiated with Liberal leader David Steel, known as the Lib-Lab deal, ended after a year. It was followed by deals with a number of smaller parties, including the Scottish National Party and the Welsh nationalist Plaid Cymru party, which extended the duration of the government.

**Question 0**

What led the Scottish Office to contribute to the report?

**Question 1**

What left Callaghan to lead the majority government?

**Question 2**

Why did Callaghan do business with the major parties?

**Question 3**

What arrangement took more than a year?

**Question 4**

What shortened the life of the government?

**Text number 29**

Harriet Harman became Leader of the Opposition and Acting Leader of the Labour Party after the resignation of Gordon Brown on 11 May 2010, until Ed Miliband won the leadership election. Miliband stressed "responsible capitalism" and greater state intervention to rebalance the UK economy away from financial services. Tackling conflicts of interest and opening up the closed circles of British society were also themes he returned to on several occasions. Miliband also called for more regulation of banks and energy companies.

**Question 0**

When did Ed Miliband resign?

**Question 1**

Who took over after Ed Miliband?

**Question 2**

What did Harriet Harman highlight?

**Question 3**

Where did Miliband want to change the UK's economic balance?

**Question 4**

What did Miliband want to regulate less?

**Text number 30**

The party's performance was unchanged in the 2012 local elections, with Labour strengthening its position in the north and centre of England and making some gains in the south. In Wales, the party performed well, regaining most of the Welsh city councils it lost in 2008, including the capital Cardiff. In Scotland, Labour retained overall control of Glasgow City Council despite contrary predictions, and also gained +3.26% support across Scotland. In London, the party's performance was mixed: Ken Livingstone lost the London mayoral election, but the party won its largest-ever representation in the Greater London Authority in a simultaneous general election.

**Question 0**

When did the party collapse in local elections?

**Question 1**

Where did Labour fail to increase its support?

**Question 2**

What did the Conservative Party get in Wales?

**Question 3**

Where did the Conservatives get +3.26% support?

**Question 4**

Who won the London mayoral election?

**Text number 31**

On 1 March 2014, the party reformed Labour's internal electoral procedures at its extraordinary party conference, including replacing the electoral college system for electing new leaders with a "one member, one vote" system, as recommended by former General Secretary Ray Collins. Mass membership would be promoted by allowing "registered supporters" to join at a discount, as would full membership. Trade union members would also have to explicitly 'opt in' rather than 'opt out' of paying a political subscription to Labour.

**Question 0**

Where did the party reform the Conservatives' electoral procedures?

**Question 1**

When were the Conservative electoral procedures reformed?

**Question 2**

What replaced the "one member, one vote" system?

**Question 3**

Who was allowed to join at a high price?

**Question 4**

Who had to agree to pay a political price for the Conservatives?

**Text number 32**

The 2015 general election resulted in a net loss of seats across the UK, with Labour's representation in the House of Commons falling to 232 seats. In Scotland, the party lost 40 out of 41 seats as the Scottish National Party gained a record high level of support. The fall in Labour's support was much larger than in the 2011 Scottish Parliament elections. Although Labour won more than 20 seats in England and Wales, mainly from the Liberal Democrats but also from the Conservative Party, it lost more seats to Conservative challengers such as Ed Balls, resulting in an overall net loss.

**Question 0**

What led to the net gain in seats?

**Question 1**

How many seats did the Conservatives have in the House of Commons in 2015?

**Question 2**

How many seats did the Scottish National Party lose?

**Question 3**

Where did the Liberal Democrats win new seats?

**Question 4**

Who was one of the Liberal Democrat challengers?

**Text number 33**

The Labour Party is seen as centre-left. It was originally set up as a way for the trade union movement to gain political representation in Westminster. It only committed itself to 'socialism' in the original party constitution in 1918. The strongest supporters saw this 'socialist' element, the original Clause IV, as a direct commitment to 'co-ownership' or nationalisation of the 'means of production, distribution and exchange'. Although about a third of British industry was taken into public ownership after the Second World War and remained so until the 1980s, the party right questioned the legitimacy of extending this objective in the late 1950s. Influenced by Anthony Crosland's The Future of Socialism (1956), the circle around party leader Hugh Gaitskell felt that commitment was no longer necessary. An attempt to remove Clause IV from the party's constitution in 1959 failed, but Tony Blair and the 'modernisers' felt that it was a potential voter turn-off and succeeded 35 years later, with little opposition from party leaders.

**Question 0**

Which party is considered centre-right?

**Question 1**

Why was the Conservative Party founded?

**Question 2**

In what year did the Conservative Party receive the Socialist Pledge?

**Question 3**

How much of UK industry was privatised?

**Question 4**

When was the attempt to remove clause IV successful?

**Text number 34**

Since the late 1980s, the party adopted free market policies, leading many observers to describe Labour as a social democratic or third way party rather than a democratic socialist. Other commentators go further and argue that traditional social democratic parties across Europe, including the British Labour Party, have changed so profoundly in recent years that they can no longer be described as ideologically 'social democratic', and argue that this ideological change has put new pressures on the party's traditional relationship with trade unions.

**Question 0**

What did the Party approve before the 1980s?

**Question 1**

Which party was described as democratic socialist?

**Question 2**

When did the social democratic parties in America change?

**Question 3**

What has strengthened the party's relationship with trade unions?

**Question 4**

What did the Conservative Party do since the 1980s?

**Text number 35**

The party has historically distinguished between a "soft left" and a "hard left", the former representing more moderate social democratic views, while the hard left strongly supported a socialist, even Marxist, ideology. Members of the hard left were often derided as 'crazy leftists', especially in the popular media. The term 'hard left' was sometimes used in the 1980s to describe Trotskyist groups such as the Militant movement, Socialist Organiser and Socialist Action. More recently, MPs from the Socialist Campaign Group and the Labour Representation Committee have been seen as representing the hard left, while the soft left, represented by organisations such as Compass and Tribune, has been the other left.

**Question 0**

Who was called the crazy right?

**Question 1**

What was never used to refer to Trotskyist groups?

**Question 2**

Which newspaper is part of the hard left?

**Question 3**

Who was never described as a crazy leftist?

**Text number 36**

The Labour Party has long been associated with red, which has traditionally been associated with socialism and the labour movement. The 1931 Party Congress passed a motion that the Party Congress adopt the Party's colours, which should be uniform throughout the country, with the colours red and gold. Since the party's foundation, the red flag has been the official symbol of the Labour Party; the flag has been associated with socialism and revolution since the French Revolution of 1789 and the revolutions of 1848. The symbol of social democracy, the red rose, was adopted as the party's symbol in 1986 as part of the creation of a new brand and is now part of the party's logo.

**Question 0**

Which party is associated with blue?

**Question 1**

Which colour is associated with the Conservative Party?

**Question 2**

What is the official symbol of the Conservatives?

**Question 3**

When did the red flag cease to be associated with socialism?

**Question 4**

When was the blue rose adopted as a symbol?

**Text number 37**

The party's decision-making bodies at national level formally include the National Executive Committee (NEC), the Labour Party Conference and the National Policy Forum (NPF), although in practice the parliamentary leadership has the final say on policy. The 2008 Labour Party Conference was the first time that member unions and constituency Labour parties were not allowed to make submissions on topical issues that would have been debated previously. Labour Party conferences now feature more keynote speeches, guest speakers and question time, and specific policy debates are now held in a national political forum.

**Question 0**

What are the party's decision-making bodies at local level?

**Question 1**

Who has the first say in politics?

**Question 2**

When did trade unions first have the right to make representations?

**Question 3**

What now includes fewer keynote speeches?

**Question 4**

Where is politics never discussed?

**Text number 38**

For many years, the Labour Party followed a policy of not allowing Northern Ireland residents to apply for membership, instead supporting the Social Democratic Labour Party (SDLP), which unofficially leads the Labour Party in the House of Commons. Labour's 2003 party conference adopted legal advice that the party could not continue to refuse provincial residents membership, and although the national government has set up a regional constituency party, it has not yet agreed to contest elections there. In December 2015, a meeting of Northern Ireland Labour Party members unanimously agreed to participate in the May 2016 Northern Ireland Assembly elections.

**Question 0**

Which party's policy was that people from Northern Ireland could always apply for membership?

**Question 1**

Which party did the Labour Party refuse to support?

**Question 2**

Which party will officially take the Labour whip in the House of Commons?

**Question 3**

When did the Labour Party Conference refuse legal advice?

**Question 4**

When did the Northern Ireland Labour Party stop participating in elections?

**Text number 39**

Since the Labour Party was founded by the trade unions to represent the interests of working class people, its link with the trade unions has always been a feature of the party. In recent years this link has come under increasing strain, and the RMT was expelled from the party in 2004 for allowing its Scottish branches to affiliate with the left-wing Scottish Socialist Party. Other unions have also faced calls from members to reduce financial support for the party and seek more effective political representation for their views on privatisation, public spending cuts and anti-union laws. Unison and the GMB have both threatened to withdraw funding from constituency MPs, and UNISON's Dave Prentis has warned that the union will no longer write "blank cheques" and is unhappy with "feeding the hand that bites us". Union funding was redesigned in 2013 following the Falkirk candidate selection dispute.

**Question 0**

What was set up to oppose working class interests?

**Question 1**

What is a characteristic of conservatives?

**Question 2**

When did the RMT join the party?

**Question 3**

Who has Unison not threatened to withdraw funding from?

**Question 4**

Which spokesman said the union was happy with Labour?

**Text number 40**

The party was a member of the Labour and Socialist International from 1923 to 1940. Since 1951, the party has been a member of the Socialist International, which was founded thanks to the efforts of the leadership of Clement Attlee. However, in February 2013, the Labour NEC decided to downgrade participation to observer membership status "due to ethical concerns and to develop international cooperation through new networks". Labour was a founding member of the international Progressive Alliance, which was established in partnership with the German Social Democratic Party and other social democratic parties on 22 May 2013.

**Question 0**

Which party did he belong to before 1923?

**Question 1**

What was a member of the Socialist International before 1951?

**Question 2**

When did the Conservative Party downgrade its participation to observer member status?

**Question 3**

Where did the Conservatives belong as founders?

**Question 4**

When was the Progressive Alliance international dissolved?

**Document number 303**

**Text number 0**

Estonia (i/ɛˈstoʊniə/; Estonian Eesti [ˈeːsti]), officially the Republic of Estonia (Estonian: Eesti Vabariik), is a country in the Baltic region of northern Europe. It is bordered on the north by the Gulf of Finland, on the west by the Baltic Sea, on the south by Latvia (343 km), and on the east by Lake Peipsi and Russia (338.6 km). On the other side of the Baltic Sea is Sweden to the west and Finland to the north. The territory of Estonia, consisting of the mainland and 2 222 islands and islets in the Baltic Sea, covers an area of 45 339 square kilometres and is influenced by a humid continental climate.

**Question 0**

What is the official name of Estonia?

**Question 1**

Where is Estonia located in Northern Europe?

**Question 2**

What borders the northern part of Estonia?

**Question 3**

Which body of water borders Estonia to the west?

**Question 4**

Which country borders South Estonia?

**Text number 1**

After centuries of Danish, Swedish and German rule, Estonians began to yearn for independence during the national awakening under the Russian Empire. The Republic of Estonia was established on 24 February 1918, at the end of the First World War. During the Second World War, Estonia was occupied by the Soviet Union in 1940, by Nazi Germany a year later and again in 1944, when the Socialist Soviet Republic of Estonia was established. In 1988, during the Singing Revolution, the Estonian SNTL issued a declaration of Estonian sovereignty in defiance of illegal Soviet rule. Estonia then regained its independence during the Soviet coup d'état on the night of 20 August 1991.

**Question 0**

Who ruled Estonia for most of its history?

**Question 1**

When did Estonia start to hope for freedom?

**Question 2**

Who was in power during the national awakening?

**Question 3**

In what year was the Republic of Estonia founded?

**Question 4**

Which war ended with the birth of Estonia?

**Text number 2**

Estonia is a developed country with a developed economy, a high-income economy and a high standard of living, ranking very high on the Human Development Index and performing favourably on measures of economic freedom, civil liberties, education and freedom of the press (third best country in the world in 2012). Estonia has been one of the fastest growing economies in the European Union and is part of the World Trade Organisation and the Nordic Investment Bank. Estonia is often described as one of the most internet-intensive countries in Europe.

**Question 0**

What characteristics describe Estonia as a developed country?

**Question 1**

Where does Estonia rank well in terms of living standards?

**Question 2**

Which country scores well on economic freedom, civil liberties and education?

**Question 3**

What year was Estonia ranked third in press freedom?

**Question 4**

Which financial institution is linked to Estonia?

**Text number 3**

In the first centuries AD. Political and administrative subdivisions began to emerge in Estonia. Two larger subdivisions emerged: maakunta (Estonian kihelkond) and maa (Estonian maakond). A county was made up of several ancient settlements or villages. Almost all provinces had at least one fortress. The king or other highest administrator-elders led the defence of the local area. During the 13th century, Estonia consisted of the following counties: Revala, Harjumaa, Saaremaa, Hiiumaa, Läänemaa, Alempois, Sakala, Ugandi, Jogentagana, Soopoolitse, Vaiga, Mõhu, Nurmekund, Järvamaa and Virumaa.

**Question 0**

When did political sub-groups start to emerge in Estonia?

**Question 1**

Which sub-region was linked to the province?

**Question 2**

What kind of territorial delimitation was attached to the land?

**Question 3**

What was the structure of most provinces?

**Question 4**

Who led the defence of the region?

**Text number 4**

The Oeselians or Osilians (Estonian: saarlased; singular: saarlane) were a historical subgroup of Estonians who lived in Saaremaa (Danish: Øsel, German: Ösel, Swedish: Ösel), an Estonian island in the Baltic Sea. They were first mentioned as early as the second century BC. They were first mentioned in the first century AD in Ptolemy's Geography III. In the Icelandic sagas of Old Norway and in Heimskringla, Ösel was known as Víkingr frá Esthland (the Estonian Vikings). Henry of Latvia called their sailing ships 'pirate ships' in his Latin chronicle of the early 1300s.

**Question 0**

Which subgroup of Estonians lived in Saaremaa?

**Question 1**

Where is Saaremaa located?

**Question 2**

Where was the first mention of the Oselians?

**Question 3**

Who described Estonian sailing boats as pirate ships?

**Text number 5**

Perhaps the most famous attack by Oeselian pirates took place in 1187, when Finnish pirates from Couronia and Oesel attacked the Swedish town of Sigtuna. Among the victims of this raid was the Swedish Archbishop John. The city remained under occupation for some time, which contributed to its decline as a trading centre in the 13th century and the rise of Uppsala, Visby, Kalmar and Stockholm. The Livonian Chronicle describes the Oeselians as using two types of ships, the piratica and the liburna. The former were warships, the latter mainly merchant ships. The piratica could accommodate about 30 men and had a high bow shaped like a dragon or snake's head and a rectangular sail. The Viking Age treasures from Estonia include mostly silver coins and ingots. The archipelago has the richest Viking finds after Gotland in Sweden. This strongly suggests that Estonia was an important transit country during the Viking Age.

**Question 0**

In what year did the Oeselian pirates make their famous raid?

**Question 1**

Who were the Oeselian pirates attacking?

**Question 2**

Which important person was killed in the raid?

**Question 3**

Which two ships were used by the Oeselian pirates?

**Question 4**

What type of vessel was the liburna?

**Text number 6**

The Oeselian god described by Henry of Latvia was called Tharapita. According to Chronicle legend, Tharapita was born on a wooded mountain in Virimaa (Latin: Vironia), on the mainland of Estonia, from where he flew to Oeseli, in the Saaremaa: "Taara, help!"/"Thor, help!" (Estonian Taara a(v)ita) or "Taara's guardian"/"Thor's guardian" (Taara pidaja) Taara is associated with the Scandinavian god Thor. The story of the flight of Tharapita or Taara from Estonia to Saaremaa has been linked to a great meteoric disaster, estimated to have occurred in 660 ± 85 BC, which formed the Kaali crater in Saaremaa.

**Question 0**

What god did the Oselians worship?

**Question 1**

Who photographed Tharapita?

**Question 2**

Where was Tharapita born in her story?

**Question 3**

Which famous Viking god is associated with Tharapita?

**Question 4**

Which event formed a crater in Saaremaa?

**Text number 7**

The capital of Danish Estonia (Hertugdømmet Estland) was Reval (Tallinn), founded on the site of Lyndanisse after the invasion of 1219. The Danes built the Castrum Danorum fortress on Toompea Hill. The Estonians still call their capital Tallinn, which according to legend comes from the word Taani linna (meaning Danish town or castle). Reval gained the rights of the city of Lübeck (1248) and joined the Hanseatic League. The Danish influence can still be seen in heraldic symbols today. The Danish cross appears on the coat of arms of the city of Tallinn, and the Estonian coat of arms has three lions, similar to the lions on the Danish coat of arms.

**Question 0**

What was the capital of Danish Estonia?

**Question 1**

What was the event that preceded the establishment of the capital?

**Question 2**

Which building was built on Toompea Hill?

**Question 3**

In what year did Reval get the rights to the city of Lyypek?

**Text number 8**

On St George's Night (Jüriöö ülestõus in Estonian), 23 April 1343, the indigenous people of the Duchy of Estonia, the Bishopric of Ösel-Wiek and the Teutonic Knights' State Archipelago attempted to rid Estonia of the Danish and German rulers and landowners who had conquered the country in the 13th century during the Livonian Crusade, and to eradicate the Christian religion of the non-native peoples. After initial success, the revolt ended with the invasion of the Teutonic Knights. In 1346, the King of Denmark sold the Duchy of Estonia to the Teutonic Knights for 19 000 Cologne marks. The transfer of sovereignty from Denmark to the Teutonic Knights took place on 1 November 1346.

**Question 0**

What is the date of St George's Night?

**Question 1**

When did the Estonians try to overthrow the Danish and German rulers?

**Question 2**

Which belief system were the original Estonians trying to eliminate?

**Question 3**

Which event ended the uprising?

**Question 4**

When did the Danish state become self-governing?

**Text number 9**

From 1228, after the Livonian Crusade, until the 1560s, Estonia was part of Terra Mariana, which was established on 2 February 1207 as a principality of the Holy Roman Empire and declared a Holy See by Pope Innocent III in 1215. The southern part of the country was conquered by the Livonian Brothers of the Sword, who joined the Teutonic Order in 1237 and became a branch of the Livonian Order. The Duchy of Estonia was created from the northern parts of the country and was under the direct administration of the King of Denmark from 1219 until 1346, when it was sold to the Teutonic Knights and became part of the Order of the Order. In 1343, the inhabitants of North Estonia and the Saarland revolted against the German administration in the St George's Night Uprising, which was defeated by 1345. The failed rebellion led to the consolidation of the power of the Baltic German minority. For the next centuries, they remained the ruling elite in both urban and rural areas.

**Question 0**

When was Terra Mariana founded?

**Question 1**

Who ruled the south of Estonia?

**Question 2**

In which year did the Livonian brothers join the Teutonic Order?

**Question 3**

In what year did the King of Denmark sell Estonia to the German knighthood?

**Question 4**

Who did Estonia rebel against in 1343?

**Text number 10**

After the decline of the Teutonic Order, following its defeat at the Battle of Grunwald in 1410 and the defeat of the Livonian Order at the Battle of Swientan on 1 September 1435, the Livonian League Treaty was signed on 4 December 1435. The Livonian League ceased to exist during the Livonian War (1558-82). The wars had reduced the population of Estonia from around 250-300 000 before the Livonian War to 120-140 000 in the 1620s. The Grand Duchy of Moscow and the Russian Tsardom also attempted invasions in 1481 and 1558, both of which failed.

**Question 0**

When was the Battle of Grunwald fought?

**Question 1**

What event preceded the decline of the Teutonic Order?

**Question 2**

Who did the Estonians defeat in the battle of Swienta?

**Question 3**

What is the date of the Battle of Swientan?

**Question 4**

When was the Treaty of Livonia signed?

**Text number 11**

The Reformation in Europe officially began in 1517 with Martin Luther (1483-1546) and his 95 theses. The Reformation greatly transformed the Baltic region. Its ideas quickly spread to the Livonian League, and by the 1520s they had spread far and wide. Language, education, religion and politics changed. Church services were now conducted in the vernacular instead of the Latin used previously. During the Livonian War in 1561, North Viro was subjected to Swedish rule. In the 1560s, the two voivodships of what is now South Estonia, the voivodship of Dorpat (Tartu region) and the voivodship of Parnawa (Pärnu region), became an autonomous Livonian duchy in the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth under the joint control of the Polish Crown and the Grand Duchy. In 1629, mainland Viro came under the full Swedish rule. Estonia was administratively divided into the province of Estonia in the north and the province of Livonia in southern Estonia and northern Latvia. This division remained until the early 20th century.

**Question 0**

When did the Reformation begin in Europe?

**Question 1**

Who led the Reformation in Europe?

**Question 2**

What was the year of Martin Luther's death?

**Question 3**

What parts of society did the Reformation change?

**Question 4**

What was the previous language of the church?

**Text number 12**

The abolition of serfdom and access to education for the Estonian-speaking population led to the development of an active Estonian nationalist movement in the 19th century, which took root at the cultural level and led to the emergence of Estonian literature, theatre and professional music, and the formation of an era of Estonian national identity and awakening. The movement's leaders included Johann Voldemar Jannsen, Jakob Hurt and Carl Robert Jakobson.

**Question 0**

Which form of slavery was abolished?

**Question 1**

When did the Estonian nationalist movement start?

**Question 2**

In which period was the development of Estonian national identity linked?

**Question 3**

Who were the leaders of the Age of Awakening?

**Text number 13**

On June 14, with the world's attention focused on the fall of Paris to Nazi Germany the day before, the Soviet military blockade of Estonia took effect, two Soviet bombers downed a Finnish Kaleva passenger plane carrying three diplomatic pouches from the US embassies in Tallinn, Riga and Helsinki en route to Helsinki. On 16 June, the Soviet Union invaded Estonia. The Red Army left its military bases in Estonia on 17 June. Some 90 000 additional troops arrived the following day. In the face of overwhelming Soviet force, the Estonian government surrendered on 17 June 1940 to avoid bloodshed.

**Question 0**

Which French capital was lost to Nazi Germany?

**Question 1**

When did the Soviet Army start blockading Estonia?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the Finnish aircraft attacked by the Soviets?

**Question 3**

Where was Kaleva's destination?

**Text number 14**

Most of the Estonian armed forces surrendered under the orders of the Estonian government, as they considered resistance useless, and were disarmed by the Red Army. Only the Estonian Independent Signal Battalion resisted the units of the Red Army and the communist militia 'People's Self-Defence' in front of Tallinn's XXI High School on 21 June. When the Red Army brought in reinforcements with the support of six armoured fighting vehicles, the battle lasted for several hours until sunset. Finally, the military resistance was ended by negotiations and the Independent Signal Battalion surrendered and disarmed. The Estonian side had two dead Estonian soldiers, Alexei Männikus and Johannes Mandre, and several wounded, while the Soviet side had about ten dead and more wounded.

**Question 0**

Who told the Estonian defence to surrender?

**Question 1**

Who disarmed the Estonian Defence Forces?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the unit that did not surrender?

**Question 3**

When did Estonia's independent battalion meet the Soviet Union?

**Text number 15**

On 6 August 1940, Estonia was annexed to the Soviet Union as the Estonian SSR. The provisions of the Estonian Constitution, which required a referendum on joining a supranational body, were not respected. Instead, accession to the Soviet Union was voted for by those elected in the elections held the previous month. In addition, the Soviet courts sentenced to death those who had not fulfilled their 'political duty' of voting for Estonia's accession to the Soviet Union, in particular those who had not received a stamp on their passports for voting. The repression continued with the mass deportations carried out by the Soviet Union in Estonia on 14 June 1941. Many of the country's political and intellectual leaders were killed or deported to the periphery of the Soviet Union between 1940 and 1941. Thousands of ordinary people were also subjected to repressive measures.

**Question 0**

On what day did the Soviet Union annex Estonia?

**Question 1**

Who incorporated Estonia into the Estonian SSR?

**Question 2**

Which document ignored the rules for joining the super pool?

**Question 3**

What system was used to decide whether to join the Soviet Union?

**Text number 16**

After the German invasion of the Soviet Union on 22 June 1941, the Wehrmacht crossed the southern border of Estonia on 7 July. The Red Army withdrew behind the line between the Pärnu River and the Emajõgi on 12 July. At the end of July, the Germans continued their advance in Estonia in cooperation with the Estonian Forest Brothers. Both German troops and Estonian partisans captured Narva on 17 August and the Estonian capital Tallinn on 28 August. After the Soviets had been driven out of Estonia, German troops disarmed all partisan groups.

**Question 0**

On what day did the Germans invade the Soviet Union?

**Question 1**

When did Werhmacht cross the southern border of Estonia?

**Question 2**

Which waterway did the Red Army retreat behind?

**Question 3**

When did the Red Army retreat to Parnu River?

**Question 4**

When did the Germans invade the Soviet Union?

**Question 5**

When did Werhmacht cross the southern border of Estonia?

**Question 6**

Who helped the Germans invade Estonia?

**Text number 17**

Although at first most Estonians welcomed the Germans as liberators from the Soviet Union and its oppression, and hoped for the restoration of the country's independence, it soon became clear that the Nazis were just another occupier. The Germans used Estonia's resources for their war effort; for the duration of the occupation, Estonia was annexed to the German province of Ostland. The Germans and their collaborators also carried out the Holocaust in Estonia, where they set up a network of concentration camps and murdered thousands of Estonian Jews and Estonian Gypsies, other Estonians, non-Estonian Jews and Soviet prisoners of war.

**Question 0**

What did the majority of Estonians think of the Germans?

**Question 1**

Who ruled Estonia before the Germans?

**Question 2**

What did Estonia hope to get back after the Soviet Union left?

**Question 3**

What did Germany take from Estonia for its war strategy?

**Text number 18**

Some Estonians, who did not want to side directly with the Nazis, joined the Finnish army (which had allied with the Nazis) to fight against the Soviet Union. The Finnish Infantry Regiment 200 (in Estonian: soomepoisid) was formed from Estonian volunteers in Finland. Although many Estonians were recruited into the German armed forces (including the Estonian Waffen-SS), most of them did so only in 1944, when the threat of a new Red Army invasion of Estonia had become imminent. In January 1944, Estonia was again threatened by the Red Army, and the last legal Prime Minister of the Republic of Estonia (according to the Constitution of the Republic of Estonia) made a radio speech in which he asked all able-bodied men born between 1904 and 1923 to register for military service. Following this call, some 38 000 new recruits enlisted, and several thousand Estonians who had joined the Finnish army returned to join the newly formed regional defence forces, whose task was to defend Estonia against the advance of the Soviet Union. It was hoped [who?] that by taking part in such a war Estonia could gain Western support for Estonian independence.

**Question 0**

Who did some Estonians join as an alternative to the Germans?

**Question 1**

With whom was the Finnish army allied?

**Question 2**

Who formed the Finnish Infantry Regiment 200?

**Question 3**

In what year did the majority of Estonians join the Germans after the threat of a new Soviet Union emerged?

**Text number 19**

When the Red Army re-occupied the country, tens of thousands of Estonians (including most of the experts in education, culture, science, politics and society) decided to either retreat with the Germans or flee to Finland or Sweden, from where they sought refuge in other Western countries, often on refugee ships such as the SS Walnut. On 12 January 1949, the Soviet Council of Ministers issued a decree on the "expulsion and deportation" of "all kulaks and their families, bandits and nationalist families" and others from the Baltic countries.

**Question 0**

How many Estonians decided to retreat or flee in anticipation of another Soviet invasion?

**Question 1**

To which countries did most Estonians want to flee?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the refugee boat the Estonians boarded?

**Question 3**

On what day did the Soviet Council of Ministers issue a declaration to eradicate the indigenous Estonians?

**Text number 20**

Half of the deportees died, and the other half were not allowed to return until the early 1960s (years after Stalin's death). The actions of the Soviet forces in 1940-41 and after the occupation triggered a guerrilla war against the Soviet authorities in Estonia, started by the Forest Brothers, composed mainly of Estonian veterans of the German and Finnish armies and some civilians. This conflict continued until the early 1950s. The material damage caused by the World War and the subsequent Soviet era significantly slowed down Estonia's economic growth, resulting in a large wealth gap with neighbouring Finland and Sweden.

**Question 0**

What percentage of Estonians died after the deportation?

**Question 1**

When were the deported Estonians allowed to return?

**Question 2**

What event led to the return of the Estonians home?

**Question 3**

Who waged guerrilla warfare against the Soviets?

**Text number 21**

Militarisation was another aspect of the Soviet state. Much of the country, especially the coastal areas, was closed to all but the Soviet army. Most of the seashore and all sea islands (including Saaremaa and Khibiny) were declared "border zones". Persons who did not actually live there were not allowed to travel there without permission. A notable closed military installation was the town of Paldiski, which was completely closed to the public. The town was home to a Soviet Baltic Fleet submarine base and several large military bases, including a nuclear submarine training centre with a full-scale model nuclear submarine with working nuclear reactors. The Paldiski reactor building was taken over by Estonia in 1994, after the last Russian troops had left the country. Emigration was another consequence of Soviet occupation. Hundreds of thousands of immigrants from the rest of the Soviet Union were transferred to Estonia to support industrialisation and militarisation, increasing the population by around half a million people in 45 years.

**Question 0**

What was the political strategy that allowed the Soviet Union to gain most of Estonia?

**Question 1**

Which sea islands were declared border zones?

**Question 2**

What documents did people need to travel to the border zones?

**Question 3**

What was founded in the city of Paldiski?

**Text number 22**

The United States, the United Kingdom, France, Italy and most other Western countries considered the annexation of Estonia to the Soviet Union illegal. They maintained diplomatic relations with the representatives of the independent Republic of Estonia, never de jure recognised the existence of the Estonian SSR and never recognised Estonia as a legal part of the Soviet Union. Estonia's return to independence became possible when the Soviet Union faced internal governance challenges that loosened its grip on the outside world empire. Initially, between 1987 and 1989, it was partly about economic independence, but as the Soviet Union weakened and it became increasingly apparent that anything less than full independence would not suffice, Estonia began to move towards self-determination.

**Question 0**

What did most Western countries consider to be the Soviet Union's illegal claim?

**Question 1**

What kind of relations did the West pursue with Estonia?

**Question 2**

What institution did the West refuse to recognise?

**Question 3**

In which decade did Estonia's independence begin?

**Text number 23**

In 1989, during the "Singing Revolution", a major demonstration of increased independence, more than two million people formed a human chain across Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia called the Baltic Way. All three countries had similar experiences of occupation and similar aspirations to regain independence. Estonia's declaration of independence was issued on 16 November 1988. Estonia formally declared independence on 20 August 1991 during an attempted Soviet military coup in Moscow, re-establishing the pre-1940 state. The Soviet Union recognised Estonia's independence on 6 September 1991. The first country to diplomatically recognise Estonia's regained independence was Iceland. The last units of the Russian army left on 31 August 1994.

**Question 0**

In what year did the Singing Revolution take place?

**Question 1**

What was the Singing Revolution demonstration trying to fight for?

**Question 2**

How many people created a chain of solidarity that extended to Estonia and other countries?

**Question 3**

What was the name of the human chain?

**Text number 24**

The land border between Estonia and Latvia is 267 kilometres and the border with Russia is 290 kilometres. Between 1920 and 1945, the border between Estonia and Russia, established by the Tartu Peace Treaty in 1920, extended across the Narva River in the north-east and the town of Petseri in the south-east. Stalin annexed this area of about 2 300 square kilometres to Russia at the end of the Second World War. As a result, the borders between Estonia and Russia are still not defined.

**Question 0**

How long is the border between Estonia and Latvia?

**Question 1**

How long is the border between Estonia and Russia?

**Question 2**

Which document established the border between Russia and Estonia?

**Text number 25**

Estonia is located on the eastern shore of the Baltic Sea just across the Gulf of Finland from Finland, on the flat north-western shore of Eastern Europe at 57.3°-59.5° N and 21.5°-28.1° E. The average altitude is only 50 metres above sea level, and the highest peak in the country is the Suur Munamäki in the south-east at 318 metres. It has 3 794 km of coastline and is characterised by numerous bays, straits and inlets. There are an estimated 2 355 islands and islets (including islands in lakes). Two of these are large enough to form a separate province: Saaremaa and Hiiumaa. A small, recent cluster of meteorite craters, the largest of which is called Kaali, is located in Saaremaa.

**Question 0**

Which body of water borders Estonia?

**Question 1**

What is the average height above sea level in Estonia?

**Question 2**

What is the highest mountain in Estonia?

**Question 3**

How tall is the Great Egg Mountain?

**Text number 26**

Estonia is located in the northern part of the temperate zone and in the transition zone between the maritime and continental climate. Estonia has four seasons of almost equal length. Average temperatures range from 16.3°C on the Baltic Sea islands to 18.1°C inland in July, the warmest month, and from -3.5°C to -3.5°C on the Baltic Sea islands to -7.6°C inland in February, the coldest month. The average annual temperature in Estonia is 5.2 °C (41.4 °F). The average annual precipitation between 1961 and 1990 was 535-727 mm (1.5-2.5 in).

**Question 0**

In which part of the temperate zone is Estonia located?

**Question 1**

What is the common feature of the four seasons in Estonia?

**Question 2**

What is the average temperature in the Baltic Islands?

**Question 3**

What is the warmest month in Estonia?

**Text number 27**

Maakond (province) is the largest administrative subdivision. Each county's county government (Maavalitsus) is headed by the county governor (Maavanem), who represents the national government at the regional level. Governors are appointed by the Government of Estonia for a five-year term of office. After Estonia's independence, several changes were made to the boundaries of the counties, the most significant being the formation of Valga County (from parts of Võru, Tartu and Viljandi Counties) and Petseri County (a territory obtained from Russia by the Tartu Peace Treaty in 1920).

**Question 0**

What is the largest administrative region in Estonia?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the Estonian Provincial Government?

**Question 2**

What is the position of the County Governor in Estonia?

**Question 3**

Who represents the national government at local level?

**Text number 28**

Estonia is a parliamentary representative democratic republic where the Prime Minister is the head of government and there is a multi-party system. Estonia has a stable political culture, with power held by two or three long-standing political parties. The situation is similar to that in other northern European countries. Estonia's former Prime Minister Andrus Ansip is also the longest serving Prime Minister in Europe (from 2005 to 2014). Estonia's current Prime Minister is Taavi Rõivas, former Minister of Social Affairs and leader of the Reform Party of Estonia.

**Question 0**

Who is the head of the Estonian government?

**Question 1**

Which political structure supports the Prime Minister?

**Question 2**

With which countries on the continent is Estonia in a similar political situation?

**Question 3**

Who is Europe's longest serving Prime Minister?

**Text number 29**

The Estonian Parliament (Riigikogu), or legislature, is elected for a four-year term by proportional representation. Estonia's political system operates within the framework laid down in the 1992 Constitution. The Estonian Parliament has 101 members and influences the state administration primarily by deciding on state revenue and expenditure (imposing taxes and adopting the budget). At the same time, the Parliament has the right to make statements, declarations and appeals to the Estonian people, to ratify and denounce international agreements with other states and international organisations, and to decide on state loans.

**Question 0**

Which office will be elected by Estonian citizens for a four-year term?

**Question 1**

In what year did the Estonians create a constitutional document for their modern political system?

**Question 2**

How many members are there in the Estonian Parliament?

**Question 3**

What can the Estonian Parliament do about the agreements?

**Text number 30**

The Riigikogu elects and appoints a number of senior state officials, including the President of the Republic. The Riigikogu also appoints the President of the National Court, the Chairman of the Board of the Bank of Estonia, the State Comptroller, the Chancellor of Justice and the Chief of the Defence Forces on a proposal from the President of Estonia. A member of the Riigikogu has the right to demand explanations from the Government of the Republic and its members. This enables the members of the Parliament to monitor the activities of the executive and the above-mentioned senior state officials.

**Question 0**

Who selects Estonia's top civil servants?

**Question 1**

To whom does the government have to explain its actions?

**Question 2**

What can Parliament monitor for abuse of influence?

**Text number 31**

The Government of Estonia (in Estonian, the Government of the Republic), or the executive, is the Prime Minister of Estonia, appointed by the President and approved by Parliament. The Government exercises executive power in accordance with the Constitution and the laws of the Republic of Estonia, and consists of twelve ministers, including the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister also has the right to appoint other ministers and to assign them a subject to be dealt with. These are ministers without portfolio - they have no ministry to control.

**Question 0**

Who will set up the Estonian executive?

**Question 1**

Who has to approve the Estonian government after it has been appointed by the President?

**Question 2**

How many ministers are in the government?

**Question 3**

Who has the power to appoint other ministers?

**Text number 32**

The Prime Minister is entitled to appoint up to three such ministers, as the maximum number of ministers in a government is fifteen. It is also known as the Cabinet. The Cabinet implements the country's domestic and foreign policies, which are shaped by Parliament; it directs and coordinates the work of the government institutions and bears full responsibility for everything that happens in the executive branch. The Cabinet, headed by the Prime Minister, therefore represents the political leadership of the country and takes decisions on behalf of the executive as a whole.

**Question 0**

How many ministers can the Prime Minister appoint?

**Question 1**

What is another name for the ministerial management body?

**Question 2**

What strategy is the Cabinet implementing?

**Question 3**

What is the main responsibility of the cabinet?

**Text number 33**

Estonia has been working to develop e-government and e-governance. Estonia uses internet voting in elections. The first internet voting took place in the 2005 local elections, and the first parliamentary elections were held in 2007, with 30 275 people voting online. Voters have the possibility to cancel their electronic vote in traditional elections if they wish. In 2009, Reporters Without Borders ranked Estonia sixth out of 175 countries in its eighth global press freedom index. In the first State of World Liberty Index report, Estonia ranked first out of 159 countries.

**Question 0**

What digital technologies has Estonia developed?

**Question 1**

What year was the first Estonian local elections voted online?

**Question 2**

What year was the first Estonian parliamentary election voted online?

**Question 3**

How many Estonians used internet voting in 2007?

**Text number 34**

According to the Estonian Constitution (Põhiseadus in Estonian), the supreme power of the state belongs to the people. The people exercise supreme power through the citizens who are entitled to vote in elections to Parliament. The highest judicial power is vested in the Supreme Court, the Riigikohus, which consists of nineteen judges. The Parliament appoints the Supreme Court Judge for a nine-year term on a proposal from the President. The official head of state is the President of Estonia, who approves the laws passed by the Riigikogu and also has the power to recall them and propose new laws.

**Question 0**

Which document proclaims the supreme power of the people?

**Question 1**

Who has supreme jurisdiction in Estonia?

**Question 2**

How many judges are there in the Supreme Court of Estonia?

**Question 3**

How many years does the Chief Judge serve?

**Text number 35**

Estonia has been a member of the League of Nations since 22 September 1921, of the United Nations since 17 September 1991, of NATO since 29 March 2004 and of the European Union since 1 May 2004. Estonia is also a member of the Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the Council of Baltic Sea States (CBSS) and the Nordic Investment Bank (NIB). As a participating State in the OSCE, Estonia's international commitments are monitored by the US Helsinki Commission. Estonia is also a signatory to the Kyoto Protocol.

**Question 0**

On what day did Estonia join the League of Nations?

**Question 1**

On what day did Estonia join the United Nations?

**Question 2**

When did Estonia join NATO?

**Question 3**

When did Estonia join the European Union?

**Text number 36**

Since the restoration of its independence, Estonia has pursued a foreign policy of close cooperation with its Western European partners. The two main political objectives have been accession to NATO in March 2004 and to the European Union in May 2004. Estonia's international orientation towards the West has been accompanied by a general deterioration of relations with Russia, most recently illustrated by the protest against the controversial relocation of the World War II Bronze Soldier Monument to Tallinn.

**Question 0**

What kind of foreign policy has Estonia pursued since independence?

**Question 1**

What were the main foreign policy priorities?

**Question 2**

What has been the trend in Estonia's cooperation with Western powers?

**Text number 37**

Since the early 1990s, Estonia has been actively involved in trilateral Baltic cooperation with Latvia and Lithuania, and in Nordic-Baltic cooperation with the Nordic countries. The Baltic Council is a joint forum of the interparliamentary Baltic Assembly (BA) and the intergovernmental Baltic Council of Ministers (BCM). The Nordic-Baltic Eight (NB-8) is a joint body of the governments of Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Iceland, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Sweden and Estonia. Nordic-Baltic Six (NB-6), which includes the Nordic and Baltic countries that are members of the European Union, is the framework for meetings on EU-related issues. Parliamentary cooperation between the Baltic Assembly and the Nordic Council began in 1989. In addition to the annual summits, meetings are held at all possible levels: speakers, bureaux, committees and individual members. The Nordic Council of Ministers has an office in Tallinn, a subsidiary in Tartu and information offices in Narva, Valga and Pärnu. Joint Nordic-Baltic projects include the Nordplus education programme and mobility programmes for business, industry and public administration.

**Question 0**

Which Baltic countries have cooperated with Estonia since the early 1990s?

**Question 1**

What is the combined group of the interparliamentary Baltic Assembly and the intergovernmental Baltic Council of Ministers?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the group shared by Estonia with Denmark and seven other countries?

**Question 3**

In what year was parliamentary cooperation between the Baltic Parliamentary Assembly and the Nordic Council launched?

**Text number 38**

In Estonia's post-independence reorientation, it has been important to strengthen relations with the Nordic countries, especially Finland and Sweden. Indeed, Estonians consider themselves more Nordic than Baltic, based on their historical ties with Sweden, Denmark and especially Finland. In December 1999, Toomas Hendrik Ilves, then Estonian Foreign Minister (and since 2006 President of Estonia), gave a speech entitled "Estonia as a Nordic country" at the Swedish Institute of International Affairs. In 2003, an exhibition "Estonia: Estonia with a Twist" was also organised at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

**Question 0**

What has been a major factor in the restoration of Estonia since independence?

**Question 1**

When did Toomas Hendrik Ilves make his speech?

**Question 2**

Who gave the speech "Estonia as a Nordic country"?

**Question 3**

In what year did the Ministry of Foreign Affairs organise an exhibition on Estonia's Nordic ties?

**Text number 39**

In 2005, Estonia joined the European Union's Nordic Battle Group. It has also shown continued interest in joining the Nordic Council. In 1992, Russia accounted for 92% of Estonia's foreign trade, but today there is a high degree of economic interdependence between Estonia and its Nordic neighbours: three quarters of Estonia's foreign investment comes from the Nordic countries (mainly Finland and Sweden), to which Estonia sends 42% of its exports (6.5% to Russia, 8.8% to Latvia and 4.7% to Lithuania). On the other hand, Estonia's political system, fixed income tax rate and welfare state model distinguish it from the Nordic countries and their Nordic model, as well as from many other European countries.

**Question 0**

When did Estonia join the European Union's Nordic Battle Group?

**Question 1**

Which institution did Estonia still want to join?

**Question 2**

What percentage of Estonia's foreign trade was controlled by Russia in 1992?

**Question 3**

What percentage of Estonia's exports go to the Nordic countries?

**Text number 40**

The Estonian army is based on the Estonian Defence Forces (Estonian: Kaitsevägi), the name for the republic's unified armed forces, which include the Land Forces (Army), the Navy (Navy), the Air Force (Air Force) and the paramilitary National Guard (Defence League). Estonia's national defence policy aims to guarantee the independence and sovereignty of the state, the integrity of the land, territorial waters and airspace, and the preservation of the constitutional order. The current strategic objectives are to defend the country's interests, to develop the armed forces for interoperability with other NATO and EU member states and to participate in NATO operations.

**Question 0**

Which name describes the combined entity of the entire Estonian army?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the Estonian army?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the Estonian Navy?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the Estonian Air Force?

**Text number 41**

Estonia cooperates with Latvia and Lithuania in several trilateral Baltic defence cooperation initiatives, such as the Baltic Battalion (BALTBAT), the Baltic Fleet Squadron (BALTRON), the Baltic Air Traffic Control Network (BALTNET) and joint military schools, such as the Baltic Defence Academy in Tartu. Future cooperation will include the sharing of national infrastructures for training purposes and the specialisation of training areas (BALTTRAIN), as well as the joint formation of battalion-size formations for NATO Rapid Reaction Forces. In January 2011, the Baltic States were invited to join NORDEFCO, the Nordic Defence Framework.

**Question 0**

Which countries are helping Estonia in trilateral defence strategies?

**Question 1**

Which common military academy does Estonia share with the Baltic countries?

**Question 2**

Where is the Baltic Defence College located?

**Question 3**

When were the Baltic countries invited to join NORDEFCO?

**Text number 42**

The Ministry of Defence and the Armed Forces have been working for some years on the configuration of cyber warfare and defence. In 2007, Estonia's military doctrine on e-military governance was formally introduced, following the massive cyber-attacks that hit the country in 2007. The proposed objective of e-military is to secure Estonia's vital infrastructure and e-infrastructure. The main cyber warfare tool is the Computer Emergency Response Team of Estonia (CERT), established in 2006. The organisation works on local network security issues.

**Question 0**

Who have worked together to protect against cyber warfare?

**Question 1**

In what year was the e-Military Declaration introduced?

**Question 2**

What event in 2007 led to the need for electronic military action?

**Question 3**

When was the Estonian Computer Emergency Response Team established?

**Text number 43**

As a member of the European Union, Estonia is a high-income economy, according to the World Bank. Its GDP (purchasing power parity) per capita, a good indicator of prosperity, was $28,781 in 2015, according to the IMF, on a par with the Slovak Republic and Lithuania, but lower than other long-term EU members such as Italy and Spain. The country ranks 8th in the 2015 Economic Freedom Index and is the fourth freest economy in Europe. Due to its rapid growth, Estonia has often been described as the Baltic Tiger alongside Lithuania and Latvia. Estonia adopted the euro on 1 January 2011, becoming the 17th member state of the euro area.

**Question 0**

Which institution considers the Estonian economy a high-income economy?

**Question 1**

What was Estonia's GDP in 2015?

**Question 2**

Which countries have the same level of GDP as Estonia?

**Question 3**

Where does Estonia rank in the 2015 Economic Freedom Index?

**Text number 44**

Estonia produces around 75% of the electricity it uses. In 2011, about 85% of it was produced from locally mined oil shale. Alternative energy sources such as wood, peat and biomass account for about 9% of primary energy production. Renewable wind power accounted for about 6% of total consumption in 2009. Estonia imports oil products from Western Europe and Russia. Oil shale energy, telecommunications, textiles, chemical products, banking, services, food and fisheries, timber, shipbuilding, electronics and transport are key sectors of the economy. The ice-free port of Muuga, near Tallinn, is a modern facility with good transhipment facilities, a high-capacity grain elevator, a refrigerated/freezing warehouse and new oil tanker unloading facilities[from Estonia] The railway serves as a gateway between the West, Russia and other points to the East[from Estonia].

**Question 0**

How much of the electricity consumed is produced in Estonia?

**Question 1**

What percentage of electricity was produced from local oil shale in 2011?

**Question 2**

Which alternative energy sources account for 9% of energy production?

**Question 3**

What percentage of electricity was produced from renewable energy sources in 2009?

**Text number 45**

As a result of the global economic downturn that started in 2007, Estonia's GDP fell by 1.4% in the second quarter of 2008, by more than 3% in the third quarter of 2008 and by more than 9% in the fourth quarter of 2008. The Estonian government adopted a negative supplementary budget, which was approved by the Riigikogu. Budget revenues were reduced by SEK 6.1 billion and expenditure by SEK 3.2 billion in 2008. In 2010, the economic situation stabilised and strong export-led growth started. In the fourth quarter of 2010, Estonia's industrial production grew by 23% year-on-year. The country has been experiencing economic growth ever since.

**Question 0**

When did the global economic downturn start?

**Question 1**

What developments led to the fall in Estonia's GDP?

**Question 2**

Who approved the negative supplementary budget prepared by the Estonian government?

**Question 3**

In which year did Estonia start its economic boom based on strong exports?

**Text number 46**

Since regaining independence, Estonia has seen itself as a gateway between East and West and has aggressively pursued economic reforms and integration with the West. Estonia's market reforms have made it one of the economic leaders of the former COMECON region. In 1994, based on Milton Friedman's economic theories, Estonia was one of the first countries to introduce a flat tax at a uniform rate of 26% regardless of personal income. In January 2005, the personal income tax rate was reduced to 24%. In January 2006, the tax rate was reduced again to 23%. In January 2008, the personal income tax rate was reduced to 21%. The Estonian government finalised the design of the Estonian euro coins at the end of 2004 and introduced the euro on 1 January 2011, later than planned due to continued high inflation. Estonia levies a land value tax to finance local municipalities. This is a state-level tax, but 100% of the revenue is used to finance local councils. The local council sets the tax rate within a range of 0.1% to 2.5%. It is one of the main sources of funding for local authorities. The land value tax is levied only on the value of the land and does not take into account improvements and buildings. There are very few exemptions from the land value tax and even public institutions are subject to the tax. The tax has contributed to the high share of owner-occupied housing in Estonia (~90%) compared to 67.4% in the US.

**Question 0**

How does Estonia see itself after independence?

**Question 1**

In which year did Estonia introduce a flat tax?

**Question 2**

Who lobbied for a flat tax?

**Question 3**

What was the tax rate applied to personal income?

**Text number 47**

In 1999, Estonia experienced its worst economic year since independence in 1991, largely due to the effects of the 1998 Russian financial crisis [Estonia joined the WTO in November 1999]. With the help of the European Union, the World Bank and the Nordic Investment Bank, Estonia completed most of its preparations for EU membership by the end of 2002 and now has one of the strongest economies of the new EU member states.Estonia joined the OECD in 2010.

**Question 0**

What was Estonia's worst year economically since independence?

**Question 1**

In which year did Estonia regain its independence?

**Question 2**

Which event contributed significantly to the economic downturn in 1999?

**Question 3**

When did Estonia join the WTO?

**Text number 48**

Estonia is a country dependent on energy and energy production. In recent years, many local and foreign companies have invested in renewable energy sources. The importance of wind power has been steadily increasing in Estonia, and currently the total amount of energy produced by wind power is almost 60 MW, while at the same time projects worth about 399 MW are currently under development and more than 2,800 MW are proposed in the Lake Peipus region and the coastal areas of Khibiny.

**Question 0**

For which missing resource is Estonia dependent on other countries?

**Question 1**

What kind of energy production have many companies invested in in recent years?

**Question 2**

Which energy source has increased in Estonia?

**Question 3**

What is the total amount of energy produced by wind power?

**Text number 49**

Estonia has been a market economy since the late 1990s and has one of the highest per capita incomes in Eastern Europe. Estonia's proximity to the Scandinavian market, its location between East and West, its competitive cost structure and its highly skilled labour force have been its main comparative advantages in the early 2000s (decade). As the largest city, Tallinn has become a financial centre and the Tallinn Stock Exchange recently joined the OMX. The current government has pursued a tight fiscal policy, resulting in a balanced budget and low public debt.

**Question 0**

Which region has one of the highest per capita income levels in Estonia?

**Question 1**

Which commercial area's proximity gives Estonia a competitive advantage?

**Question 2**

What is the most important feature of Estonian employees?

**Question 3**

What is the largest city in Estonia?

**Text number 50**

In 2007, however, a large current account deficit and rising inflation weighed on Estonia's currency, which was pegged to the euro, and highlighted the need for growth in export-based industries. Estonia exports mainly machinery and equipment, wood and paper, textiles, food, furniture, metals and chemical products. In addition, Estonia exports 1.562 billion kilowatt hours of electricity annually. At the same time, Estonia imports machinery and equipment, chemical products, textiles, foodstuffs and transport equipment. Estonia imports 200 million kilowatt hours of electricity annually.

**Question 0**

When did a huge deficit and rising inflation put pressure on the Estonian currency?

**Question 1**

What trade sector did Estonia need to expand?

**Question 2**

How much electricity does Estonia import each year?

**Question 3**

How much electricity does Estonia export each year?

**Text number 51**

Between 2007-2013, Estonia will receive 53.3 billion kroons (€3.4 billion) from the European Union's various Structural Funds in direct grants, the largest ever foreign investment in Estonia. Most of the EU financial support will be invested in the following sectors: energy, entrepreneurship, administrative capacity, education, information society, environmental protection, regional and local development, research and development, health and welfare, transport and labour market.

**Question 0**

How much money did Estonia receive from the European Union Structural Funds in 2007-2013?

**Question 1**

In which year did the European Union's Structural Funds start investing?

**Question 2**

In which year did the European Union's Structural Funds investments end?

**Text number 52**

Between 1945 and 1989, the proportion of ethnic Estonians in the population living within Estonia's present borders fell to 61%, mainly due to the Soviet programme to encourage mass emigration of urban industrial workers from Russia, Ukraine and Belarus, as well as to wartime emigration and Joseph Stalin's mass deportations and executions.By 1989, minorities made up more than a third of the population, as the number of non-Estonians had almost quintupled.

**Question 0**

During which period did the number of ethnic Estonians decrease by 61%?

**Question 1**

What trend caused the decline in the number of ethnic Estonians?

**Question 2**

Who ordered the mass deportations and executions?

**Question 3**

In what year did minorities make up more than a third of Estonia?

**Text number 53**

In the late 1980s, Estonians experienced demographic change as a national disaster. This was the result of an immigration policy, which was an integral part of the Soviet nationalisation programme, aimed at the Russification of Estonia: administrative and military immigration of non-Estonians from the Soviet Union and the deportation of Estonians to the Soviet Union. In the decade following the restoration of independence, large-scale emigration of ethnic Russians and the abolition of Russian military bases in 1994 led to an increase in the proportion of ethnic Estonians in Estonia from 61% to 69% in 2006.

**Question 0**

How did Estonians react to the demographic change of less ethnic Estonians?

**Question 1**

What Russian institutions were abolished in the decade following Estonia's independence?

**Question 2**

What percentage of Estonians were ethnic in 2006?

**Text number 54**

Modern Estonia is a fairly ethnically heterogeneous country, but this heterogeneity does not apply to a large part of the country, as the non-Estonian population is concentrated in two Estonian provinces. Of Estonia's 15 provinces, 13 are more than 80% ethnically Estonian, the most homogeneous being Hiiumaa, where 98.4% of the population is Estonian. However, in the counties of Harju (including the capital Tallinn) and Ida-Viru, ethnic Estonians make up 60% and 20% of the population respectively. Russians account for 25.6% of the total population, but 36% in Harju County and 70% in Ida-Viru County.

**Question 0**

How many Estonian provinces have more than 80% Estonian inhabitants?

**Question 1**

How many counties are there in Estonia?

**Question 2**

Which Estonian province is the most united?

**Question 3**

What percentage of the population of Hiiumaa is Estonian?

**Question 4**

What figure represents the percentage of Russian Estonians?

**Text number 55**

The Estonian Cultural Autonomy Act of 1925 was unique in Europe at the time. Cultural autonomy could be granted to minorities of more than 3 000 people with long-standing ties to the Republic of Estonia. Before the Soviet occupation, German and Jewish minorities managed to elect a cultural council. The law on cultural autonomy for national minorities was reinstated in 1993. Historically, large parts of Estonia's north-western coast and islands have been inhabited by ethnically indigenous Rannarootslased (coastal Swedes).

**Question 0**

In what year was the Estonian Cultural Autonomy Act adopted?

**Question 1**

Which rule, unique in Europe, was created by Estonia in 1925?

**Question 2**

How many minorities were granted cultural autonomy?

**Question 3**

Which minority groups could elect a cultural council before the Soviet occupation?

**Text number 56**

In a 2008 report by the United Nations Human Rights Council, Estonia's description of its citizenship policy as "discriminatory" was considered "highly credible". According to surveys, only 5% of the Russian community has considered returning to Russia in the near future. Estonian Russians have developed their own identity - more than half of the respondents recognised that Estonian Russians are clearly different from Russian Russians. Compared to the 2000 survey, Russians are much more positive about the future.

**Question 0**

In which document was Estonian citizenship policy described as "discriminatory"?

**Question 1**

What percentage of Estonian Russians have thought about returning to Russia?

**Question 2**

How many Estonian-Russians consider themselves different from Russians?

**Text number 57**

The Estonian Constitution guarantees freedom of religion, the separation of church and state and the right of the individual to freedom of religion and belief. According to the Dentsu Communication Institute Inc, Estonia is one of the least religious countries in the world, with 75.7% of the population claiming to be irreligious. A 2005 Eurobarometer survey found that only 16% of Estonians profess to believe in a god, the lowest level of belief of any country surveyed (EU survey). According to the Lutheran World Federation, the historic Lutheran denomination still has a strong presence, with 180 000 registered members.

**Question 0**

What guarantees freedom of religion for Estonian citizens?

**Question 1**

The Estonian Constitution declares the division of society into which parts of society?

**Question 2**

What privacy rights do citizens have?

**Question 3**

What percentage of Estonians do not profess a religion?

**Text number 58**

Another large group, the inhabitants, follow Eastern Orthodox Christianity, which is practised mainly by a Russian minority, and the Russian Orthodox Church is the second largest denomination with 150 000 members. The Estonian Apostolic Orthodox Church, which is under the Greek Orthodox Ecumenical Patriarchate, is the second church with 20 000 members. Thus, the number of adherents of Lutheranism and Orthodoxy, regardless of nationality or ethnic origin, is roughly equal. See the table below. Catholics have a Latin Apostolic administration in Estonia.

**Question 0**

What is the largest group that believes in Eastern Orthodox Christianity?

**Question 1**

Which religious group is the second largest with 150 000 members?

**Question 2**

What religious group do Estonian Catholics represent?

**Text number 59**

Although Estonian and Germanic languages have very different origins, there are many similar words in languages such as Estonian and German. This is mainly because Estonian has borrowed almost a third of its vocabulary from Germanic languages, mainly from Low German (Middle Low German) and High German (including Standard German) under Germanic rule. The proportion of Low German and High German loanwords can be estimated at 22-25%, of which Low German accounts for about 15%.

**Question 0**

With which language does Estonian share similar words?

**Question 1**

How much of the vocabulary did Estonia borrow from Germany?

**Question 2**

Which standard language did Estonia adopt under German rule?

**Question 3**

How much of the Estonian language contains alphabetic words?

**Text number 60**

Academic higher education in Estonia is divided into three levels: bachelor's, master's and doctoral. In some specialisations (basic studies in medicine, veterinary medicine, pharmacy, dentistry, architectural engineering and classroom teacher training), the bachelor's and master's levels are combined into a single entity. Estonian public universities have considerably more autonomy than applied universities. In addition to organising the academic life of universities, they can draw up new curricula, set admission criteria, approve the budget, adopt a development plan, elect a rector and take limited decisions on property matters. Estonia has a reasonable number of public and private universities. The largest public universities are the University of Tartu, Tallinn University of Technology, Tallinn University, Estonian University of Life Sciences and Estonian Academy of Arts; the largest private university is Estonian Business School.

**Question 0**

What are the three levels of higher education in Estonia?

**Question 1**

In which fields of medicine have the bachelor's and master's degrees been combined into a single unit?

**Question 2**

What is there more of in Estonia's public universities than in higher education?

**Question 3**

What is the largest private university in Estonia?

**Text number 61**

The Estonian Academy of Sciences is the national science academy. The National Institute of Chemical Physics and Biophysics (NICPB; KBFI in Estonian) is the strongest public non-profit research institute for basic and applied research. The first computer centres were established in the late 1950s in Tartu and Tallinn. Estonian experts contributed to the development of software engineering standards for Soviet ministries in the 1980s. In 2011[update] Estonia spent about 2.38% of its GDP on research and development, compared to an EU average of about 2.0%.

**Question 0**

What is the most important scientific institution in Estonia?

**Question 1**

What is the strongest research institution that carries out basic and applied research?

**Question 2**

In which decade were the first computer centres established in Estonia?

**Question 3**

In which cities were the first computer centres located?

**Text number 62**

Today, Estonian society promotes freedom and liberalism, and citizens are committed to the ideals of limited government, which prevents centralised power and corruption. The Protestant work ethic remains an important cultural foundation, and free education is a highly valued institution. Like the dominant culture of the other Nordic countries, Estonian culture can be seen to be built on ascetic environmental conditions and traditional livelihoods, a relatively widespread legacy of equality for practical reasons (see the right of everyone to vote and universal suffrage), and ideals of closeness to nature and self-sufficiency (see the summer cottage).

**Question 0**

What virtues does modern Estonian society promote?

**Question 1**

What is the popular size and powers of government in Estonia?

**Question 2**

What is a valued part of Estonian society?

**Question 3**

What is Estonia's environmental ideal?

**Text number 63**

The Estonian Academy of Arts (EKA) offers higher education in art, design, architecture, media, art history and conservation, while the Viljandi Culture Academy at the University of Tartu aims to popularise indigenous culture through curricula such as indigenous architecture, indigenous blacksmithing, indigenous textile design, traditional crafts and music, jazz and church music. In 2010, Estonia had 245 museums with a combined collection of over 10 million objects.

**Question 0**

Which institute offers training in art, design and media?

**Question 1**

Which institute promotes awareness of indigenous culture?

**Question 2**

What areas does the Viljandi Cultural Academy emphasise?

**Question 3**

How many Estonian museums were there in 2010?

**Text number 64**

The tradition of the Estonian Song Festival (Laulupidu) began at the height of Estonia's national awakening in 1869. Today it is one of the largest amateur choral events in the world. In 2004, around 100 000 people attended the Song Festival. Since 1928, the event has been held at the Tallinn Song Festival grounds (Lauluväljak) every five years in July. The last festival took place in July 2014. In addition, every four or five years there is also a Youth Song Festival, the last of which took place in 2011, with the next one scheduled for 2017.

**Question 0**

What name describes the Estonian Song Festival?

**Question 1**

In what year did the Song Festival tradition begin?

**Question 2**

How many people celebrated the Song Festival in 2004?

**Question 3**

Where is the Song Festival usually held?

**Question 4**

When will Laulupidu perform?

**Text number 65**

Estonia won the Eurovision Song Contest in 2001 with the song "Everybody", performed by Tanel Padar and Dave Benton. In 2002, Estonia hosted the contest. Maarja-Liis Ilus has competed for Estonia on two occasions (1996 and 1997), while Eda-Ines Etti, Koit Toome and Evelin Samuel are partly to thank for the Eurovision Song Contest. Lenna Kuurmaa is a very popular singer in Europe[citation needed] with her band Vanilla Ninja. Urban Symphony's song "Rändajad" was the first song written in Estonian to chart in the UK, Belgium and Switzerland.

**Question 0**

What year did Estonia win the Eurovision Song Contest?

**Question 1**

Who performed the song "Everybody"?

**Question 2**

What year will Estonia host the Eurovision Song Contest?

**Question 3**

Which performer has represented Estonia twice?

**Question 4**

What was the first Estonian song to enter the European charts?

**Text number 66**

Estonian literature refers to literature written in Estonian (about 1 million speakers). Estonia was ruled by Germany, Sweden and Russia from the 13th century until 1918, following the Northern Crusades, which meant that few early literary works were written in Estonian. The earliest written records of Estonian date from the 13th century. The Chronicle of Henrik Livoniae, in Originates Livoniae, contains Estonian place names, words and fragments of sentences. The Liber Census Daniae (1241) contains Estonian place names and surnames.

**Question 0**

What was the event that preceded the domination of Estonia by the various European powers?

**Question 1**

Which three countries occupied Estonia until 1918?

**Question 2**

From which period do the oldest Estonian literary works date?

**Question 3**

Which document from 1241 contains the names of places and families?

**Text number 67**

Oskar Luts was the most important prose writer in early Estonian literature and is still widely read today, especially his lyrical school novel Kevade (Spring). Anton Hansen Tammsaari's social epic and psychological-realist pentalogy Truth and Justice depicted the development of Estonian society from a peasant community to an independent nation. In modern times, Jaan Kross and Jaan Kaplinski are among Estonia's best-known and most translated authors. Among the most popular writers of the late 20th and early 21st centuries are Tõnu Õnnepalu and Andrus Kivirähk, who use elements of Estonian folklore and mythology and twist them into absurd and grotesque.

**Question 0**

Who was the most famous prose writer in early Estonian history?

**Question 1**

What is the title of a lyrical novel by Oskar Luts?

**Question 2**

What is the title of a book written by Anton Hansen Tammsaari?

**Question 3**

Who wrote the book detailing Estonia's rise from peasantry to independence?

**Text number 68**

Estonia's architectural history mainly reflects its modern development in northern Europe. Of particular note is the architectural complex of Tallinn's medieval Old Town, which is on the UNESCO World Heritage List. There are also a number of unique hill forts dating from the pre-Christian period, more or less preserved, a large number of medieval castles and churches still intact, and the countryside is still shaped by a large number of manors dating from earlier centuries.

**Question 0**

Which medieval city is on the UNESCO World Heritage List?

**Question 1**

When were the remaining hill forts in Estonia built?

**Question 2**

What institutional structures remain from the Middle Ages?

**Text number 69**

Historically, Estonian cuisine has been heavily influenced by the seasons and simple peasant cooking, which today is influenced by many countries. Today it includes many typical international dishes. The most typical Estonian dishes are black bread, pork, potatoes and dairy products. Traditionally, in summer and spring, Estonians like to eat everything fresh - berries, herbs, vegetables and anything else that comes directly from the garden. Hunting and fishing have also been very common, although nowadays hunting and fishing are mainly practised as hobbies. It is also very popular nowadays to barbecue outside in the summer.

**Question 0**

What factors have influenced Estonian food for most of their history?

**Question 1**

What are the most common foods in Estonia?

**Question 2**

What fresh produce do Estonians traditionally enjoy in summer and spring?

**Question 3**

What is food gathering considered a hobby in contemporary Estonian culture today?

**Text number 70**

Sport plays an important role in Estonian culture. After declaring independence from Russia in 1918, Estonia competed for the first time as a nation in the 1920 Summer Olympics, although the National Olympic Committee was not established until 1923. Estonian athletes participated in the Olympics until the country was annexed to the Soviet Union in 1940. The sailing regatta of the 1980 Summer Olympics was held in the capital Tallinn. Since the restoration of independence in 1991, Estonia has participated in every Olympic Games. Estonia has won the most medals in athletics, weightlifting, wrestling and cross-country skiing. Estonia has done very well at the Olympics, considering the country's small population. Estonia's best results were 13th place in the medal table at the 1936 Summer Olympics and 12th place at the 2006 Winter Olympics.

**Question 0**

What kind of physical activity plays an important role in Estonian society?

**Question 1**

In what year did Estonia declare independence from Russia?

**Question 2**

In which sport did Estonia compete for the first time as a nation?

**Question 3**

In what year was Estonia annexed to Russia?

**Question 4**

In which city was the 1980 Summer Olympics sailing regatta held?

**Text number 71**

Basketball is also a major sport in Estonia. The Estonian national basketball team previously participated in the 1936 Summer Olympics and appeared in EuroBasket four times. The Estonian national team has also qualified for EuroBasket 2015, which will be held in Ukraine. BC Kalev/Cramo, who are participating in the EuroCup, are the latest winners of the Basketball Champions League after becoming the league champions for the sixth time. Tartu Ülikool/Rock is the second strongest Estonian basketball club in the EuroChallenge, having previously won the Basketball Champions League 22 times. Six Estonian basketball clubs are participating in the Baltic Basketball League.

**Question 0**

In which year did the Estonian basketball team participate in the Summer Olympics for the first time?

**Question 1**

How many times has Estonia participated in the EuroBasket tournament?

**Question 2**

Which Estonian football club is competing in the EuroCup?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the second best basketball club in Estonia?

**Question 4**

How many Estonian teams are there in the Baltic Basketball League?

**Document number 304**

**Text number 0**

Alaska (i/əˈlæskə/) is a US state located in the northwesternmost part of the United States. The Canadian territories of British Columbia and the Yukon border the state to the east, while Russia shares a maritime border with the state to the west across the Bering Strait. To the north are the Chukchi and Beaufort Seas, which are the southern parts of the Arctic Ocean. To the south and southwest is the Pacific Ocean. Alaska is the largest US state by area, the third least populated and the least populated of the 50 US states. About half of Alaska's population (the Census Bureau estimates a total of 738,432 in 2015) lives in the Anchorage metropolitan area. Alaska's economy is dominated by the fishing, natural gas and oil industries, which are abundant in Alaska. Military bases and tourism are also a significant part of the economy.

**Question 0**

How many Alaskans live in the Anchorage area?

**Question 1**

What is the total population of Alaska according to the 2015 Census?

**Question 2**

Which industries are most prevalent in the Alaska economy?

**Question 3**

Where does Alaska's population stand compared to other US states?

**Question 4**

How does Alaska compare in size to other US states?

**Question 5**

How many Alaskans die in the Anchorage area?

**Question 6**

What is the total population of Alaska according to the 2014 Census?

**Question 7**

Which industries are the least prevalent in the Alaska economy?

**Question 8**

Where does Alaska's population stand compared to other UN states?

**Question 9**

How does Alaska compare in size to other UN states?

**Text number 1**

Alaska is the northernmost and westernmost state in the United States, and has the easternmost longitude in the United States, as the Aleutian Islands extend into the eastern hemisphere. Alaska is the only US state on the North American continent that is not contiguous; about 800 kilometres (500 miles) of British Columbia (Canada) separate Alaska from Washington. It is technically part of the continental United States, but is sometimes not counted in colloquial language; Alaska is not part of the unified United States, often referred to as the "Lower 48". The capital, Juneau, is located on the North American mainland, but is not connected by road to the rest of the North American highway system.

**Question 0**

Why are adjacent states sometimes called?

**Question 1**

What is the capital of Alaska?

**Question 2**

How many kilometres are there between Alaska and Washington State?

**Question 3**

Which group of islands stretches across the Eastern Hemisphere?

**Question 4**

What are adjacent states always called?

**Question 5**

Why are adjacent states sometimes not called?

**Question 6**

What is not the capital of Alaska?

**Question 7**

How many kilometres is it between Alaska and Washington DC?

**Question 8**

Which group of islands stops before the Eastern Hemisphere?

**Text number 2**

This region of Alaska is also known as the Panhandle or Inside Passage, and is the closest to the rest of the United States. In the years following the Alaska Purchase, most of the non-Native settlement occurred here. Alaska is dominated by the Alexander Archipelago and the Tongass National Forest, the largest national forest in the United States. The state capital Juneau, the former capital Sitka and Ketchikan, once Alaska's largest city, are located in the region. The Alaska Seaway is a vital land transportation link throughout the region, with only three communities (Haines, Hyder and Skagway) having direct access to the North American continuous road network.

**Question 0**

Which forest is the largest national forest in the United States?

**Question 1**

Which city was the former capital of Alaska?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the region closest to the US mainland?

**Question 3**

Where was the most populated after the Louisiana Purchase?

**Question 4**

Which forest is the smallest national forest in the United States?

**Question 5**

Which forest is the largest national forest in the UN?

**Question 6**

Which city was the current capital of Alaska?

**Question 7**

What is the name of the region furthest from the US mainland?

**Question 8**

Where was the least populated after the Louisiana Purchase?

**Text number 3**

The northern slope is mostly tundra dotted with small villages. The region is known for its vast crude oil reserves, and is home to both the National Petroleum Reserve-Alaska and the Prudhoe Bay oil field. It is home to Barrow, the northernmost town in the United States. The Northwest Arctic, anchored by Kotzebue and also home to the Kobuk River Valley, is often considered part of this region. However, the Inupiat of the North Slope and the Northwest Arctic rarely consider themselves as one people.

**Question 0**

In which area is the Prudhoe Bay oil field located?

**Question 1**

What is the northernmost city in the United States?

**Question 2**

What resource is the North Slope known for?

**Question 3**

Which area does not have a Prudhoe Bay oil field?

**Question 4**

In which area is the Prudhoe Bay fire district located?

**Question 5**

What is the southernmost city in the United States?

**Question 6**

What is the UN's northernmost city?

**Question 7**

What resource is the South Slope known for?

**Text number 4**

With its countless islands, Alaska has nearly 54 720 kilometres (34 000 miles) of tidal boundaries. The Aleutian Island chain stretches from the southern tip of the Alaska Peninsula westward. The Aleutian Islands and coastal areas have many active volcanoes. For example, Unimak Island is home to Mount Shishaldin, an intermittently smoldering volcano that rises to 10,048 feet above the North Pacific Ocean. It is the most complete volcanic cone on Earth, even more symmetrical than Mount Fuji in Japan. The volcanic chain extends to Mount Spurr west of Anchorage on the mainland. Geologists have identified Alaska as part of the Wrangell, a large region of several states and Canadian provinces in the Pacific Northwest that is in the process of active continental drift.

**Question 0**

How much tidal coastline is there in Alaska in kilometres?

**Question 1**

On which island is Mount Shishaldin located?

**Question 2**

What do geoligists believe about the uniqueness of Wrangell?

**Question 3**

What is most impressive about Mount Shishaldin compared to Mount Fuji?

**Question 4**

How high is Mount Shishaldin above sea level?

**Question 5**

How much of Alaska has no tidal shoreline, measured in kilometres?

**Question 6**

On which island is Mount Shishaldin not located?

**Question 7**

What do geoligists believe is not unique about Wrangell?

**Question 8**

What is the least impressive thing about Mount Shishaldin compared to Mount Fuji?

**Question 9**

How high does Mount Shishaldin rise below sea level?

**Text number 5**

According to a report published by the Bureau of Land Management in October 1998, approximately 65% of Alaska is federally owned and managed as public lands, including numerous national forests, national parks and national wildlife refuges. Of these lands, the Bureau of Land Management manages 87 million hectares (35 million acres), or 23.8% of the state's land area. The Arctic National Wildlife Refuge is managed by the US Fish and Wildlife Service. It is the world's largest wildlife refuge, covering 16 million hectares (6.5 million acres).

**Question 0**

How much of Alaska is maintained by the US federal government?

**Question 1**

Which areas are managed by the federal government as public land?

**Question 2**

How many hectares is the Bureau of Land Management responsible for?

**Question 3**

How much of the state is under the control of the Bureau of Land Management?

**Question 4**

What is the world's largest wildlife sanctuary?

**Question 5**

What percentage of Alaska's territory is maintained by the UN federal government?

**Question 6**

Which areas are managed by local government as public areas?

**Question 7**

How many hectares is the Asset Management Agency responsible for?

**Question 8**

How much of the state is under the control of the Bureau of Land Management?

**Question 9**

What is the world's smallest wildlife sanctuary?

**Text number 6**

The State of Alaska has 101 million hectares (41 million acres) of remaining land, which is a right under Alaska state law. Some of this land is sometimes ceded to organized territories under statutory provisions for newly created territories. Smaller portions are set aside for rural allotments and other homestead opportunities. These are not very popular as they are often located in remote and roadless areas. The University of Alaska, as a land grant university, also owns substantial tracts of land which it manages independently.

**Question 0**

How many hectares of land does the State of Alaska own?

**Question 1**

How much land is given to the State of Alaska in Alaska state law?

**Question 2**

Why are regions and sub-regions not more popular?

**Question 3**

How many hectares of land does the State of Alaska not own?

**Question 4**

How many hectares of land does the State of Alaska lease?

**Question 5**

How much land is not given to the State of Alaska in Alaska state law?

**Question 6**

Why are single-family and rural areas not less popular?

**Question 7**

Why are single-family and rural areas not less popular?

**Text number 7**

The other 44 million hectares (18 million acres) are owned by 12 regional and numerous local Native corporations established under the Alaska Native Claims Act of 1971 (ANCSA). Doyon, Limited, a regional Native corporation, frequently promotes itself in advertisements and other communications as Alaska's largest private landowner. The provisions of ANCSA that allowed the sale of corporate land holdings on the open market from 1991 were repealed before they could take effect. In practice, corporations have title (in many cases including underground title, a privilege denied to individual Alaskans) but cannot sell land. However, individual indigenous lands can and are sold on the open market.

**Question 0**

Which group claims to be the largest private landowner in Alaska?

**Question 1**

What privileges do Alaska's private companies have that its citizens do not?

**Question 2**

Was a law passed in 1991 allowing companies to sell land, or was it repealed?

**Question 3**

Which group claims to be the smallest private landowner in Alaska?

**Question 4**

Which group claims to be the largest owner of public land in Alaska?

**Question 5**

What privileges do Alaska's public companies have that its public citizens do not?

**Question 6**

What privileges do Alaska's private companies have that its private citizens do not?

**Question 7**

In 1919, was a law passed allowing companies to sell land property, or was it repealed?

**Text number 8**

Southeast Alaska has a mid-latitude oceanic climate in the south (Köppen climate classification: Cfb) and a subarctic oceanic climate in the north (Köppen climate classification: Cfc). Southeast Alaska is both the wettest and warmest part of Alaska, with milder temperatures in winter and abundant precipitation year-round. Juneau averages more than 130 centimetres of precipitation per year, and Ketchikan averages more than 380 centimetres. This is also the only area in Alaska where the average daytime temperature during the winter months is above freezing.

**Question 0**

How much precipitation does Juno receive per year?

**Question 1**

In which part of Alaska do daytime temperatures in summer get above freezing?

**Question 2**

What are the two Copenhagen climate classifications in southern Alaska?

**Question 3**

How much rain does Ketchikan get each year?

**Question 4**

How much rainfall does Juneau receive each year?

**Question 5**

How much rainfall does Juneau receive each month?

**Question 6**

In which part of Alaska do you find night temperatures above freezing in summer?

**Question 7**

What are the three Copenhagen climate classifications in southern Alaska?

**Question 8**

How much rain does Ketchikan get each month?

**Text number 9**

Western Alaska's climate is largely determined by the Bering Sea and the Gulf of Alaska. In the southwest, the climate is subarctic oceanic, and further north, continental subarctic. Temperatures are more or less moderate considering how far north the region is located. Rainfall in the region varies enormously. The area extending from the north of the Seward Peninsula to the Kobuk River Valley (i.e. the area around Kotzebue Sound) is technically desert, with parts of it receiving less than 25 centimetres of precipitation annually. At the other extreme, the area between Dillingham and Bethel averages about 250 cm of rainfall.

**Question 0**

Which two water bodies contribute to the climate in western Alaska?

**Question 1**

Is precipitation variable or uniform in western Alaska?

**Question 2**

Which region of Western Alaska is technically a desert?

**Question 3**

How much precipitation does the Western Alaskan desert region receive?

**Question 4**

Which three water bodies contribute to the climate in western Alaska?

**Question 5**

Which two water bodies contribute to the climate in eastern Alaska?

**Question 6**

Is rainfall variable or uniform in eastern Alaska?

**Question 7**

Which region of eastern Alaska is technically a desert?

**Question 8**

How much rain does the desert region of eastern Alaska receive?

**Text number 10**

Numerous indigenous peoples inhabited Alaska for thousands of years before Europeans arrived. Language and DNA studies here have provided evidence of North American settlement across the Bering land bridge. The Tlingit developed a society with a matrilineal kinship system involving property inheritance and descent in what is now Southeast Alaska and parts of British Columbia and the Yukon. The Southeast was also home to the Haida tribe, now known for their very unique art. The Tsimshian came to Alaska from British Columbia in 1887, when President Grover Cleveland and later the US Congress granted them permission to settle on Annette Island and establish the town of Metlakatlan. All three peoples, as well as other indigenous peoples of the Pacific Northwest, suffered from smallpox outbreaks from the late 1700s to the mid-1900s, with the most devastating epidemics occurring in the 1830s and 1860s, resulting in high levels of death and social disruption.

**Question 0**

Who is the president who allowed the Tsimshian settlers to live on Annette Island?

**Question 1**

In what year did the Tsimshian arrive in Alaska?

**Question 2**

Which epidemic led to the many deaths in the 1830s and 1860s?

**Question 3**

Which Alaska Native group is now known for its art?

**Question 4**

Who was the president who banned the settlement of Tsimshian settlers on Annette Island?

**Question 5**

Which president allowed the settlers of Tsimshian not to settle on Annette Island?

**Question 6**

In which year did the Tsimshians not arrive in Alaska?

**Question 7**

Which epidemic led to the many deaths in the 1830s and 1870s?

**Question 8**

Which Alaska Native group is not known for its art?

**Text number 11**

The Aleutian Islands are still home to the Aleut maritime society, although they were among the first Alaskan indigenous peoples to be exploited by the Russians. Western and southwestern Alaska are home to the Yup'ik tribe, while their cousins Alutiiq ~ Sugpiaq lived in what is now southern Alaska. The Gwich'in of the Northern Interior are of the Athabaskan tribe, and are known today mainly for their dependence on caribou in the much disputed Arctic Nature Reserve. The northern slope and Little Diomede Island are home to a widespread Inupiat people.

**Question 0**

Which indigenous group is controversially known for caribou hunting on protected land?

**Question 1**

In which regions do the Inuplat people live?

**Question 2**

Which Alaska Native was the first group exploited by the Russians?

**Question 3**

Which indigenous group is controversially unknown from caribou hunting on protected land?

**Question 4**

Which indigenous group is controversially known for caribou hunting on unprotected land?

**Question 5**

Which areas are not inhabited by the Inuplat population?

**Question 6**

Which Alaska Native group was not the first to be exploited by the Russians?

**Question 7**

Which group of Alaska Natives was the last to be exploited by the Russians?

**Text number 12**

Some researchers believe that the first Russian settlement in Alaska was established in the 1600s. According to this hypothesis, in 1648 several cooks from Semyon Dezhnyov's expedition landed in Alaska during a storm and established this settlement. This hypothesis is based on the testimony of the Chukchi geographer Nikolai Daurkin, who had visited Alaska between 1764 and 1765 and described a village on the Kheuveren River where 'bearded men' who 'prayed to icons' lived. Some modern scholars link the Kheuveren to the Koyuk River.

**Question 0**

During which period do some researchers believe the Russians settled in Alaska?

**Question 1**

Whose expedition possibly landed in Alaska during the storm and established a settlement in 1648?

**Question 2**

Who did Nikolai Durkin say lived in a village on the Kheuveren river?

**Question 3**

In which years did Nikolai Durkin visit Alaska?

**Question 4**

During which period do all researchers believe the Russians settled in Alaska?

**Question 5**

During what period do some researchers believe the Russians left Alaska?

**Question 6**

Whose expedition possibly landed in Alaska during the storm and established a settlement in 1684?

**Question 7**

Who did Nikolai Durkin say died in a village on the Kheuveren river?

**Question 8**

During which years did Nikolai Durkin not visit Alaska?

**Text number 13**

From the 1890s and in some places until the early 1910s, the gold rush in Alaska and the nearby Yukon Territory brought thousands of miners and settlers to Alaska. Alaska was formally incorporated as an organized territory in 1912, and the capital of Alaska, which had been located in Sitka until 1906, was moved north to Juneau. Construction of the Alaska Governor's Mansion began that same year. European immigrants from Norway and Sweden also settled in Southeast Alaska, where they began fishing and logging.

**Question 0**

What event brought thousands of people to Alaska from the 1890s to the early 1910s?

**Question 1**

In what year was Alaska officially incorporated as a territory?

**Question 2**

In what year was the capital of Alaska officially changed to Juneau?

**Question 3**

In which industries did European settlers start in Alaska?

**Question 4**

From which countries did European settlers arrive in Alaska?

**Question 5**

What event brought thousands of people to Alaska from the 1890s to the early 1920s?

**Question 6**

In what year was Alaska unofficially annexed as a territory?

**Question 7**

In what year was the capital of Alaska unofficially renamed Juneau?

**Question 8**

Which industries did European immigrants shut down in Alaska?

**Question 9**

From which countries were South American settlers in Alaska?

**Text number 14**

The formation of the State of Alaska was a major issue for James Wickersham early in his term as a Congressman. Decades later, the statehood movement received its first real impetus after a territorial referendum in 1946. The Alaska Independence Commission and the Alaska Constitutional Convention soon followed. Supporters of independence also faced major battles against their political opponents, mainly in the US Congress but also within Alaska. Congress approved the state's independence on 7 July 1958. Alaska was officially proclaimed a state on 3 January 1959.

**Question 0**

On what day did Congress finally approve the creation of the State of Alaska?

**Question 1**

On what date was Alaska officially designated a state?

**Question 2**

What did James Wickersham focus on in the early days of the Congress?

**Question 3**

In what year did the independence of the state of Alaska gain momentum after a regional referendum?

**Question 4**

From which regions did Alaska supporters face political challenges?

**Question 5**

On what day did Congress finally reject the creation of the State of Alaska?

**Question 6**

On what date was Alaska unofficially designated a state?

**Question 7**

What did James Wickersham focus on in his later years in Congress?

**Question 8**

In what year did Alaska's statehood lose momentum after a regional referendum?

**Text number 15**

The massive Good Friday earthquake of 27 March 1964 killed 133 people and destroyed many villages and parts of large coastal communities, mainly as a result of tsunamis and landslides. It was the second strongest earthquake in world history, with a magnitude of 9.2. It was more than a thousand times more powerful than the 1989 San Francisco earthquake. The time of day (5.36 pm), the season and the location of the epicentre were cited as factors that could have saved thousands of lives, particularly in Anchorage.

**Question 0**

What major event occurred in Alaska on 27 March 1964 in which 133 people died?

**Question 1**

Did the earthquake or the resulting tsunamis and landslides cause the most damage to Alaskan communities?

**Question 2**

How did the Good Friday earthquake compare with other documented earthquakes in the world?

**Question 3**

How did the Good Friday earthquake compare with the 1989 San Francisco earthquake?

**Question 4**

What factors related to the Good Friday earthquake caused the higher survival rate according to some?

**Question 5**

What major event occurred in Alaska on March 27, 1946, in which 133 people died?

**Question 6**

Did the earthquake or the resulting tsunamis and landslides cause the least damage to Alaskan communities?

**Question 7**

How did the Good Friday earthquake compare to other undocumented earthquakes in the world?

**Question 8**

How did the Good Friday earthquake compare with the 1998 San Francisco earthquake?

**Question 9**

What factors related to the Good Friday earthquake caused the lower survival rate according to some?

**Text number 16**

According to the Alaska Native Language Center at the University of Alaska Fairbanks, there are at least 20 indigenous languages in Alaska, plus some languages with different dialects. The majority of Alaska Native languages belong to either the Eskimo-Aleut or Na-Den language family, but some are believed to be isolated (e.g. Haida) or have not yet been classified (e.g. Tsimshian). In 2014[update], almost all Alaska Native languages were classified as either endangered, migratory, dying, near-extinct or dormant.

**Question 0**

According to the Alaska Native Language Center, how many Alaska Native languages are there?

**Question 1**

What are the two main indigenous language families in Alaska?

**Question 2**

How many Alaska Native languages are at risk of becoming dormant or extinct, according to a 2014 study?

**Question 3**

In which year did a study conclude that almost all Alaska Native languages are in danger of extinction?

**Question 4**

How many Alaska Native languages do not exist, at least according to the Alaska Native Language Center?

**Question 5**

What are the three main language families of Alaska Natives?

**Question 6**

How many Alaska Native languages are at risk of extinction or extinction, according to a 2015 study?

**Question 7**

In which year did a study conclude that almost all Alaska Native languages are in danger of extinction?

**Question 8**

In which year did a study conclude that almost all Alaska Native languages are not in danger of extinction?

**Text number 17**

According to statistics collected by the Association of Religion Data Archives in 2010, about 34% of Alaskans belonged to religious congregations. 100,960 people identified as evangelical Protestant, 50,866 as Roman Catholic, and 32,550 as mainline Protestant. About 4% are Mormons, 0.5% Jews, 1% Muslims, 0.5% Buddhists and 0.5% Hindus. The largest denominations in Alaska in 2010[update] were the Catholic Church with 50,866 adherents, non-denominational evangelical Protestants with 38,070 adherents, the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints with 32,170 adherents, and the Southern Baptist Convention with 19,891 adherents. Alaska, along with the Pacific Northwest states of Washington and Oregon, has been found to be the least religious state in the United States in terms of church membership.

**Question 0**

According to 2010 data from the Religion Information Agency, what percentage of Alaskans are members of a religious congregation?

**Question 1**

Which religion is most common in Alaska?

**Question 2**

How does Alaska compare to other states in terms of church membership?

**Question 3**

Which other neighbouring countries are also considered less religious than others?

**Question 4**

According to 2012 data from the Religion Information Agency, what percentage of Alaskans are members of a religious congregation?

**Question 5**

Which religion is the least common in Alaska?

**Question 6**

How does Alaska not compare with other states in terms of church membership?

**Question 7**

What other neighbouring countries are also considered more religious than others?

**Question 8**

What other far-flung countries are also considered less religious than others?

**Text number 18**

In 1795, the first Russian Orthodox church was founded in Kodiak. Marriage with Alaska Natives helped Russian immigrants integrate into society. As a result, more and more Russian Orthodox churches were gradually established in Alaska. Alaska also has the largest Quaker population (in percentage terms) of any state. In 2009, Alaska had 6,000 Jews (for whom halakha observance can pose particular problems). Alaskan Hindus often share venues and celebrations with members of other Asian religious communities, such as Sikhs and Jains.

**Question 0**

Which church was founded in Kodiak in 1795?

**Question 1**

How do Russian immigrants integrate into Alaskan society?

**Question 2**

Which religious lifestyle has the highest number of people in Alaska of any state?

**Question 3**

What religious tradition might be a problem for Alaskan Jews?

**Question 4**

Which church was founded in Kodiak in 1759?

**Question 5**

Which church was not founded in Kodiak in 1795?

**Question 6**

What was one way in which Russian immigrants never integrated into Alaskan society?

**Question 7**

Which religious lifestyle has the lowest number of people in Alaska of all the states?

**Question 8**

What religious tradition is never a problem for Alaskan Jews?

**Text number 19**

The state's gross state product in 2007 was $44.9 billion, ranking 45th in the nation. Per capita personal income was $40,042 in 2007, 15th in the nation. According to a 2013 study by Phoenix Marketing International, Alaska had the fifth highest number of millionaires per capita in the United States, at 6.75 percent. The oil and gas industry dominates Alaska's economy, with more than 80% of the state's revenue coming from oil extraction. Alaska's main export (excluding oil and natural gas) is seafood, mainly salmon, cod, pollock and crab.

**Question 0**

What was Alaska's per capita personal income in 2007?

**Question 1**

How does Alaska's per capita personal income rank compared to other states?

**Question 2**

How much of the State of Alaska's revenue comes from oil extraction?

**Question 3**

Besides oil, what is Alaska's biggest export?

**Question 4**

What was Alaska's per capita personal income in 2017?

**Question 5**

How does Alaska's per capita personal debt rank compared to other states?

**Question 6**

How much of the State of Alaska's revenue never comes from oil extraction?

**Question 7**

Besides oil, what is Alaska's biggest import?

**Question 8**

Besides oil, what is Alaska's smallest export?

**Text number 20**

Jobs are mainly in public administration and industries such as resource extraction, shipping and transport. Military bases are an important part of the economy of the Fairbanks North Star, Anchorage, Kodiak Island and Kodiak Island neighborhoods. Federal subsidies are also an important part of the economy, allowing the state to keep taxes low. Its industrial output includes crude oil, natural gas, coal, gold, precious metals, zinc and other mining, seafood processing, lumber and wood products. The service and tourism sectors are also growing. Tourists have contributed to the economy by supporting local accommodation establishments.

**Question 0**

In which areas of Alaska are military bases an important part of the local economy?

**Question 1**

What program will help Alaska keep its taxes low?

**Question 2**

What are some of Alaska's industrial products?

**Question 3**

How have tourists in particular helped Alaska's local economy?

**Question 4**

In which areas of Alaska are military bases common because they are an insignificant part of the local economy?

**Question 5**

In which areas of Alaska are civilian bases an important part of the local economy?

**Question 6**

What program allows Alaska to keep taxes high?

**Question 7**

What are not Alaska's industrial products?

**Question 8**

How have tourists in particular helped Alaska's global economy?

**Text number 21**

Alaska has huge energy resources, although its oil reserves are largely depleted. Significant oil and gas reserves were found on Alaska's North Slope (ANS) and in the Cook Inlet basins, but according to the Energy Information Administration, by February 2014 Alaska had fallen to fourth in the country in crude oil production, behind Texas, North Dakota and California. Prudhoe Bay on Alaska's North Slope remains the second most productive oil field in the US, typically producing around 400 000 barrels per day (64 000 m3/d), although by early 2014 North Dakota's Bakken formation was already producing over 900 000 barrels per day (140 000 m3/d). Prudhoe Bay was the largest conventional oil field ever discovered in North America, but it was much smaller than Canada's huge Athabasca oil sands field, which in 2014 was producing around 1 500 000 barrels per day (240 000 m3/d) of unconventional oil and had hundreds of years of producible reserves at this rate.

**Question 0**

Which other states rank higher than Alaska in crude oil production?

**Question 1**

How does Alaska rank in crude oil production compared to other states?

**Question 2**

Which area in Alaska is the second most productive oil field in the country?

**Question 3**

How many barrels of oil does Prudhoe Bay produce per day?

**Question 4**

Prudhoe Bay is the second largest producing oil field in the US?

**Question 5**

Which other states rank lower than Alaska in crude oil production?

**Question 6**

How does Alaska compare to other states in refined oil production?

**Question 7**

Which area in Alaska is the third most productive oil field in the country?

**Question 8**

Which area of Alaska is the second least productive oil field in the country?

**Question 9**

How many barrels of oil does Prudhoe Bay produce per week?

**Text number 22**

The Trans-Alaska Pipeline can transport and pump up to 2.1 million barrels (330 000 m3) of crude oil per day, which is more than any other crude oil pipeline in the US. In addition, Alaska's bituminous, subbituminous and lignite basins contain significant coal deposits. The US Geological Survey estimates that there are 85.4 trillion cubic metres (2 420 km3 ) of undiscovered, technically recoverable natural gas hydrate gas on Alaska's North Slope. Alaska also has some of the largest hydropower potential in the country, based on its numerous rivers. There is also wind and geothermal energy potential over large areas of Alaska's coastline.

**Question 0**

How much oil can the Trans-Alaska pipeline carry per day?

**Question 1**

How much recoverable gas has yet to be discovered in Alaska, according to the US Geological Survey?

**Question 2**

The Alaskan coast also has potential for which two forms of environmentally friendly energy?

**Question 3**

What type of environmentally friendly energy production is suitable for Alaska's large rivers?

**Question 4**

How much oil can the Trans-Alaska pipeline not carry in a day?

**Question 5**

How much oil can the Trans-Alaska pipeline carry in a week?

**Question 6**

How much unrecovered gas is still to be found in Alaska, according to the US Geological Survey?

**Question 7**

The Alaskan coast also has the potential for which three environmentally friendly forms of energy?

**Question 8**

What type of environmentally friendly energy production is Alaska's small rivers suitable for?

**Text number 23**

Alaska's economy relies heavily on increasingly expensive diesel fuel for heating, transport, electricity and lighting. Although wind and hydroelectric power are abundant and undeveloped, proposals for statewide energy systems (e.g., dedicated low-cost power grids) were judged (at the time of writing in 2001) to be uneconomic due to low fuel prices (less than 50 cents per gallon), long distances and low population. Gasoline gallon prices in Alaskan cities are currently generally 30 to 60 cents higher than the national average; in rural areas, prices are generally much higher, but vary widely depending on transportation costs, seasonal consumption peaks, nearby oil development infrastructure, and many other factors.

**Question 0**

Why were alternative energy sources considered uneconomic in 2001?

**Question 1**

How much does gas cost in Alaska compared to the national average?

**Question 2**

What are some of the reasons why gas prices may vary, especially in Alaska?

**Question 3**

On what does the Alaskan economy rely heavily?

**Question 4**

What is diesel fuel used for in Alaska?

**Question 5**

Why were alternative energy sources considered uneconomic in 2010?

**Question 6**

Why were alternative energy sources considered economically viable in 2001?

**Question 7**

How much does gas cost in Alaska compared to the international average?

**Question 8**

What are some reasons why gas prices may be stable, especially in Alaska?

**Question 9**

What is Alaska's economy not based on?

**Text number 24**

The Alaska Permanent Fund is a constitutionally authorized oil revenue appropriation created by voters in 1976 to manage the state's oil revenue surplus, which was largely generated in anticipation of the newly constructed Trans-Alaska Pipeline System. Originally proposed by Governor Keith Miller on the eve of the sale of the Prudhoe Bay leases in 1969, the fund was created because he feared the legislature would use all the proceeds from the sale (which amounted to $900 million) at once. It was later championed by Governor Jay Hammond and Kenai State Representative Hugh Malone. Since then, it has been an attractive political opportunity, diverting revenue that would normally be placed in the general fund.

**Question 0**

What is the Alaska Permanent Fund?

**Question 1**

In what year was the Alaska Permanent Fund established?

**Question 2**

Why was the Alaska Permit Fund created?

**Question 3**

Who originally proposed the Alaska Permanent Fund?

**Question 4**

Why did Governor Keith Miller propose the Alaska Permanent Fund before the Prudhoe Bay sale?

**Question 5**

What is the Alaska Temporary Fund?

**Question 6**

In what year was the Alaska Permanent Fund abolished?

**Question 7**

Why was the Alaska Permit Fund not established?

**Question 8**

Who originally hated the Alaska Permanent Fund?

**Question 9**

Why did Governor Keith Miller propose the creation of an Alaska Permanent Fund after the sale of Prudhoe Bay?

**Text number 25**

The Alaska Constitution is written in a way that prevents the allocation of government funds for a specific purpose. The Permanent Fund has been a rare exception to this, largely due to the political climate of distrust that existed at the time the fund was created. From an initial capital of $734 000, the fund has grown to $50 billion thanks to oil royalties and private equity schemes. Most, if not all, of the capital is conservatively invested outside Alaska. As a result, Alaskan politicians have often urged the Fund to invest in Alaska, but such a position has never gained momentum.

**Question 0**

Is the Alaska Constitution written to encourage or discourage the use of government funds for a specific purpose?

**Question 1**

Why is the permanent fund an exception to the premise of the Alaska Constitution?

**Question 2**

Where is the capital of the permanent fund invested?

**Question 3**

How much was the initial capital of the permanent fund?

**Question 4**

How much has the capital of the permanent fund grown?

**Question 5**

Is the Alaska Constitution written in a way that encourages or discourages the use of government funds for a specific purpose?

**Question 6**

Why is the permanent fund not an exception to the premise of the Alaska Constitution?

**Question 7**

Where is the capital of the permanent fund not invested?

**Question 8**

How much was the final capital of the permanent fund?

**Question 9**

How much has the capital of the permanent fund decreased?

**Text number 26**

Since 1982, annual dividends have been paid annually to eligible Alaskans from the annual growth of the fund, ranging from an initial $1,000 in 1982 (representing three years of payments due to a suspension of payments due to litigation over the distribution system) to $3,269 in 2008 (which included a one-time resource credit of $1,200). Each year, the state legislature takes 8 percent of the proceeds, puts 3 percent back into the capital for inflation, and the remaining 5 percent is distributed to all eligible Alaskans. To qualify for the Permanent Fund Dividend, a person must have resided in the state for at least 12 months, have been a continuous resident of the state, subject to allowable absences, and have no court-ordered convictions or criminal convictions that fall into various disqualifying classifications or that could result in civil forfeiture of the amount of the payment.

**Question 0**

How long must an Alaskan have lived in the state to receive a permanent fund dividend?

**Question 1**

How much of the permanent fund will be distributed to eligible Alaskan residents?

**Question 2**

When did contributions to the permanent fund start to be decommitted?

**Question 3**

How much was the permanent fund originally paid out?

**Question 4**

How long must a Canadian have lived in the state to receive a permanent fund dividend?

**Question 5**

What percentage of the permanent fund will be distributed to ineligible Alaskans?

**Question 6**

When did the Permanent Fund payments end?

**Question 7**

When did the permanent fund not start to be decommitted?

**Question 8**

How much of the permanent fund was eventually paid out?

**Text number 27**

Tanana Valley is another important agricultural area, particularly the Delta Junction area, located about 160 km southeast of Fairbanks, with a significant number of farms growing agricultural crops, mainly north and east of Fort Greely. This area has been largely set aside and developed under the state program of Hammond's second term as Governor. Crops in the Delta area consist mainly of barley and hay. West of Fairbanks is another concentration of small farms serving the restaurant, hotel, tourism and community agriculture industries.

**Question 0**

What crops are produced in the estuary?

**Question 1**

Who do small farms west of Fairbanks serve?

**Question 2**

What area did Hammond develop during his second term?

**Question 3**

What crops are not produced in the Delta?

**Question 4**

The large farms west of Fairbanks serve whom?

**Question 5**

Small farms east of Fairbanks serve whom?

**Question 6**

What area did Hammond not develop during his second season?

**Question 7**

What area did Hammond develop during his third term?

**Text number 28**

Most of Alaska's food is transported into the state from "outside", and transport costs make food in cities relatively expensive. In rural areas, hunting and gathering is essential because imported foods are prohibitively expensive. Although most of Alaska's small towns and villages are located on the coast, importing food to remote villages can be expensive because of difficult terrain and road conditions that change dramatically with climate and rainfall variations. Transport costs in some remote areas can rise to 50 cents per kilo ($1.10/kg) or more at the most difficult times, if these places can be reached at all under such poor weather and terrain conditions. The cost of supplying one US gallon (3.8 litres) of milk is about $3.50 in many villages where per capita income may be $20,000 or less. Fuel costs per gallon are generally 20 to 30 cents higher than the US average, with only Hawaii having higher prices.

**Question 0**

What causes food to be relatively expensive in Alaskan cities?

**Question 1**

How high can transport costs be in some remote areas?

**Question 2**

Which US state has higher fuel prices than Alaska?

**Question 3**

How much does it cost to transport a gallon of milk in some rural areas of Alaska?

**Question 4**

What makes food relatively cheap in Alaskan cities?

**Question 5**

How low can transport costs be in some remote areas?

**Question 6**

How high can transport costs be in some urban areas?

**Question 7**

Which US state has lower fuel prices than Alaska?

**Question 8**

How much does it cost to transport a gallon of milk in some urban areas of Alaska?

**Text number 29**

Alaska has limited road access compared to the rest of the United States. The state road network covers a relatively small area of the state, connecting the major population centres and the Alaska Highway, the main route out of the state through Canada. The state capital, Juneau, is not accessible by road, but only by highway, which has prompted several discussions over the decades about moving the capital to a town along the road network or building a road link from Haines. There is no road network in western Alaska to connect communities to the rest of Alaska.

**Question 0**

Why is there a debate about moving the capital of Alaska to another city?

**Question 1**

Which part of Alaska does not have a road network connecting it to other areas?

**Question 2**

Is there a lot or little road access in Alaska compared to the rest of the US?

**Question 3**

Why is there a debate about not moving the capital of Alaska to another city?

**Question 4**

Which part of Alaska has a network of roads connecting it to other regions?

**Question 5**

Which part of Alaska has a road network that connects it to all other areas?

**Question 6**

Compared to other UN countries, does Alaska have many or few road connections?

**Question 7**

Is there a lot or little road access in Alaska compared to anywhere in the US?

**Text number 30**

Built around 1915, the Alaska Railroad (ARR) played a key role in the development of Alaska in the 20th century. It connects the North Pacific with shipping by providing critical infrastructure on tracks that run from Seward through southern central Alaska to interior Alaska, passing through Anchorage, Eklutna, Wasilla, Talkeetna, Denali, Fairbanks, Whittier, Palmer and the North Pole. The cities, towns, villages and areas served by the ARR lines are known statewide as "The Railbelt". In recent years, the ever-evolving paved highway system began to overshadow the importance of rail to the Alaskan economy.

**Question 0**

What year was the Alaska Railroad built?

**Question 1**

What does "railway zone" refer to?

**Question 2**

What development in 1915 was key to the development of Alaska?

**Question 3**

What year was the Alaskan railroad destroyed?

**Question 4**

What year was the Alaska Railroad not built?

**Question 5**

What does "railway zone" not refer to?

**Question 6**

What development in 1915 did not affect the development of Alaska?

**Question 7**

What development in 1951 was key to the development of Alaska?

**Text number 31**

The Alaska Railroad was one of the last North American railroads to use cab cars in regular service, and it still uses them on some gravel trains. It still provides one of the last ticket stop routes in the country. The roughly 100-kilometer (60-mile) stretch of track north of Talkeetna is still inaccessible by road, and the railroad is the only transportation option to rural homes and cabins in the area. Prior to the construction of the Parks Highway in the 1970s, the railroad provided the only land access to most of the region along the entire route.

**Question 0**

The ARR was one of the last railroads in the United States to use what?

**Question 1**

When will cabs still be used occasionally?

**Question 2**

When was the Parks Highway built?

**Question 3**

Wasn't the ARR one of the last US railroads to use what?

**Question 4**

The ARR was one of the first railways in the US to use what?

**Question 5**

The ARR was one of the last UN railways to use what?

**Question 6**

When will the cabins no longer be used occasionally?

**Question 7**

When was the Parks Highway destroyed?

**Text number 32**

Alaska's well-developed state-owned ferry system (Alaska Marine Highway) serves the cities of the Southeast, the Gulf Coast and the Alaska Peninsula. The ferries carry both vehicles and passengers. The system also operates ferry service from Bellingham, Washington and Prince Rupert, British Columbia, Canada via the Inside Passage to Skagway. The Inter-Island Ferry Authority also serves as an important maritime link for many communities in the Prince of Wales Island region of southeastern England, working in partnership with the Alaska Seaway.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the Alaskan ferry system?

**Question 1**

What other ferry group works alongside the Alaska Marine Highway to coordinate travel?

**Question 2**

What areas are served by the Alaska Seaway?

**Question 3**

What is not the name of the Alaskan ferry system?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the Washington ferry system?

**Question 5**

What other ferry group no longer works alongside the Alaska Marine Highway to coordinate travel?

**Question 6**

What other ferry crew is working along the Alaskan Seaway to stop travel?

**Question 7**

What areas are not served by the Alaska Seaway?

**Text number 33**

Towns with no road, sea or river access can only be reached by air, foot, dog sled or snowmobile, which explains Alaska's highly developed bush air services - an Alaskan first. Anchorage and, to a lesser extent, Fairbanks are served by many major airlines. Due to limited highway access, air travel remains the most efficient mode of transport in the state and beyond. Anchorage recently completed major renovations and construction at the Ted Stevens Anchorage International Airport to accommodate the growth in tourism (nearly 2 million people visited Alaska in 2012-2013).

**Question 0**

Which two cities are served by the major airlines?

**Question 1**

What is the most efficient mode of transport to and from Alaska?

**Question 2**

How many visitors came to Alaska in 2012-2013?

**Question 3**

Which three cities are served by the major airlines?

**Question 4**

Which two cities are not served by major airlines?

**Question 5**

Which two cities are served by small airlines?

**Question 6**

What is the least efficient mode of transport to and from Alaska?

**Question 7**

How many visitors came to Alaska in 2012-2014?

**Text number 34**

Regular flights to most state villages and cities that are commercially viable are challenging to provide, so the federal government heavily subsidizes them through the Essential Air Service program. Alaska Airlines is the only major airline that provides intrastate service on jets (sometimes combined with cargo and passenger Boeing 737-400s) from Anchorage and Fairbanks to regional hubs such as Bethel, Nome, Kotzebue, Dillingham, Kodiak and other larger communities as well as major Southeast Alaska and Alaska Peninsula communities.

**Question 0**

What service can the government use to support regular air travel in Alaska?

**Question 1**

Which airline offers interstate flights with jet service?

**Question 2**

What are the regional hubs in Alaska?

**Question 3**

Which service's government refuses to subsidise regular air travel to Alaska?

**Question 4**

What service can the government use to support non-scheduled air service in Alaska?

**Question 5**

Which airline offers out-of-state flights with jet service?

**Question 6**

Which are not Alaska's regional hubs?

**Question 7**

What are all the regional hubs in Alaska?

**Text number 35**

Most of the remaining commercial air service comes from small regional short-haul airlines such as Ravn Alaska, PenAir and Frontier Flying Service. Smaller towns and villages have to rely on scheduled or charter flights using general aviation aircraft such as the Cessna Caravan, the most popular aircraft in use in the state. Much of this service is due to the Alaska Bypass Mail Program, which supports the delivery of mail to rural Alaskan communities. The program requires that 70 percent of the subsidy be given to carriers that provide passenger service to these communities.

**Question 0**

What are the names of some of the regional airlines in Alaska?

**Question 1**

Which model is the most popular watercraft in Alaska?

**Question 2**

How much of the subsidised bulk mail distribution programme goes to carriers providing passenger services?

**Question 3**

What are the names of all the regional airlines in Alaska?

**Question 4**

What aren't some of the names of Alaska's regional airlines?

**Question 5**

Which model is the most popular aircraft in Alaska?

**Question 6**

Which model is the most popular watercraft in Alaska?

**Question 7**

How much of the subsidised mail delivery programme, other than bulk mail, goes to carriers providing passenger services?

**Text number 36**

Many places have small air taxi services. These activities have been driven by the demand for tailor-made transport in remote areas. Perhaps the most typical Alaskan aircraft is the bush sea plane. The busiest seaplane base in the world is Lake Hood, adjacent to Ted Stevens Anchorage International Airport, where flights to remote villages without a runway carry passengers, cargo and many products from stores and warehouse clubs. In 2006, Alaska had the highest per capita number of pilots of any US state.

**Question 0**

What aircraft is considered to be downwind?

**Question 1**

Where is the world's busiest seaplane base?

**Question 2**

Which state had more pilots per capita than any other US state?

**Question 3**

Which international airport is next to Lake Hood?

**Question 4**

What aircraft is not considered to be Alaskan?

**Question 5**

Where is the world's least frequented air base?

**Question 6**

Where is the world's busiest shipping base?

**Question 7**

Which state had more pilots per capita than any other UN state?

**Question 8**

Which international airport is Lake Hood not next to?

**Text number 37**

Another method of transport in Alaska is the dog sled. In modern times (i.e. after the mid to late 1920s), dog sledding is more of a sport than a real means of transport. Various races are held across the state, but the most famous is the Iditarod Trail Sled Dog Race, a 1 150-mile (1 850-kilometre) route from Anchorage to Nome (although the distance varies from year to year, the official distance is 1 049 miles or 1 688 kilometres). The race commemorates the famous 1925 serum run to Nome, in which mushers and dogs like Togo and Balto carried much-needed medicine to Nome, a patient with diphtheria, when all other means of transport had failed. Mushers from all over the world come to Anchorage every March to compete for money, prizes and prestige. The "Serum Run" is another sled dog race that more closely follows the route of the famous 1925 relay from Nenana (southwest of Fairbanks) to Nome.

**Question 0**

Which mode of transport in Alaska is more for sport than for transportation?

**Question 1**

Which dog sled dog race in Alaska is the most famous?

**Question 2**

What does the Iditarod Trail sledding race have to do with Alaskan history?

**Question 3**

Why were medicines delivered to Nome by sled dogs in 1925?

**Question 4**

Which dog sled dog race most closely follows the route of the 1925 serum race?

**Question 5**

Which Alaskan mode of transportation is less for sport than for transportation?

**Question 6**

What mode of transportation in Alaska is not more for sport than for transportation?

**Question 7**

Which dog sled dog race in Alaska is the least known?

**Question 8**

What is the Iditarod Trail cross-country ski race not in Alaskan history?

**Question 9**

Why were sled dogs used to deliver medicines to Nome in 1952?

**Text number 38**

Alaska's internet and other data transmission systems are largely provided by two large telecommunications companies, GCI and Alaska Communications. GCI owns and operates the so-called Alaska United Fiber Optic system, and in late 2011 Alaska Communications advertised that it had "two fiber optic paths in the lower 48 and two more in Alaska." In January 2011, it was announced that a billion dollar project was planned to connect rural Asia and Alaska, supported in part by a $350 million federal stimulus program.

**Question 0**

Which two companies provide Internet and data transmission in Alaska?

**Question 1**

What year was the launch of the project to connect rural Asia and Alaska?

**Question 2**

How much money did the federal government provide through incentives for the Asia-Alaska connection?

**Question 3**

Which company owns and operates the Alaska United Fiber Optic System?

**Question 4**

Which three companies provide Internet and data transmission in Alaska?

**Question 5**

In what year was the Asia-Alaska Rural Connect project abandoned?

**Question 6**

In what year was the project to connect rural Russia and Alaska announced?

**Question 7**

Which company is divesting from Alaska United Fiber Optic System?

**Question 8**

How much money has the federal government allocated through the stimulus to address the lack of connectivity between Asia and Alaska?

**Text number 39**

Alaska's state government is funded mainly by oil revenues and federal subsidies. As a result, Alaska has the lowest tax burden in the United States. It is one of only five states with no state sales tax, one of only seven states with no personal income tax, and one of only two states with neither. The Department of Revenue's Tax Division regularly reports on state revenue sources. The department also publishes an annual summary of its activities, including new state laws that directly affect the tax department.

**Question 0**

How does Alaska fund state government?

**Question 1**

How many US states have no sales tax?

**Question 2**

How many US states do not collect personal income tax?

**Question 3**

Which state has the lowest tax burden in the US?

**Question 4**

How does Alaska not fund its state government?

**Question 5**

How many UN states have no sales tax?

**Question 6**

How many US states have a sales tax?

**Question 7**

How many UN states do not collect personal income tax?

**Question 8**

Which state has the highest tax burden in the whole of the US?

**Text number 40**

Alaska regularly supports Republicans in presidential elections and has done so since the state's creation. Republicans have won the state's electoral votes in all but one election (1964) in which it has participated. No state has voted for a Democratic presidential candidate less often. Alaska was won by Democratic candidate Lyndon B. Johnson in the 1964 landslide election, while the 1960 and 1968 elections were close. Since 1972, however, Republicans have won the state by large margins. In 2008, Republican John McCain won Alaska over Democrat Barack Obama by 59.49% to 37.83%. McCain's opponent was Sarah Palin, the state's governor and the first Alaskan on a major party ticket. Obama lost Alaska again in 2012, but he won 40% of the state's vote, making him the first Democrat since 1968.

**Question 0**

Which political party does Alaska generally support?

**Question 1**

How many elections have Democrats won in Alaska?

**Question 2**

Which candidate was the only Democrat to win Alaska in a landslide in 1964?

**Question 3**

Who was the first Democratic candidate to win 40% of the vote in Alaska since 1964?

**Question 4**

What political party does Alaska generally not support?

**Question 5**

What political party does Alaska generally not support?

**Question 6**

How many elections have Democrats lost in Alaska?

**Question 7**

Which candidate was the only Democrat to win Alaska in a landslide in 1946?

**Question 8**

Which Democratic candidate was the first to win 40% of the vote in Alaska since 1946?

**Text number 41**

The Alaska Bush, downtown Juneau, downtown and midtown Anchorage, and the areas around the University of Alaska Fairbanks campus and Ester have been Democratic Party strongholds. Matanuska-Susitna Borough, most of Fairbanks (including North Pole and the military base) and South Anchorage tend to be the strongest Republican areas. Since 2004[update], well over half of registered voters have chosen "non-partisan" or "undeclared" as their party affiliation, despite recent attempts to close primaries to non-partisan voters.

**Question 0**

What areas surrounding the university have historically been Democratic strongholds?

**Question 1**

Which areas of Alaska have the most Republican concentrations?

**Question 2**

How many Alaskans will refuse to vote for a political party in 2004?

**Question 3**

Which areas around which universities have historically been Democratic strongholds?

**Question 4**

What areas surrounding the university have historically been a weakness for Democrats?

**Question 5**

Which areas of Alaska have the lowest Republican concentrations?

**Question 6**

Which areas of Alaska have the most Democrats?

**Question 7**

How many Alaskans will refuse to vote for a political party in 2014?

**Text number 42**

The unorganized county has no government of its own, but the US Census Bureau, in cooperation with the state, divided the unorganized county into 11 census tracts for statistical analysis and presentation purposes only. The census district is Alaska's public records management mechanism. The state is divided into 34 census districts, which are administered centrally by the State Registrar. All registration districts use the same acceptance criteria, fee schedule, etc. to accept documents into the public record.

**Question 0**

How many registration districts is Alaska divided into?

**Question 1**

What is the role of the Alaska Register of Deeds?

**Question 2**

What documents are commonly used by registration circles between regions?

**Question 3**

How many voting regions is Alaska not divided into?

**Question 4**

What is not the mission of the Alaska Storage District?

**Question 5**

What is the mission of the Alaska Song Circle?

**Question 6**

Which documents are generally never used between regions by the registration circles?

**Question 7**

What tracks are commonly used by recording regions between regions?

**Text number 43**

According to the 2010 US Census, Alaska has a total of 355 registered cities and census-designated places. Cities include four incorporated municipalities, which correspond primarily to incorporated cities and counties. Most of these communities are located in the rural area of Alaska known as "The Bush" and are not connected to the North American continuous road network. The table at the bottom of this section lists Alaska's 100 largest cities and census tracts in order of population.

**Question 0**

What are CDPs?

**Question 1**

How many registered cities and CDPs are there in Alaska according to the 2010 Census?

**Question 2**

Are most CDPs connected to the North American road network or are they separate from it?

**Question 3**

In which region of Alaska are most of the cities and CDPS located?

**Question 4**

What are CDPs not?

**Question 5**

How many cities and CDPs are there in Alaska according to the 2010 Census?

**Question 6**

How many registered cities and CDPs are there in Alaska according to the 2012 Census?

**Question 7**

Is the minority of CDPs connected to the North American road network or not?

**Question 8**

In which area of Alaska's cities and CDPS are the minority located?

**Text number 44**

Of Alaska's 2010 Census population of 710,231, 20,429 people, or 2.88 percent of the population, did not live in an incorporated city or census-designated place. Approximately three-quarters of this number were people living in urban and suburban areas on the outskirts of the city limits of Ketchikan, Kodiak, Palmer and Wasilla. The US Census Bureau has not established CDPs in these areas, except that seven CDPs were established in the 1980 Census for residential areas in the Ketchikan area (Clover Pass, Herring Cove, Ketchikan East, Mountain Point, North Tongass Highway, Pennock Island and Saxman East), but have not been used since. The rest of the population was scattered throughout Alaska, in both organized neighborhoods and unorganized neighborhoods, largely in outlying areas.

**Question 0**

What percentage of Alaska's population did not live in a city or town in 2010?

**Question 1**

Which four areas have not been confirmed as CDPs by the Census Bureau?

**Question 2**

Which seven CDPs were included in the 1980 census?

**Question 3**

What percentage of Alaska's population did not live in a city or town in 2010?

**Question 4**

What percentage of Alaska's population did not live in a city or town in 2012?

**Question 5**

What percentage of Alaska's population lived in a city or CDP in 2010?

**Question 6**

Which five areas have not been confirmed as CDPs by the Census Bureau?

**Question 7**

Which seven CDPs were included in the 1982 census?

**Text number 45**

The Alaska State Police are the police force of the State of Alaska. They have a long and storied history, but they were not an official organization until 1941. Before the police force was officially organized, Alaska's law enforcement was handled by various federal agencies. Larger cities usually have their own local police, and some villages rely on "Public Safety Officers" who have police training but do not carry firearms. In much of the state, police officers are the only available police force. In addition to enforcing traffic and criminal laws, wildlife and game police enforce hunting and fishing regulations. Because of their varied and wide-ranging tasks in the field, troopers have a wide variety of land, air and water patrol vehicles at their disposal.

**Question 0**

In what year did the Alaska State Troopers become an official organization?

**Question 1**

What is the difference between being a "public security officer" and being a police officer?

**Question 2**

What do wildlife managers regulate?

**Question 3**

What kind of vehicles do troopers use?

**Question 4**

In what year did the Alaska State Troopers become an unofficial organization?

**Question 5**

In what year did the Alaska State Troopers not become an official organization?

**Question 6**

How is a "public security officer" different from a police officer?

**Question 7**

What is not regulated by wildlife authorities?

**Question 8**

What kind of vehicles do troopers not use?

**Text number 46**

Alaska has many well-established music festivals, including the Alaska Folk Festival, Fairbanks Summer Arts Festival, Anchorage Folk Festival, Athabascan Old-Time Fiddling Festival, Sitka Jazz Festival and Sitka Summer Music Festival. Alaska's best-known orchestra is the Anchorage Symphony Orchestra, but the Fairbanks Symphony Orchestra and the Juneau Symphony Orchestra are also notable. The Anchorage Opera is currently the only professional opera company in the state, although there are also several volunteer and semi-professional organisations in the state.

**Question 0**

What is the most important orchestra in Alaska?

**Question 1**

Which company is Alaska's only professional opera company?

**Question 2**

What are some of the major music festivals in Alaska?

**Question 3**

What is not the most famous orchestra in Alaska?

**Question 4**

What is the least known orchestra in Alaska?

**Question 5**

Which company is not Alaska's only professional opera company?

**Question 6**

Which company is Alaska's only amateur opera?

**Question 7**

What are some of the most overlooked music festivals in Alaska?

**Text number 47**

One of the most famous films shot in Alaska is MGM's Eskimo/Mala The Magnificent, starring Alaska Native Ray Mala. In 1932, an expedition from MGM's Hollywood studios went to Alaska to film what was then called "The Biggest Picture Ever Made". Upon arrival in Alaska, they set up "Camp Hollywood" in northwest Alaska, where they lived during the filming. Louis B. Mayer spared no expense despite the remote location, and even hired a chef from the Hotel Roosevelt in Hollywood to prepare meals.

**Question 0**

Which Alaska Native also starred in a film set in Alaska?

**Question 1**

Where did the cast of The Great Set live while they were in Alaska?

**Question 2**

In what area of Alaska was Camp Hollywood located?

**Question 3**

Which chef was hired to prepare meals for the cast of The Magnificent?

**Question 4**

Which Alaska Native starred in a film not set in Alaska?

**Question 5**

Didn't the actors on the set of The Great One live in Alaska while they were there?

**Question 6**

In which area of Alaska was Camp Hollywood not located?

**Question 7**

In what area of Alaska was Camp Alaska located?

**Question 8**

Which chef was fired for preparing meals for the cast of The Magnificent?

**Document number 305**

**Text number 0**

Popper is known for his rejection of classical inductive views of the scientific method in favour of empirical falsification: in empirical science, a theory can never be proven, but it can be falsified, which means that it can and must be tested by conclusive experiments. He used the black swan fallacy to discuss falsification. If the result of an experiment contradicts the theory, one should refrain from an ad hoc manoeuvre that circumvents the contradiction only by making it less falsifiable. Popper is also known for his opposition to the classical reason-centred conception of knowledge, which he replaced with critical rationalism, 'the first non-reason-centred critical philosophy in the history of philosophy'.

**Question 0**

What classical views of the scientific method did Popper reject?

**Question 1**

Who proposed empirical falsification as a key principle of the scientific method?

**Question 2**

What does it take to falsify a scientific theory?

**Question 3**

Which concept of knowledge did Popper deny?

**Question 4**

What is the term for the non-justified theory of Popper's critique?

**Question 5**

Who is known for adopting classical inductive views?

**Question 6**

Who abolished empirical falsification as a key principle of the scientific method?

**Question 7**

What was discussed with the white swan fallacy?

**Question 8**

What should a scientist do if an experiment confirms a theory?

**Question 9**

Who was known for advocating the classical concept of reasoning about knowledge?

**Text number 1**

Karl Popper was born in Vienna (then Austria-Hungary) in 1902 to upper middle-class parents. All of Karl Popper's grandparents were Jewish, but the Popper family converted to Lutheranism before Karl was born, and so he was baptised as a Lutheran. They understood this as part of cultural assimilation, not as an expression of devout faith. Karl's father Simon Siegmund Carl Popper was a Bohemian lawyer and doctor of law at the University of Vienna, and his mother Jenny Schiff was of Silesian and Hungarian descent. After settling in Vienna, the Poppers made a rapid social rise in Viennese society: Simon Siegmund Carl became a partner in the law firm of Herr Grübl, the liberal mayor of Vienna, and after Grübl's death in 1898, Simon took over the firm. (Malachi Hacohen writes that Herr Grübl's first name was Raimund, after which Karl took his middle name. Popper himself, in his autobiography, incorrectly recalls that Herr Grübl's first name was Carl). His father was a bibliophile whose personal library contained between 12 000 and 14 000 volumes. Popper inherited both the library and the disposition from him.

**Question 0**

In which city was Karl Popper born?

**Question 1**

What religion did Popper's family follow in his youth?

**Question 2**

Whose law firm did Popper's father join in Vienna?

**Question 3**

How many staples did Popper's father keep in his library?

**Question 4**

Which bookish inclination did Popper inherit from his father?

**Question 5**

What year did Karl Popper die?

**Question 6**

Where did the Popper family turn after the birth of Karl?

**Question 7**

What was Karl Popper's mother's occupation?

**Question 8**

Who took over the business after Simon's death?

**Question 9**

How many books did Karl's mother have in her library?

**Text number 2**

Popper left school at 16 to attend lectures in mathematics, physics, philosophy, psychology and the history of music as a visiting student at the University of Vienna. In 1919 Popper became interested in Marxism and later joined the Socialist School Students' Association. He also became a member of the Austrian Social Democratic Workers' Party, at that time a party that had fully embraced Marxist ideology. After the Hörlgasse street clash of 15 June 1919, when eight of his unarmed party comrades were shot dead by the police, he became disillusioned with what he considered Marx's 'pseudo-scientific' historical materialism, abandoned the ideology and remained a lifelong supporter of social liberalism.

**Question 0**

At what age did Popper first go to university?

**Question 1**

What political doctrine interested Popper in 1919?

**Question 2**

Which Austrian political party did Popper join as a young man?

**Question 3**

In which event did several of Poppers' Marxist political comrades die?

**Question 4**

What political philosophy did Popper stick to after his move away from Marxism?

**Question 5**

At what age did Popper go to school?

**Question 6**

When did Popper become disillusioned with social liberalism?

**Question 7**

On what subject did Popper never attend a lecture?

**Question 8**

Which party rejected Marxist ideology at that time?

**Question 9**

How many police officers were shot in the Horlgasse street fight?

**Text number 3**

He worked for a short time in road construction, but could not stand the hard work. He continued at university as a visiting student and started a carpentry apprenticeship, which he completed as a journeyman. At the time, he dreamed of starting a nursery school for children and assumed that his furniture making skills could be useful. He then volunteered at a children's clinic run by psychoanalyst Alfred Adler. In 1922, he passed his matriculation exams at second chance and was eventually admitted to university as a regular student. He graduated as an elementary school teacher in 1924 and started working in an after-school club for socially vulnerable children. In 1925 he moved to the newly founded Pädagogisches Institut and continued his studies in philosophy and psychology. Around the same time, he began dating Josefine Anna Henninger, who later became his wife.

**Question 0**

As an apprentice, what profession did Popper start?

**Question 1**

What kind of institution did Popper plan to open that would benefit from his furniture-making skills?

**Question 2**

Which psychoanalyst's clinics did Popper volunteer at?

**Question 3**

When did Popper become an ordinary student and no longer a guest at university?

**Question 4**

What was Popper's vocation that led him to take his university degree?

**Question 5**

What was easy for Popper?

**Question 6**

Who owned the adult clinic where Popper worked as a volunteer?

**Question 7**

When did Popper leave the Pädagogisches Institut?

**Question 8**

When did Popper join the university as a visiting student?

**Question 9**

When did Popper graduate as a university teacher?

**Text number 4**

In 1928, he obtained his doctorate in psychology under Karl Bühler. The title of his dissertation was "Die Methodenfrage der Denkpsychologie" (The Methodological Question of Cognitive Psychology). In 1929 he was authorised to teach mathematics and physics at secondary school, which he did. He married his colleague Josefine Anna Henninger (1906-1985) in 1930 and, fearing the rise of Nazism and the threat of the Anschluss, began to spend his evenings and nights writing his first book, Die beiden Grundprobleme der Erkenntnistheorie (The Two Basic Problems of Epistemology). He had to publish it in order to gain some academic standing in a country that was safe for people of Jewish descent. He did not, however, eventually publish the two-volume work, but a condensed version of it, Logik der Forschung (Logic of Scientific Discovery), in 1934, with new material. In it he criticised psychologism, naturalism, inductionism and logical positivism, and put forward his theory of possible falsifiability as a criterion for distinguishing science from non-science. In 1935 and 1936 he took unpaid leave to go to the United Kingdom on a study trip.

**Question 0**

Who supervised Popper's PhD?

**Question 1**

What is the English translation of the title of Popper's dissertation?

**Question 2**

What subjects was Popper allowed to teach in high school in 1929?

**Question 3**

Whose rise to power led Popper to publish his work in the hope of gaining academic status abroad?

**Question 4**

In which work, published in 1934, did Popper present his theories on falsifiability?

**Question 5**

When did Karl Buhler obtain his doctorate in psychology?

**Question 6**

What was the title of Buhler's dissertation?

**Question 7**

When was Popper banned from teaching maths in high school?

**Question 8**

What was the title of Popper's last book?

**Question 9**

What kind of holiday did Popper take to Italy?

**Text number 5**

In 1937, Popper finally managed to get a job that allowed him to move to New Zealand, where he became a lecturer in philosophy at the University of New Zealand's Canterbury University College in Christchurch. Here he wrote his influential work The Open Society and its Enemies. In Dunedin he met John Carew Eccles, Professor of Physiology, with whom he formed a lifelong friendship. After the Second World War, in 1946, he moved to the UK and became a Reader in Logic and Scientific Method at the London School of Economics. Three years later, in 1949, he was appointed Professor of Logic and Scientific Method at the University of London. Popper was President of the Aristotelian Society from 1958 to 1959. He retired from academic life in 1969, although he remained intellectually active for the rest of his life. In 1985 he returned to Austria to be with his wife in the last months of her life; she died in November that year. When the Ludwig Boltzmann Society failed to secure him as head of its newly established Philosophy of Science Department, he returned to the UK again in 1986 and settled in Kenley, Surrey.

**Question 0**

Where did Popper move to in 1937?

**Question 1**

Where was Popper's academic base in New Zealand?

**Question 2**

Which lifelong friend did Popper make in Dunedin?

**Question 3**

What areas of philosophy did Popper teach at the London School of Economics?

**Question 4**

Which Austrian school's failure to give Popper the post of director led him to return to the UK at the end of his life?

**Question 5**

In what year did Popper become a biology lecturer?

**Question 6**

What was the name of John Carew Eccles' influential work?

**Question 7**

What month was Popper's wife born?

**Question 8**

In what year did John Carew Eccles move to the UK?

**Question 9**

At which university was Popper appointed professor of astronomy?

**Text number 6**

Popper died of "complications of cancer, pneumonia and renal failure" in Kenley at the age of 92 on 17 September 1994. He had been working steadily on his philosophy until two weeks earlier when he suddenly became terminally ill. After cremation, his ashes were taken to Vienna and buried in the Lainzer cemetery next to the ORF Centre, where his wife Josefine Anna Popper (Hennie) was already buried. Popper's estate is administered by his secretary and personal assistant Melitta Mew and her husband Raymond. Popper's manuscripts went to the Hoover Institution at Stanford University, partly during his lifetime and partly as additional material after his death. The University of Klagenfurt holds Popper's library, including his valuable bibliography, as well as hard copies of the original Hoover material and microfilms of additional material. Most of the remainder of the estate was transferred to the Karl Popper Charitable Trust. In October 2008, the University of Klagenfurt acquired the copyright of the estate.

**Question 0**

How old was Popper when he died?

**Question 1**

Where were Popper's ashes placed in the Vienna cemetery?

**Question 2**

Where are Popper's manuscripts kept now?

**Question 3**

Where is the content of the Popper Library at the university?

**Question 4**

What was Popper's wife's name?

**Question 5**

How old was Josefine Anna Popper when she died?

**Question 6**

Where did Popper's wife die?

**Question 7**

Whose manuscripts were sent to the University of London?

**Question 8**

Which university has Melitta Mew's library?

**Question 9**

When did the University of Klagenfurt lose its copyright from the estate?

**Text number 7**

Popper has received numerous awards and honours in his field, including the Lippincott Award from the American Political Science Association, the Sonning Prize, the Otto Hahn Peace Medal from the German UN Association in Berlin, and fellowships from the Royal Society, the British Academy, the London School of Economics, King's College, Darwin College, Cambridge and Charles University in Prague. Austria awarded him the Gold Grand Medal of Honour for services to the Republic of Austria in 1986 and the Federal Republic of Germany awarded him the Cross of Merit with the Grand Cross Star and the Knight's Cross and the Peace Cross Pour le Mérite. The International Academy of Humanism awarded him the Humanist Prize. He was knighted by Queen Elizabeth II in 1965 and elected a Fellow of the Royal Society in 1976. He was awarded the Companion of Honour in 1982.

**Question 0**

What award did Popper receive from the American Political Science Association?

**Question 1**

What recognition did Austria give Popper in 1986?

**Question 2**

Who gave Popper the Humanities Prize?

**Question 3**

Which English monarch will knight Popper?

**Question 4**

Which central European university made Popper a fellow?

**Question 5**

When will King George knight Popper?

**Question 6**

What honour did Popper never win?

**Question 7**

What prize did Russia send Popper?

**Question 8**

When was Popper expelled from the Royal Society?

**Question 9**

Which prize did Popper lose in 1982?

**Text number 8**

Other prizes and honours awarded to Popper include the City of Vienna Prize for the Humanities (1965), the Karl Renner Prize (1978), the Austrian Order of Science and Art (1980), the Dr Leopold Lucas Prize (1981), the City of Vienna Ring of Honour (1983) and the Premio Internazionale of the Italian Federico Nietzsche Association (1988). In 1992, he was awarded the Kyoto Prize for Art and Philosophy for his "symbol of the open spirit of the 20th century" and his "enormous influence on the formation of the modern intellectual climate".

**Question 0**

What year did Popper win the Karl Renner Prize?

**Question 1**

In 1983, Popper was a member of which city's Roll of Honour?

**Question 2**

Which Japanese Foundation prize did Popper win in 1992?

**Question 3**

What year did Popper win the Dr Leopold Lucas Prize?

**Question 4**

What year did Popper win the Berlin City Humanities Prize?

**Question 5**

Which prize did Popper win in 1970?

**Question 6**

Which American Foundation prize did Popper win in 1992?

**Question 7**

Why was Popper awarded a ring of honour by the City of Vienna?

**Question 8**

Which prize was awarded to Karl Renner in 1981?

**Text number 9**

Karl Popper's rejection of Marxism during his teenage years left a deep mark on his thinking. He had once joined a socialist association, and for a few months in 1919 he considered himself a communist. During this period he became familiar with Marxist views on economics, class warfare and history. Although he quickly became disillusioned with Marxism, his flirtation with ideology led him to distance himself from those who believed that bloodshed was necessary for revolution. He realised that the sacrifice of human life required extreme caution in thought and action.

**Question 0**

Which political philosophy that attracted Popper as a teenager had a profound influence on his thinking?

**Question 1**

For how many years did Popper consider himself a communist?

**Question 2**

At what point in his life did Popper become most influenced by Marxist thought?

**Question 3**

What did Popper think of Marxism only a short time after he had been in contact with other Marxists?

**Question 4**

How did Popper's rejection of Marxism affect him as an adult?

**Question 5**

What year did Popper consider himself a fascist for a few months?

**Question 6**

Which ideology never disappointed Popper?

**Question 7**

With whom was Popper in close collaboration?

**Question 8**

When did Popper think it was unnecessary to be cautious?

**Text number 10**

The failure of the democratic parties to prevent the rise of fascism in Austrian politics in the 1920s and 1930s traumatised Popper. He suffered the immediate consequences of this failure, as the events following the Anschluss, the annexation of Austria to the German Reich in 1938, forced him into permanent exile. His most important social science works - The Poverty of Historicism (1944) and The Open Society and Its Enemies (1945) - were inspired by his reflections on the events of his time and were in a sense a reaction against the totalitarian ideologies that dominated Central European politics at the time. In his books, he defended democratic liberalism as a social and political philosophy. They were also broadly critical of all the philosophical premises underpinning all forms of totalitarianism.

**Question 0**

Which political ideology dominated Austrian politics in the decades before the Second World War?

**Question 1**

What key event in 1938 drove Popper into exile from Austria?

**Question 2**

What political ideology do Popper's major works defend?

**Question 3**

What form of political organisation does Popper's work mainly criticise?

**Question 4**

What was the Anschluss?

**Question 5**

What prevented fascism from taking over Austrian politics?

**Question 6**

During which years was fascism prevented from taking power?

**Question 7**

What forced Popper to return from exile?

**Question 8**

What was one of Popper's least important works?

**Question 9**

Whose books criticised democratic liberalism as a social and political philosophy?

**Text number 11**

Popper reflected on the stark contrast between the non-scientific nature of Freud's and Adler's theories in psychology and the revolution in physics brought about by Einstein's theory of relativity in the early 20th century. For Popper, Einstein's theory, as a theory based on scientific thought and method, was highly 'risky' in the sense that it was possible to deduce consequences that were highly improbable in the light of the Newtonian physics prevailing at the time (for example, that light deviates towards solid bodies - confirmed by Eddington's experiments in 1919) and which, if proven wrong, would falsify the whole theory. Conversely, nothing could, even in principle, disprove psychoanalytic theories. Thus he came to the conclusion that psychoanalytic theories had more in common with primitive myths than with genuine science.

**Question 0**

Which two important psychologies were unscientific theories in Popper's view?

**Question 1**

Whose recent breakthrough in physics did Popper regard as paradigmatic science?

**Question 2**

What did Popper think was the property of relativity that made it a true science?

**Question 3**

What did Popper think psychoanalytic theory shared more features than real science ?

**Question 4**

What could not be done with the psychoanalytic theory that Popper considered crucial to genuine science?

**Question 5**

When did Adler start the revolution in physics?

**Question 6**

What did Freud think Einstein's theory was?

**Question 7**

When did Popper's experiments confirm that light bends into solid objects?

**Question 8**

Who would have thought that psychoanalytic theories would have more in common with real science than with myths?

**Question 9**

In which field did Einstein start a revolution at the end of the 20th century?

**Text number 12**

This led Popper to conclude that what he considered to be the major strengths of psychoanalytic theories were in fact their weaknesses. Psychoanalytic theories were designed in such a way that they were able to refute all criticism and provide an explanation for all possible forms of human behaviour. The very nature of such theories made it impossible for any criticism or experiment - even in principle - to disprove them. This insight had an important consequence when Popper later dealt with the problem of the demarcation of the philosophy of science, for it led him to conclude that the strength of a scientific theory lies in the fact that it is both susceptible to falsification and, in fact, not falsifiable by criticism. He argued that if a theory cannot in principle be falsified by criticism, it is not a scientific theory.

**Question 0**

According to Popper, a theory is only scientific if it is susceptible to what?

**Question 1**

Which key elements of science are ineffective when applied to non-scientific theories?

**Question 2**

How did Popper characterise the broad applicability of psychoanalytic theory and its immunity to criticism?

**Question 3**

Who thought that the weaknesses of psychoanalytic theories were actually strengths?

**Question 4**

What made it possible to disprove psychoanalytic theories?

**Question 5**

Who has never addressed the problem of the limits of philosophy of science?

**Question 6**

Where does Popper see the weakness of scientific theory?

**Text number 13**

Popper used the term "critical rationalism" to describe his philosophy. In terms of scientific method, the term refers to his rejection of classical empiricism and the classical observational-inductive account of science that had developed from it. Popper strongly opposed the latter, arguing that scientific theories are abstract in nature and can only be tested indirectly by reference to their consequences. He also argued that scientific theories, and human knowledge in general, are inevitably subjective or hypothetical, and that they are the product of creative imagination in solving problems that have arisen in particular historical-cultural contexts.

**Question 0**

What term did Popper use for his philosophy?

**Question 1**

Which scientific method did Popper reject?

**Question 2**

What was Popper's position on classical empiricism?

**Question 3**

What, according to Popper, is the only way to test scientific theories, since they are inevitably abstract?

**Question 4**

What term did Einstein use to describe his philosophy?

**Question 5**

What is critical rationalism?

**Question 6**

What did Popper think was concrete in nature?

**Question 7**

What did Popper think could only be tested directly?

**Question 8**

Who advocated the classical observationalist-inductivist view of science?

**Text number 14**

Logically, no amount of positive results at the level of experimental testing can confirm a scientific theory, but a single counterfactual is logically decisive: it disproves the theory from which the implication is derived. To say that a particular statement (e.g., a legal statement of some scientific theory) - [call it "T"] - is "falsifiable" does not mean that "T" is false. Rather, it means that if "T" is false, then (in principle) "T" can be disproved by observation or experiment. Popper's explanation of the logical asymmetry between verifiability and falsifiability is at the heart of his philosophy of science. It also inspired him to use falsifiability as a criterion for distinguishing between what is and what is not genuinely scientific: a theory should be considered scientific if and only if it is falsifiable. This led him to oppose the claims of both psychoanalysis and modern Marxism to scientificity on the grounds that their theories are not falsifiable.

**Question 0**

Popper pointed out an important logical asymmetry between which two concepts?

**Question 1**

What, according to Popper, distinguishes a scientific theory from a non-scientific one?

**Question 2**

Which political theory did Popper say did not meet his criteria for falsifiability?

**Question 3**

Which branch of psychology did Popper criticise for not producing a falsifiable theory?

**Question 4**

Between which two concepts did Popper show logical symmetry?

**Question 5**

What is the essence of Einstein's philosophy of science?

**Question 6**

What prevented Popper from using falsifiability as a criterion for distinguishing between scientific and non-scientific matters?

**Question 7**

Which ideology did Popper elevate to scientific status?

**Question 8**

Which ideology did Popper claim could be falsified?

**Text number 15**

In All Life is Problem Solving, Popper sought to explain the apparent progress of scientific knowledge - how our understanding of the universe seems to improve over time. The problem stems from his view that theories, even the best theories, cannot be proven true by scientific testing, but can only be falsified. Here again, the word 'falsified' does not mean that something is 'falsified', but that something can (or can be) disproved by observation or experiment. Some things simply cannot be proven false, and therefore cannot be falsified. If this is the case, how does the growth of science seem to lead to the growth of knowledge? For Popper, the progress of scientific knowledge is a process of evolution, characterised by his formula:

**Question 0**

Which of Popper's works deals with the improvement of scientific understanding of the world over time?

**Question 1**

What process did Popper describe as the growth of scientific understanding?

**Question 2**

What part of scientific theory, according to Popper, can never be fully proven?

**Question 3**

In which book did Popper try to explain the process of written knowledge?

**Question 4**

Who explained why our understanding of the universe seems to be deteriorating over time?

**Question 5**

Which part of the theories can be proven by scientific testing?

**Question 6**

What suggests that something is "fake"?

**Question 7**

What was the progress of scientific knowledge for Einstein?

**Text number 16**

In response to a given problem (), several competing hypotheses or tentative theories () are systematically falsified as rigorously as possible. This process, error elimination (), performs a function in science similar to that performed by natural selection in biological evolution. Theories that better survive the process of disconfirmation are not truer, but rather more 'fit' - that is, more applicable to the problem at hand (). Thus, just as the biological fitness of a species does not guarantee its continued survival, neither does rigorous testing protect a scientific theory from being disconfirmed in the future. However, since it appears that the engine of biological evolution has, over many generations, produced adaptive traits capable of coping with increasingly complex survival problems, likewise the evolution of theories through the scientific method may, in Popper's view, reflect a kind of progress: towards ever more interesting problems (). In Popper's view, scientific knowledge progresses towards bigger and bigger problems through an interaction between initial theories (conjectures) and the elimination (refutation) of errors, very much like the interaction between genetic variation and natural selection.

**Question 0**

Which scientific process is similar to natural selection in nature?

**Question 1**

What better description for theories that have passed scientific scrutiny than "more true"?

**Question 2**

What is another term for the preliminary theories that enter the process of debugging science?

**Question 3**

What does Popper believe scientific understanding is evolving towards?

**Question 4**

What cannot be rigorously attempted to falsify?

**Question 5**

What serves a different purpose in biological evolution than eliminating errors in science?

**Question 6**

Which theories are less applicable to the situation at hand?

**Question 7**

What produces adaptive traits that deal only with simple coping problems?

**Question 8**

Who thinks that the development of theories does not reflect a certain kind of progress?

**Text number 17**

One of his contributions to philosophy is that he claims to have solved the philosophical problem of induction. He states that although there is no way to prove that the sun rises, it is possible to formulate a theory that the sun rises every day; if it does not rise on a particular day, the theory is falsified and must be replaced by another theory. Until that day, there is no need to reject the assumption that the theory is true. Nor, according to Popper, is it reasonable to make instead the more complex assumption that the sun rises on a certain day but ceases to rise on the following day, or similar claims with additional conditions.

**Question 0**

Popper's ideas on falsification offer a solution to the philosophical problem of what kind of scientific reasoning?

**Question 1**

Which parts of a theory are redundant until a simple theory is falsified?

**Question 2**

Who proposed a solution to the philosophical problem of induction, which centres on falsifiability?

**Question 3**

Who never claimed to have solved the philosophical problem of induction?

**Question 4**

What theory cannot be formulated?

**Question 5**

What would confirm the theory that the sun rises?

**Question 6**

What is rational according to Popper?

**Question 7**

Who said it is reasonable to assume that the sun will only rise on a certain day?

**Text number 18**

Popper argued that rationality is not limited to the realm of empirical or scientific theories, but is only a special case of a general method of criticism, a method of finding and eliminating contradictions in knowledge without ad hoc measures. According to this view, rational discussion of metaphysical ideas, moral values and even purposes is possible. Popper's disciple W.W. Bartley III attempted to radicalize this idea, making the controversial claim that not only can critique go beyond empirical knowledge, but everything can be rationally critiqued.

**Question 0**

Popper's rationalist approach is opposed to what technique is sometimes used to resolve contradictions in information?

**Question 1**

Which of Popper's students argued that rational critique should be applied in the broadest sense?

**Question 2**

According to Popper's disciple W.W. Bartley III, what kind of knowledge is not the only area of rational criticism?

**Question 3**

Who considers rationality to be limited to the realm of empirical or scientific theories?

**Question 4**

What, in this view, cannot be discussed in a rational way?

**Question 5**

Who was a student of W.W. Bartley III?

**Question 6**

What was W.W. Bartley III's indisputable claim?

**Text number 19**

Popper, an opponent of justification, believes that traditional philosophy is misled by the false principle of sufficient reason. In his view, no presupposition can or need ever be justified, so lack of justification is no reason for doubt. Instead, theories should be tested and examined. The aim is not to bless theories with claims of certainty or legitimacy, but to remove errors from them. He writes: "There are no good positive arguments, and we do not need them [...] But [philosophers] cannot seem to get [themselves] to believe that this is my opinion, let alone that it is correct" (The Philosophy of Karl Popper, p. 1043).

**Question 0**

What, according to Popper, is not a reason for doubt?

**Question 1**

Against which principle of traditional philosophy did Popper take an anti-justificationist position?

**Question 2**

What does Popper think is essential to do with theories instead of justifying them?

**Question 3**

What does Popper think we don't need to look for in theories?

**Question 4**

Who was justified?

**Question 5**

What did Popper think needed to be justified?

**Question 6**

What is the basis for the suspicion?

**Question 7**

Who believed that there are good positive reasons?

**Question 8**

What does Popper think should never be tested or studied?

**Text number 20**

In his books The Open Society and Its Enemies and The Poverty of Historicism, Popper criticised historicism and defended the "open society". Popper regarded historicism as a theory according to which history develops inexorably and in accordance with necessarily knowable general laws towards a predetermined end. He argued that this view is the main theoretical premise underpinning most forms of authoritarianism and totalitarianism. He argued that historicism is based on erroneous assumptions about the nature of scientific law and prediction. Since the growth of human knowledge is a causal factor in the development of human history, and since "no society can scientifically predict its own future states of knowledge", it follows, he argued, that human history cannot be scientifically predicted. For Popper, metaphysical and historical indeterminism go hand in hand.

**Question 0**

Where in Popper's work was the idea that history has an inevitable course of development criticised?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the view that the development of history is limited by general laws that can be found?

**Question 2**

What political forms did Popper think historicism supported?

**Question 3**

What unpredictable feature of the world did Popper say refutes historicism?

**Question 4**

In which book did Popper defend historicism?

**Question 5**

Who criticises the "open society"?

**Question 6**

What did Einstein consider historicism?

**Question 7**

What did Popper claim was based on correct assumptions about the nature of scientific law and prediction?

**Question 8**

What can predict your own future knowledge states?

**Text number 21**

As early as 1934, Popper wrote of the search for truth as "one of the strongest motives of scientific discovery". Yet in Objective Knowledge (1972) he describes early concerns about the much-criticised concept of truth as equivalence. Then came the semantic theory of truth formulated by the logician Alfred Tarski and published in 1933. Popper writes that he learned in 1935 about the implications of Tarski's theory to his great delight. The theory answered critical objections to truth as equivalence and thus rehabilitated it. The theory also seemed to Popper to support metaphysical realism and the regulative idea of the search for truth.

**Question 0**

Whose theory of truth did Popper read with great interest in 1935?

**Question 1**

Which theory of interest to Popper was published by Alfred Tarski in 1933?

**Question 2**

Tarski's theory overcame certain objections to what concept of truth?

**Question 3**

What kind of realism did Popper think Tarski's theory supported?

**Question 4**

What was Popper writing about before 1934?

**Question 5**

Whose theory of truth was Alfred Tarski reading in 1935?

**Question 6**

What seemed to Popper to refute the regulative idea of metaphysical realism and the search for truth?

**Question 7**

What did Tarski write about the search for truth in 1934?

**Question 8**

Which book by Alfred Tarski was published in 1972?

**Text number 22**

According to this theory, the truth conditions of a sentence and the sentences themselves are part of the metalanguage. Thus, for example, the sentence "The snow is white" is true if and only if the snow is white. Although many philosophers have interpreted and continue to interpret Tarski's theory as a deflationary theory, Popper calls it a theory in which "is true" is replaced by "corresponds to the facts". He bases this interpretation on the fact that examples like the one described above refer to two things: the claims and the facts to which they refer. He identifies Tarski's formulation of the truth-conditions of sentences as the introduction of a "metalinguistic predicate" and distinguishes the following cases:

**Question 0**

What term do philosophers give to the theory of truth proposed by Tarski?

**Question 1**

In what way does Popper say that Tarski's theory replaces the predicate "is true"?

**Question 2**

What concept did Tarski introduce to discuss the conditions for the truthfulness of claims?

**Question 3**

What two things does Popper claim Tarski's theory contains for assessing truth?

**Question 4**

What is not part of meta-language?

**Question 5**

When is the phrase "The snow is white" not true?

**Question 6**

What does Popper interpret as deflationary theory?

**Question 7**

On what does Tarski base his interpretation of Popper?

**Question 8**

What does Tarski mean by Popper's formulation of the truth-conditions of propositions?

**Text number 23**

On this basis, and on the basis of the logical content of propositions (where logical content is inversely proportional to probability), Popper developed the important concept of truthfulness or "truthfulness". Verisimilitude is based on the intuitive idea that claims or hypotheses in scientific theories can be objectively measured in terms of the amount of truth and untruth they contain. In this way, one theory can be judged as more or less true than another on quantitative grounds which, as Popper strongly emphasises, have nothing to do with 'subjective probabilities' or other purely 'epistemic' considerations.

**Question 0**

What term does Popper use that roughly translates as "truthfulness"?

**Question 1**

What probabilities does Poppers' notion of plausibility leave no room for when evaluating scientific hypotheses?

**Question 2**

Which aspects of the category did Popper not consider important in scientific measurement?

**Question 3**

To what in Popper's reasoning is the logical content of hypotheses inversely proportional?

**Question 4**

Which term means the opposite of truthfulness?

**Question 5**

What was Popper's meaningless concept?

**Question 6**

Which can never be judged as more or less true than the other in quantitative terms?

**Question 7**

What does Popper stress that subjective probabilities have to do with a lot?

**Text number 24**

For Popper, knowledge was objective both in the sense that it was objectively true (or truth-like) and in the sense that knowledge had an ontological status (i.e. knowledge as object) independent of the knowing subject (Objective Knowledge: An Evolutionary Approach, 1972). He proposed three worlds: world one is the physical world, or physical states; world two is the world of mind, or mental states, ideas and perceptions; and world three is human knowledge, which manifests itself in its many forms, or products of the second world, manifested in the materials of the first world (i.e. books, papers, paintings, symphonies and all the products of the human mind). The third world was, according to him, the product of individual human beings in exactly the same sense as the animal path is the product of individual animals, and as such has an existence and development independent of individual knowing subjects. The influence of the third world on the individual human mind (world two) is, according to him, at least as powerful as that of the first world. In other words, the knowledge possessed by a particular individual mind owes at least as much to the accumulated and embodied total richness of human knowledge as it does to the world of immediate experience. As such, the growth of human knowledge can be said to depend on the independent development of the Third World. Many contemporary philosophers, such as Daniel Dennett, have not embraced Popper's assumption of the Third World, mainly, it seems, because it resembles the dualism of mind and body.

**Question 0**

What did Popper claim to be objective and subject-independent?

**Question 1**

How many different worlds or realities did Popper distinguish in Objective Knowledge?

**Question 2**

What in Popper's theory constituted world one?

**Question 3**

Who produced the content of the Third World?

**Question 4**

Which world development corresponds to the growth of human knowledge?

**Question 5**

What was not objective for Popper?

**Question 6**

In which book did Popper say that knowledge depends on the knowing subject?

**Question 7**

How many different worlds or realities did Einstein define in Objective Knowledge?

**Question 8**

What constituted the fourth world in Popper's theory?

**Question 9**

What things did Popper say were not a product of the second world, manifested in the first world?

**Text number 25**

The creation-evolution controversy in the United States raises the question of whether creationist ideas can legitimately be called science and whether evolution itself can legitimately be called science. In the debate, both sides and even the courts have often invoked Popper's falsifiability criterion in their decisions (see the Daubert standard). In this context, passages written by Popper are often quoted in which he himself addresses such questions. For example, he famously stated that 'Darwinism is not a testable scientific theory, but a metaphysical research programme - a possible framework for testable scientific theories'. He continued:

**Question 0**

What is Popper's concept often referred to in discussions of creation-evolution?

**Question 1**

What kind of research programme did Popper call Darwinism?

**Question 2**

What expression did Popper use to describe the relationship of Darwinism to real falsifiable theories?

**Question 3**

Popper's philosophy is often applied to the political debate on biological science.

**Question 4**

What questions are raised by the creation-evolution controversy in Canada?

**Question 5**

What has never been invoked by either side of the debate?

**Question 6**

Where is there no controversy between creation and evolution?

**Question 7**

How often are Darwin's writings quoted in the creation-evolution debate?

**Question 8**

Who said that Darwinism is a testable scientific theory?

**Text number 26**

Popper had his own sophisticated views on evolution, which go far beyond what the oft-quoted passages say. Popper actually agreed with some of the views of both creationists and naturalists, but also disagreed with both views on crucial aspects. Popper understood the universe as a creative entity that invents new things, including life, but without the need for anything like a god, especially one who pulls the strings behind the curtain. He said that evolution, as creationists say, must be goal-driven, but he disagreed with their view that the imposition of these goals on the stage of life was necessarily the hand of a god.

**Question 0**

Along with some creationists, Popper believed that evolution must have what quality in its progress?

**Question 1**

Popper disagreed with the creationists about whose hand should guide evolution?

**Question 2**

What kind of entity did Popper consider the universe to be?

**Question 3**

What did Popper not have sophisticated views on?

**Question 4**

How did Darwin understand the universe?

**Question 5**

Who thought that the universe required a god?

**Question 6**

What went no further than what was said in the often quoted passages?

**Question 7**

Who thought that evolution does not work in a goal-directed way?

**Text number 27**

Instead, he formulated a spearhead model of evolution, a version of genetic pluralism. According to this model, living organisms themselves have goals, and act according to those goals, each guided by a central leader. In its most sophisticated form, this is the human brain, but controls also exist in much less sophisticated ways for more complex species such as the amoeba. This control system plays a special role in evolution - it is the "spearhead of evolution". Goals bring purpose to the world. Mutations in the genes that determine the structure of the control organ can then cause drastic changes in behaviour, preferences and goals without affecting the phenotype of the organism. Popper argues that such purely behavioural changes are less likely to be lethal to an organism than drastic changes in phenotype.

**Question 0**

What is the name of Popper's evolutionary model?

**Question 1**

Popper's evolutionary model belongs to which family of models?

**Question 2**

What drives the behaviour of organisms in Popper's biological model?

**Question 3**

What is the major genetic process by which organisms' goals change?

**Question 4**

In which model do living organisms have no targets?

**Question 5**

What is the least evolved form of centrally directed organisms?

**Question 6**

What is a more complex species than the human brain?

**Question 7**

What can't gene mutations change?

**Question 8**

What is more likely to be lethal to an organism than phenotypic changes, according to Popper?

**Text number 28**

Popper contrasts his view with his notion of a "hopeful monster" with large phenotypic mutations, calling it a "hopeful behavioural monster". When behaviour is radically altered, small but rapid phenotypic changes follow, making the organism more suited to its altered goals. Thus it appears that the phenotype is being changed by some invisible hand, even though it is just natural selection acting in concert with the new behaviour. According to this hypothesis, for example, the giraffe's eating habits must have changed before its elongated neck evolved. Popper contrasted this view with 'evolution from within' or 'active Darwinism' (an organism actively trying to find new ways of life and trying to conquer new ecological niches) and naturalistic 'evolution from without' (which presents a picture of a hostile environment that is simply trying to kill off a mostly passive organism or perhaps isolate some of its groups).

**Question 0**

Which view of evolution that emphasises major changes in the phenotypes of organisms does Popper oppose?

**Question 1**

Which part of organisms will change most radically in Popper's evolutionary process?

**Question 2**

How does Popper describe the "monsters" that evolve in his view of evolutionary processes?

**Question 3**

What kind of Darwinism does Popper advocate, as opposed to naturalism?

**Question 4**

What happens when behaviour changes only slightly?

**Question 5**

What causes large and slow changes in phenotype?

**Question 6**

What changed after giraffes developed a long neck?

**Question 7**

What did Darwin compare "active Darwinism" to?

**Text number 29**

On the creation-evolution controversy, Popper wrote that he considered it "a somewhat sensational clash between the brilliant scientific hypothesis of the history of the various animal and vegetable species on earth, and an older metaphysical theory which happened to be part of an established religious belief".E. Raven, in Science, Religion, and the Future, 1943, calls this contradiction "a storm in the Victorian teacup"; though the force of this remark is perhaps somewhat weakened by the fact that he draws attention to the vapours still rising from the cup - the great systems of evolutionary philosophy produced by Bergson, Whitehead, Smuts and others."

**Question 0**

Which professor quoted by Popper described the debate between creation and evolution as "a storm in a Victorian teacup"?

**Question 1**

Which science-related controversy did Popper believe received sensationalist publicity because it was related to religion?

**Question 2**

In what year did C.E. Raven publish the remarks on creation versus evolution quoted by Popper?

**Question 3**

What term does Popper use to describe creationism as a theory?

**Question 4**

Who wrote that the controversy between creation and evolution is not "sensational"?

**Question 5**

Who did Professor Raven say he agreed with?

**Question 6**

In which book did Popper call the conflict "a storm in a Victorian teacup"?

**Question 7**

The year Popper published Science, Religion, and the Future?

**Question 8**

Who felt that Popper's remarks were weakened by his attention to the conflict?

**Text number 30**

In an interview given in 1969, on condition that it be kept secret until his death, Popper summed up his position on God as follows: 'I don't know whether God exists or not. ... Some forms of atheism are arrogant and ignorant and should be rejected, but agnosticism - admitting that we do not know and searching - is quite right. ...". When I look at what I call the gift of life, I feel a gratitude that is in harmony with some religious conceptions of God. However, the moment I even talk about it, I feel embarrassed that I might be doing God wrong by talking about God." He objected to organised religion, saying that "it tends to use the name of God in vain", and pointed out that there is a danger of fanaticism because of religious contradictions: "The whole thing is rooted in myths which may have a kernel of truth but which are not true. Why then should the Jewish myth be true and the Indian and Egyptian myths not?" In an unrelated letter, he stressed his tolerance: "Although I am not for religion, I think we should show respect for all those who believe honestly. "

**Question 0**

In what year did Popper give a secret interview about his views on God?

**Question 1**

Which term did Popper prefer to use for his religious views?

**Question 2**

What issues did Popper believe were at the heart of religious differences and should not cause as much conflict as they do?

**Question 3**

Although he was opposed to organised religion, how did Popper think it should be dealt with?

**Question 4**

When did Popper give an interview on the condition that it be published immediately?

**Question 5**

Who thinks atheism is better than agnosticism?

**Question 6**

What kind of religion did Popper espouse?

**Question 7**

Why did Popper advocate organised religion?

**Question 8**

Who does Popper think should not be respected?

**Text number 31**

Popper played an important role in establishing philosophy of science as a strong and independent discipline within philosophy, and he influenced this through his own prolific and influential works, as well as through his contemporaries and students. Popper founded the Department of Philosophy, Logic and Scientific Method at the London School of Economics in 1946, where he lectured and influenced both Imre Lakatos and Paul Feyerabend, two of the leading philosophers of science of the next generation (Lakatos modified Popper's position significantly:1 and Feyerabend rejected it entirely, but both works are deeply influenced by Popper and address many of the problems Popper posed).

**Question 0**

What area of philosophy did Popper contribute most to?

**Question 1**

Which department did Popper establish at the London School of Economics?

**Question 2**

Which two prominent philosophers of science learned a lot from Popper at the London School of Economics?

**Question 3**

What did Paul Feyerabend finally do to Popper's philosophy of science?

**Question 4**

Where did Popper set up the university's philosophy of science department in 1946?

**Question 5**

Who didn't matter in the philosophy of science?

**Question 6**

When was the Department of Philosophy, Logic and Scientific Method at the London School of Economics abolished?

**Question 7**

Which department did Einstein set up in London in 1946?

**Question 8**

Who is Imre Lakatos lecturing to?

**Question 9**

Which philosopher fully agreed with Popper's unchanging position?

**Text number 32**

Although the influence is disputed, Popper had a long and close friendship with the economist Friedrich Hayek, who was also brought to the London School of Economics from Vienna. Both found support and similarities in each other's work, and often quoted each other, though not unreservedly. In a letter to Hayek in 1944, Popper wrote: 'I think I have learned more from you than from any other living thinker, except perhaps Alfred Tarski. "But Popper has never learned as much as he has from you. Popper dedicated his Conjectures and Refutations to Hayek. Hayek, in turn, dedicated a collection of articles to Popper, Studies in Philosophy, Politics, and Economics, stating in 1982: "...ever since his Logik der Forschung first appeared in 1934, I have been an absolute supporter of his general methodological theory."

**Question 0**

Which other Austrian scholar and friend of Popper also worked close to him at the London School of Economics?

**Question 1**

What was Hayek's academic field?

**Question 2**

In what year did Popper write a letter to Hayek, expressing his intellectual debt to Hayek?

**Question 3**

Who did Popper say was the only thinker who could have influenced him more than Hayek?

**Question 4**

Which of Hayek's publications was dedicated to Popper?

**Question 5**

Who has a long race with Popper?

**Question 6**

Who has never been in contact with Hayek?

**Question 7**

To whom did Hayek write a letter in 1944?

**Question 8**

Who did Alfred Tarski say he learned more from than any other living thinker?

**Question 9**

When did Studies in Philosophy, Politics, and Economics appear?

**Text number 33**

He does not claim that such conclusions are therefore true, or that this reflects the actual methods of any particular scientist. Rather, it is recommended as an essential principle of methodology that leads to slow but steady progress if implemented by a system or community (relative to how well the system or community implements the methodology). It has been suggested that Popper's ideas are often mistaken for a hard logical explanation of truth because they appeared historically at the same time as logical positivism, whose proponents mistook Popper's goals for their own.

**Question 0**

What other contemporaneous school is often confused with Popper's own contribution?

**Question 1**

Popper has stressed that his description of scientific methodology should not be misapplied to whom?

**Question 2**

At what level does Popper show that his view of scientific methodology is valid?

**Question 3**

What progress is science making with the methods Popper describes?

**Question 4**

So what does Popper claim to be true?

**Question 5**

Whose ideas are a logical description of the truth?

**Question 6**

What did not appear at the same time as Popper's ideas?

**Question 7**

What did the proponents of logical positivism mistake for the opposite of their own thinking?

**Question 8**

What progress is science making if it does not use Popper's methodology?

**Text number 34**

According to Quine-Duhem's thesis, it is impossible to test a single hypothesis on its own, because each hypothesis is part of a set of theories. So we can only say that the whole package of relevant theories is collectively falsified, but we cannot say definitively which part of the package needs to be replaced. An example of this is the discovery of the planet Neptune: when it was discovered that the motion of Uranus did not match the predictions of Newton's laws, the theory "there are seven planets in the solar system" was rejected, rather than Newton's laws themselves. Popper dealt with this criticism of naive falsificationism in chapters 3 and 4 of The Logic of Scientific Discovery. According to Popper, theories are accepted or rejected through a kind of selection process. Theories that tell us more about how things occur are considered better than theories that do not; the more general a theory is, the greater its value. Thus, Newton's laws, which have broad general application, are preferable to the much more specific "there are seven planets in the solar system" [dubious - discuss].

**Question 0**

According to which thesis can a scientific hypothesis not be tested in isolation from its theoretical system?

**Question 1**

Which of Popper's works is the answer to the critique of naive falsificationism?

**Question 2**

The apparent inability of the planet Uranus to obey Newton's laws led to the discovery of which planet?

**Question 3**

According to Popper, the scientific selection process favours which type of theory?

**Question 4**

Which thesis states that it is only possible to test one hypothesis?

**Question 5**

What can we say definitively that it needs to be replaced?

**Question 6**

When was the theory that there are eight planets in the solar system rejected?

**Question 7**

What did Popper discuss in chapters 5 and 6 of The Logic of Scientific Discovery?

**Question 8**

Why are Newton's laws not considered better than other theories?

**Text number 35**

Popper claimed to have already acknowledged in his 1934 Logic of Discovery the fact, later emphasized by Kuhn, "that scientists necessarily develop their ideas within a certain theoretical framework," and thus anticipated Kuhn's central view of "normal science." (Popper, however, criticized what he saw as Kuhn's relativism. ) Also in his collection Conjectures and Refutations: The Growth of Scientific Knowledge (Harper & Row, 1963), Popper writes: 'Science must begin with myths and the critique of myths; not with the collection of observations and the invention of experiments, but with the critical discussion of myths and magical techniques and practices. The scientific tradition differs from the pre-scientific tradition in that it has two layers. In the latter way, it transmits theories, but it also transmits a critical attitude towards them. Theories are not passed on as dogmas, but rather as a challenge to discuss and improve them."

**Question 0**

Popper believed that he had already addressed similar ideas to Kuhn's about scientific communities in which work?

**Question 1**

What aspect of Kuhn's thinking is Popper criticising?

**Question 2**

What, according to Popper, must be the beginning of science?

**Question 3**

What kind of second layer does scientific research have, according to Popper, that pre-scientific research does not have?

**Question 4**

What year did Kuhn stress that "scientists necessarily develop their ideas within a particular theoretical framework"?

**Question 5**

Which book did Kuhn publish in 1934?

**Question 6**

What is Kuhn criticising in Popper?

**Question 7**

What does Kuhn say must be the beginning of science?

**Question 8**

According to Kuhn, what is the second level that scientific research has and that pre-scientific research does not have?

**Text number 36**

The second objection is that it is not always possible to prove a falsehood conclusively, especially if the null hypothesis is evaluated on statistical grounds. More generally, it is not always clear that if the evidence contradicts the hypothesis, it is a sign of a flaw in the hypothesis rather than a flaw in the evidence. However, this is a misunderstanding of what Popper's philosophy of science is aiming at. Rather than offering a set of guidelines to be followed assiduously to achieve science, Popper makes it clear in The Logic of Scientific Discovery that, in his view, resolving conflicts between hypotheses and observations can only be a matter for the collective judgment of scientists in each individual case.

**Question 0**

What are the criteria often used in science to make it difficult to falsify some hypotheses?

**Question 1**

What other shortcomings make it difficult to identify erroneous scientific hypotheses?

**Question 2**

What, according to Popper, resolves conflicting hypotheses and observations in the long run?

**Question 3**

What can always be done?

**Question 4**

What is always clear if the evidence contradicts the hypothesis?

**Question 5**

Who has written instructions that you just have to follow diligently to achieve science?

**Question 6**

What is the judgement of an individual scientist?

**Question 7**

What is a sign of insufficient evidence?

**Text number 37**

In his book Science Versus Crime, Houck writes that Popper's falsificationism can be questioned logically: it is not clear how Popper would deal with a statement such as "for every metal there is a temperature at which it melts". The hypothesis cannot be falsified by any possible observation, since there is always a higher temperature than tested at which a metal can actually melt, but it still seems a valid scientific hypothesis. Carl Gustav Hempel pointed out these examples. Hempel came to admit that the verificationism of logical positivism was untenable, but argued that falsificationism was equally untenable on logical grounds alone. The simplest answer to this is that, since Popper describes how theories gain, maintain and lose scientific status, the individual consequences of currently accepted scientific theories are scientific in the sense that they are part of preliminary scientific knowledge, and both of Hempel's examples fall into this category. For example, atomic theory assumes that all metals melt at a given temperature.

**Question 0**

Where in Houck's book do we find the logical flaws of Popper's falsificationism?

**Question 1**

Who claimed that Popper's falsificationism is as logically untenable as the verificationism of logical positivism?

**Question 2**

Who wrote the book Science Versus Crime, which questioned the logic of falsificationism?

**Question 3**

What did Popper write in Science Versus Crime?

**Question 4**

Who claimed that falsificationism can be defended on logical grounds alone?

**Question 5**

What does it mean that not all metals melt?

**Question 6**

What was sustainable on logical grounds alone?

**Question 7**

What can always be tested at a lower temperature?

**Text number 38**

In 2004, the philosopher and psychologist Michel ter Hark (Groningen, the Netherlands) published a book Popper, Otto Selz and the birth of evolutionary epistemology, in which he claimed that Popper took some of his ideas from his mentor, the German psychologist Otto Selz. Selz never published his ideas, partly due to the rise of Nazism, which forced him to stop his work in 1933, and the ban on referring to Selz's work. Popper, a historian of ideas, and his scholarship are criticised in some academic circles for rejecting Plato, Hegel and Marx.

**Question 0**

Which German psychologist and Popper's teacher may have been the originator of some of Popper's ideas?

**Question 1**

Who claimed that Otto Selz deserved credit for Popper's published ideas?

**Question 2**

What contributed to Otto Selz quitting his job in 1933?

**Question 3**

What is the title of the article published in 2004 that links Popper's work to that of his teacher Otto Selz?

**Question 4**

Popper is criticised for rejecting which major philosophers in his work?

**Question 5**

Which book did Popper publish in 2004?

**Question 6**

Who did Hark claim Selz got his ideas from?

**Question 7**

Why did Selz publish his ideas?

**Question 8**

When did Selz start work?

**Question 9**

Why is Popper praised in some academic circles?

**Text number 39**

According to John N. Gray, Popper believed that "a theory is scientific only to the extent that it can be falsified, and should be abandoned as soon as it is falsified. ' Applying Popper's account of the scientific method, Gray's Straw Dogs states that this would have 'killed Darwin's and Einstein's theories at birth'. Gray argues that when they were first put forward, both were "contradicted by some of the available evidence; only later was evidence obtained that gave them crucial support". Against this Gray seeks to justify the irrational thesis that 'scientific progress comes from going against reason'.

**Question 0**

Which two famous scientists put forward theories that John N. Gray said would never have survived the scientific method described by Popper?

**Question 1**

Where does John Gray's work challenge Popper's falsificationism?

**Question 2**

What, according to Gray, should have been used to falsify Einstein's and Darwin's theories when they were originally proposed?

**Question 3**

What is Gray's thesis on scientific progress?

**Question 4**

What did John Gray say, according to Popper?

**Question 5**

Whose theories were consistent with all available evidence when presented?

**Question 6**

What is the rationalist thesis?

**Question 7**

Where does Popper state that this would have "killed Darwin's and Einstein's theories at birth"?

**Question 8**

Which thesis is Popper trying to confirm?

**Text number 40**

However, Gray gives no indication of what available evidence these theories contradicted, and his appeal to "decisive support" illustrates the very inductive approach to science that Popper sought to prove logically illegitimate. Indeed, according to Popper, Einstein's theory was at least as well supported as Newton's theory as originally conceived; they both explained equally well all the evidence available to date. Moreover, since Einstein also explained the empirical refutations of Newton's theory, the general theory of relativity was, in Popper's view, immediately suitable for provisional acceptance. Popper was in fact writing several decades before Gray's critique in response to a critical essay by Imre Lakatos:

**Question 0**

With which of Popper's approaches is Gray's approach consistent?

**Question 1**

A possible objection to Gray's argument is presented in Popper's answer to which philosopher?

**Question 2**

What did general relativity do that was provisionally acceptable when it was proposed?

**Question 3**

Unlike Gray, which theory did Popper claim was at least as consistent with Newton's theory on the basis of the available evidence?

**Question 4**

What does Gray suggest?

**Question 5**

What was Popper trying to show as logically legitimate?

**Question 6**

Whose theory was less confirmed than Newton's at its birth?

**Question 7**

What was not considered suitable for preliminary approval?

**Question 8**

Who was writing several decades after Gray's critique?

**Text number 41**

Such a theory would be more likely to be true, because it cannot be attacked so easily: to falsify the first theory, it is enough that the sun has stopped rising; to falsify the second theory, it is also necessary to assume that the day in question has not yet arrived. Popper believed that, rationally, one should prefer the least probable, most easily falsifiable or simplest theory (properties which he defined as all being the same thing) that explains the known facts. His opposition to positivism, which says that the theory most likely to be true should be preferred, becomes very clear here. According to Popper, it is impossible to ensure that a theory is true; what is more important is that its falsity can be detected as easily as possible.

**Question 0**

Which type of theory is the most falsifiable?

**Question 1**

What philosophical school of thought does Popper's thinking on induction oppose?

**Question 2**

What is it for Popper to know that a theory is true?

**Question 3**

What property of a useful theory must be easily observable?

**Question 4**

Why would a theory be true with a lower probability?

**Question 5**

What does Popper think we should do with the most likely theory?

**Question 6**

Who was in favour of positivism?

**Question 7**

Who says it is possible to verify that a theory is true?

**Question 8**

What is less important than seeing the falsity of a theory?

**Text number 42**

In his early years, Popper was impressed by Marxism, whether communist or socialist. He was deeply influenced by an event in 1919: during a riot by the Communists, several unarmed people, including some of Popper's friends, were shot by the police when they tried to free fellow party members from prison. The riot had in fact been part of a plan by Communist Party leaders linked to Béla Kun to seize power in a coup d'état, something Popper was unaware of at the time. He did know, however, that the instigators of the riot were under the Marxist doctrine that class struggle would produce far more deaths than the inevitable revolution achieved as quickly as possible, so they had no fear of risking the lives of the rioters to achieve their selfish goal of becoming the future leaders of the working class. Hence his later critique of historicism. Popper began to reject Marxist historicism, which he associated with dubious means, and later socialism, which he associated with putting equality before freedom (the potential disadvantage of equality).

**Question 0**

Who incited the 1919 riot that shaped Popper's political views?

**Question 1**

The 1919 riot in which Popper's comrades participated was part of what larger political movement?

**Question 2**

Popper's critique of what doctrine was inspired by first-hand observation of communist agitation?

**Question 3**

Which historically important communist activist joined the 1919 riots in which some of Popper's friends were killed?

**Question 4**

What did the Marxist rioters believe would cause more death and suffering than their own agitation?

**Question 5**

In what year did the communists prevent the riot?

**Question 6**

What impressed Popper in his later years?

**Question 7**

How many armed people were shot by the police?

**Question 8**

What did Popper associate with noble means?

**Question 9**

Which Popper put freedom before equality?

**Document number 306**

**Text number 0**

The mandolin (Italian: mandolino pronounced [mandoˈliːno]; literally "little mandola") is an instrument of the lute family, usually played with a plectrum or "pick". It usually has four parallel tuned metal bow turns (8 bow turns), but there are also versions with five (10 bow turns) and six (12 bow turns). The turns are usually tuned in succession in perfect fifths. It is a member of the soprano family, which includes the mandola, octave mandolin, mandocello and mandobasso.

**Question 0**

Which country is the mandolin from?

**Question 1**

What does a mandolin mean?

**Question 2**

Which musical family does the mandolin come from?

**Question 3**

How is the mandolin usually played?

**Question 4**

How many courses are there in mandolin in general?

**Question 5**

What is the Italian word for mandolin?

**Question 6**

Which family does the lute belong to?

**Question 7**

What else is in the family besides a lute and a mandolin?

**Question 8**

What material are the lute springs made of?

**Question 9**

Which city is the mandolin from?

**Question 10**

What does mandoleen mean?

**Question 11**

What musical sister does the mandolin have?

**Question 12**

How is the mandolin not usually played?

**Question 13**

How many courses does the mandolin not usually have?

**Text number 1**

There are many styles of mandolin, but four are common: the round-bottomed mandolin, the carved mandolin and the flat-bottomed mandolin. The round-backed mandolin has a deep base made of wooden strips glued together. The carved top mandolin has a much shallower, curved back and curved top, both carved from wood. The flat-backed mandolin has a body made of thin sheets of wood, reinforced on the inside like a guitar. Each instrument has its own sound quality and is associated with a particular type of music. Naples mandolins play a central role in European classical and traditional music. Carved instruments are common in American folk and bluegrass music. Flat-backed instruments are commonly used in Irish, British and Brazilian folk music. Some modern Brazilian instruments have an extra fifth chord tuned below the usual fourth chord.

**Question 0**

What are the four common mandolin styles?

**Question 1**

What is a round mandolin made of?

**Question 2**

Which style of mandolin has a lower, curved back and curved top?

**Question 3**

What kind of music do Neapolitan mandolins play?

**Question 4**

Which mandolin is the commin in American folk music and blue grass music?

**Question 5**

What type of mandolin has a deep bottom and a curved top?

**Question 6**

What type of mandolin has a curved back and is reinforced from the side?

**Question 7**

What kind of American music features Neapolitan mandolins?

**Question 8**

In what type of European music are carved-top instruments featured?

**Question 9**

What are the four rare styles of mandolins?

**Question 10**

What is a round mandolin made of?

**Question 11**

Which style of mandolin has a deeper, curved back and curved top?

**Question 12**

In what kind of music do Neapolitan mandolins not appear?

**Question 13**

Which mandolin is rare in American folk music and blue grass music?

**Text number 2**

Much of the mandolin's development revolved around the soundboard (top). The pre-mandolin instruments were quiet instruments with up to six gut strings, plucked with the fingers or the quill. Modern instruments are louder, however, because they use four metal strings, which are subjected to more pressure than the intestinal strings. The modern soundboard is designed to withstand the pressure of the metal strings, which would break the earlier instruments. There are many types of soundboard, but usually round or teardrop-shaped, and sometimes with scrolls or other protrusions. The soundboard usually has one or more sound holes, either round, oval or in the shape of a calligraphic letter F (f-hole). The circular or oval sound hole may be covered or bordered with decorative rosettes or urns.

**Question 0**

Around what has the development of the mandolin mainly been built?

**Question 1**

Were the premandolins quiet or loud instruments?

**Question 2**

What are the strings of modern mandolins made of?

**Question 3**

What is the most common format of the soundtrack?

**Question 4**

What are the sound holes covered with?

**Question 5**

What is another term for the bottom of a mandolin?

**Question 6**

What was louder than modern musical instruments?

**Question 7**

How are teardrop-shaped holes covered or edged?

**Question 8**

How many turns of metal strings were there in pre-mandolin instruments?

**Question 9**

What was the development of the mandolin not largely built around?

**Question 10**

Were post mandolins quiet or loud instruments?

**Question 11**

What are the bows of ancient mandolins made of?

**Question 12**

What is the rarest form of record?

**Question 13**

What is used to open the sound holes?

**Text number 3**

Apart from the introduction of the lute into Spain (Andalusia) by the Moors, another important place where the lute was transferred from Arab to European culture was Sicily, where it was introduced either by Byzantine or later by Muslim musicians. The court of Palermo had lute singers after the Norman conquest of the island from the Muslims, and the lute is extensively depicted in the ceiling paintings of Palermo's royal Cappella Palatina, inaugurated by the Norman King Roger II of Sicily in 1140. His Hohenstaufen grandson Frederick II, son of the Holy Roman Emperor (1194-1250), continued to integrate Muslims into his court, including Moorish musicians. By the 13th century, the lute had spread throughout Italy, and probably thanks to the cultural influence of the Hohenstaufen kings and emperor who lived in Palermo, the lute had also spread significantly to German-speaking areas.

**Question 0**

Who brought the lute to Spain?

**Question 1**

Which country helped to transfer the lute from Arab culture to European culture?

**Question 2**

Who brought the lute to Sicily?

**Question 3**

Where were the singing lutenists held at court after the Norman conquest?

**Question 4**

Which building has a roof painting dedicated to the Lutenists?

**Question 5**

Who was the Holy Roman Emperor between 1190 and 1154?

**Question 6**

Who owned the royal Capella Palatina in Palermo in 1104?

**Question 7**

To whom did Spain present the lute?

**Question 8**

What is another term for Moors?

**Question 9**

Who brought the lute to England?

**Question 10**

Which country helped move the lute from Arab culture to Asian culture?

**Question 11**

Who brought the lute to France?

**Question 12**

Where were singing lutenists held at court before the Norman conquest?

**Question 13**

Which shop has a floor painting dedicated to luthiers?

**Text number 4**

There is currently some uncertainty as to who was the oldest Vinaccian master guitarist who first led the movement. His name has been suggested as Gennaro Vinaccia (active from about 1710 to about 1788) and Nic. Vinaccia. His son Antonio Vinaccia was active from about 1734 until about 1796. The earliest surviving example of a mandolin is a mandolin built by Antonio Vinaccia in 1759, which is in the University of Edinburgh. Another is a mandolin built by Giuseppe Vinaccia in 1893, also at the University of Edinburgh. The earliest surviving mandolin was built by Antonio's son Gaetano Vinaccia in 1744. It is housed at the Conservatoire Royal de Musique in Brussels, Belgium.

**Question 0**

What is currently unclear?

**Question 1**

Who is said to have held the first trade?

**Question 2**

Where is the mandolin built by Antonio Vinaccia?

**Question 3**

Where is the mandolin built by Giuseppe Vinaccia?

**Question 4**

Where is Gaetano Vinacci's mandolin located?

**Question 5**

Who was active between 1718 and 1780?

**Question 6**

Who was active between 1743 and 1769?

**Question 7**

Who built the early mandolin in 1795?

**Question 8**

Who built the mandolin in 1839?

**Question 9**

Who built the earliest mandolin in 1474?

**Question 10**

What is not currently in doubt?

**Question 11**

Who is said to have led the last deal?

**Question 12**

Where was the mandolin built by Antonio Vinaccia destroyed?

**Question 13**

Where was the mandolin that Gaetano Vinaccia destroyed?

**Question 14**

Where was the mandolin built by Giuseppe Vinaccia destroyed?

**Text number 5**

The transition from mandolin to mandolin began around 1744, when the Vinaccia family designed a metal-stringed mandolin with three brass strings and one gut string, using friction tuning pegs with a keyboard flush with the soundboard. The mandolin's popularity grew over the next 60 years in the streets, where it was used by young men who socialised and street musicians, and in concert halls. However, after the Napoleonic Wars in 1815, its popularity began to decline. The 19th century saw the emergence of some notable players, such as Bartolomeo Bortolazzi from Venice and Pietro Vimercati. However, professional virtuosity was in decline and mandolin music changed as the mandolin became a folk instrument; 'the mandolin and the mandolin's extensive repertoire of notated instrumental music was completely forgotten'. The export market for mandolins from Italy dried up around 1815, and when Carmine de Laurentiis wrote the mandolin method in 1874, Music World magazine wrote that the mandolin was "obsolete". Salvador Léonardi mentioned this decline in his 1921 book Méthode pour Banjoline ou Mandoline-Banjo, noting that the mandolin's popularity had declined from earlier times.

**Question 0**

In what year did the transition from mandolin to mandolin begin?

**Question 1**

Where did the mandolin's popularity grow?

**Question 2**

When did the mandolin's popularity start to decline?

**Question 3**

Who were the two Promiment players in the 19th century?

**Question 4**

In what year did the export market for manodlins from Italy end?

**Question 5**

What started around 1474?

**Question 6**

What wars were fought in 1851?

**Question 7**

What dried up in Italy around 1851?

**Question 8**

What did Laurentiis de Carmine write?

**Question 9**

What did Leonardi Salvador write?

**Question 10**

In what year did the transition from mandolin to mandolin end?

**Question 11**

Where did the mandolin decline in popularity?

**Question 12**

When did the mandolin start to gain popularity?

**Question 13**

Who were the two major players in the 15th century?

**Question 14**

In what year did the export market for mandolins from France end?

**Text number 6**

From the 1878 Paris World's Fair onwards, the instrument's popularity rose again. The exhibition was one of many stops for the new popular performance group Estudiantes Españoles (Spanish Students). They danced and played guitars, violins and bandurria mixed with mandolin. With the energy and awareness generated by the hit song of the day, a wave of Italian mandolinists toured Europe in the 1880s and 1890s and the United States by the mid-1880s, playing and teaching their instrument. The instrument's popularity continued to grow in the 1890s, and the mandolin's popularity peaked in the 'early years of the 20th century. "Thousands took up the instrument, and it became a social instrument that young men and women took up. Mandolin orchestras were formed around the world, including not only mandolin instruments but also guitars, double basses and sitters.

**Question 0**

When did the mandolin become popular?

**Question 1**

Which popular group performed at the Paris exhibition?

**Question 2**

When was the mandolin said to have reached its peak of popularity?

**Question 3**

What instrument was the mandolin mixed with in the 1880s?

**Question 4**

What was formed worldwide, which included instruments from the mandolin family as well as other instruments?

**Question 5**

What happened in 1887?

**Question 6**

What instrument was the violin mixed with?

**Question 7**

Which group of people travelled to the United States in 1880?

**Question 8**

Which group of people travelled to Europe in 1890?

**Question 9**

When has the mandolin's popularity not returned?

**Question 10**

Which popular group did not appear at the Paris show?

**Question 11**

When was it said that the mandolin's popularity had declined?

**Question 12**

What instrument was the mandolin never mixed with in the 1880s?

**Question 13**

What was formed globally, which included a mandolin family but no other instruments?

**Text number 7**

The second bill was not as perfect as the first. Thousands of people had learned to play the instrument. Although the second wave of mandolin popularity declined in the early 20th century, new versions of the mandolin began to be used in new forms of music. Luthier-smiths created the resonator mandolin, the flatback mandolin, the carved or arched mandolin, the mandolin banjo and the electric mandolin. Musicians began to play the mandolin in Celtic, bluegrass, jazz and rock-n-roll styles - and also in classical music.

**Question 0**

When did the mandolin's second decline in popularity begin?

**Question 1**

Why was the second fall in popularity not as sharp as the first?

**Question 2**

Who created the rasonator mandolin?

**Question 3**

What are the two new types of mandolin created by Luthiers?

**Question 4**

In what kind of music did musicians start playing the mandolin?

**Question 5**

When did the first wave of mandolin popularity fall?

**Question 6**

Who created the resonator mandolin in the early 1900s?

**Question 7**

In which old forms of music was the mandolin used in the 20th century?

**Question 8**

When did the mandolin's second rise in popularity happen?

**Question 9**

Why was the second boom not as strong as the first?

**Question 10**

Who destroyed the resonator mandolin?

**Question 11**

What is the third type of new mandolin created by Luthiers?

**Question 12**

In what kind of music did musicians never play the mandolin?

**Text number 8**

Like any musical instrument, mandolin notes fade quietly instead of continuously like the bowed notes of a violin, and mandolin notes fade faster than those of larger stringed instruments like the guitar. This encourages the use of tremolo (the rapid picking of one or more pairs of strings) to create long notes or chords. The paired strings of the mandolin facilitate this technique: the plectra (plectrum) strikes each pair of strings in turn, resulting in a fuller and more continuous sound than with a single string.

**Question 0**

What happens to a mandolin note when you play it?

**Question 1**

Do mandolin notes go faster or slower than those of larger string instruments?

**Question 2**

What is tremolo?

**Question 3**

Which parts of the mandolin facilitate the tremolo technique?

**Question 4**

What is a plectrum?

**Question 5**

What do mandolin notes do instead of degenerating into silence?

**Question 6**

What is another word for tremolo?

**Question 7**

What do violin notes sound like all the time?

**Question 8**

What happens to a mandolin note when it is not played?

**Question 9**

Do mandolin notes go faster or slower than smaller string instruments?

**Question 10**

What is a trameolo?

**Question 11**

Which parts of the mandolin do not facilitate the tremolo technique?

**Question 12**

What is slectrum?

**Text number 9**

The body of the Neapolitan style resembles a bowl and is made of curved wooden strips. It has a generally curved sound table, slanted in two planes and designed to absorb the tension of 8 metal strings arranged in four courses. A hardwood fingerboard sits on or flush with the sound table. Very old instruments may use wooden tuning pegs, while newer instruments usually use geared metal tuners. A bridge is a movable part made of hardwood. A cover is glued to the underside of the sound hole, under the strings. European roundback instruments commonly use a 13-inch scale on archtop mandolins instead of the usual 13,876 inches.

**Question 0**

What is the style of the naphthalene mandolin?

**Question 1**

How many pairs of strings are there in a naphthalene mandolin?

**Question 2**

What are Neapolitan mandolins made of?

**Question 3**

What sits on top of or is flush with the mandolin sound table?

**Question 4**

How long is the scale commonly used in European round backs?

**Question 5**

What is the style of the Ice Cream Mandolin?

**Question 6**

How many pairs of strings are there in a peapolitan mandolin?

**Question 7**

What are Neapolitan mandolins not made of?

**Question 8**

What sits at the bottom of the mandolin or is flush with the mandolin's soundboard?

**Question 9**

How wide is the scale commonly used in European round backs?

**Text number 10**

Milan and Lombardy became the second family of the mandolin. These mandolins are closer to a mandolin or mandore than other modern mandolins. They are shorter and wider than the standard Neapolitan mandolin and have a low back. The instruments have 6 strings, 3 wire-wound treble strings and 3 gut or wire-wrapped silk bass strings. The strings run between the tuning pins and a bridge glued to the soundboard, as on a guitar. Lombard mandolins were tuned g b e' a' d" g". The Milanese style was pioneered by Antonio Monzino (Milan) and his family, who made them for 6 generations.

**Question 0**

Where do the bowback mandolins of the Lombardic family come from?

**Question 1**

What do Lombard mandolins resemble more than modern mandolins?

**Question 2**

What are the differences between the Lombard mandolin and the Naples mandolin?

**Question 3**

How many springs are there in Lombardy mandolins?

**Question 4**

Who developed the Milan mandolin?

**Question 5**

Where did the Lombardic family's bowback mandolins come from?

**Question 6**

What do Lombard mandolins resemble more than ancient mandolins?

**Question 7**

What are the differences between Lombard mandolins and ancient mandolins?

**Question 8**

How many strings are there in Lombardy mandolins?

**Question 9**

Who developed the Chinese mandolin?

**Text number 11**

In 1893 Samuel Adelstein described the Lombardi mandolin as wider and shorter than the Napoli mandolin, with a lower back and a shorter, wider neck, with six individual sets of strings instead of the four sets of strings of the standard mandolin. The Lombardi mandolin had the tunings C, D, A, E, B, G. The strings were attached to the bridge like a guitar. There were 20 bits, covering three octaves, and five additional notes. At the time Adelstein wrote, there were no nylon strings, and gut and single strings "do not vibrate as distinctly and sweetly as the double steel bow of the Neapolitan".

**Question 0**

Who described the Lombard mandolin as being wider and shorter than the neo-political mandolin?

**Question 1**

How many springs are there in a normal mandolin?

**Question 2**

Where was the Lombard mandolin tuned?

**Question 3**

How many characters were in the Lombard?

**Question 4**

How many octaves did Lombardi cover?

**Question 5**

Who described the Lombard mandolin as being longer and narrower than the neo-political mandolin?

**Question 6**

How many springs are there in a normal mandolin?

**Question 7**

What was the Lombardi mandolin out of tune for?

**Question 8**

How many characters were missing from Lombard?

**Question 9**

How many octaves did Lombardi not cover?

**Text number 12**

In his 1805 mandolin method Anweisung die Mandoline von selbst zu erlernen nebst einigen Uebungsstucken von Bortolazzi, Bartolomeo Bortolazzi popularised the Cremona mandolin, which had four single strings and a fixed bridge to which the strings were attached. In his book, Bortolazzi noted that the new wire-strung mandolins were uncomfortable to play compared to gut-strung instruments. He also felt that they had a 'less pleasant... hard, zither-like sound' compared to the 'softer, fuller sound' of gut strings. He preferred the four individual strings of the Cremonese instrument, which were tuned in the same way as the Neapolitan instrument.

**Question 0**

Who made the Creole mandolin famous?

**Question 1**

What was Bartolomeo Bortolazzi's popular mandolin method?

**Question 2**

How many strings did the Cremonese mandolin have?

**Question 3**

Did Bortolazzi like playing the new wire mandolins?

**Question 4**

What did Bortolazzi say about the vote?

**Question 5**

Who did not popularise the Creole mandolin?

**Question 6**

What was Bartolomeo Bortolazzi's unpopular mandolin method?

**Question 7**

How many double strings did the Cremonese mandolin have?

**Question 8**

What did Bortolazzi say about tempo?

**Text number 13**

At the very end of the 19th century, a new style of carved top and back from the violin family began to replace the European-style bowl-back instruments in the United States. Credit for this new style goes to the mandolins designed and built by Orville Gibson, a luthier from Kalamazoo, Michigan, who founded the Gibson Mandolin-Guitar Manufacturing Co, Limited in 1902. Gibson mandolins have two basic styles: the Florentine or F style, which has a decorative scroll near the neck, two dots on the lower body and usually a scroll engraved on the headstock, and the A style, which is pear-shaped with no dots and usually has a simpler headstock.

**Question 0**

When was the new model for the construction of carved top and back mandolins created?

**Question 1**

What inspired the new style of mandolins?

**Question 2**

Which instrument was replaced by the new mandolin style?

**Question 3**

Who founded Gibson Mandolin-Guitar Manufacturing Co, Limited?

**Question 4**

When was the old-style carved top and back mandolin created?

**Question 5**

Where did the old mandolin style draw its inspiration from?

**Question 6**

What style of mandolins replaced the old-style mandolins?

**Question 7**

Who founded Gibson Mandolin-Guitar Manufacturing Co, Unlimited?

**Text number 14**

These models usually have either two f-shaped soundholes, as on the violin (F-5 and A-5), or an oval soundhole (F-4 and A-4 and lower models) directly under the strings. There is much variation between manufacturers working on the basis of these archetypes, and other variants have become more common. In general, Gibson's F-slot F-5 mandolins and mandolins inspired by this model are strongly associated with bluegrass music in the United States, while the A-style mandolin is associated with other music, although it too is most often used and associated with bluegrass music. The more complex wooden parts of the F-5 also result in a more expensive instrument.

**Question 0**

What shape are the sound holes in these mandolin styles?

**Question 1**

Where are the sound holes located?

**Question 2**

Which mandolin is related to Bluegrass music?

**Question 3**

Which style is related to other styles of music?

**Question 4**

Why is the F-5 mandolin more expensive?

**Question 5**

What shape of sound holes do these mandolin styles not have?

**Question 6**

Where are the tactile holes located?

**Question 7**

Which mandolin is not related to Bluegrass music?

**Question 8**

Why is the F-5 mandolin cheaper?

**Text number 15**

Numerous modern mandolin makers are building instruments that largely mimic Gibson's F-5 Artist models, built in the early 1920s under the supervision of Gibson acoustician Lloyd Loar. The original instruments signed by Loar are sought after and highly prized. Other makers from the Loar era and earlier include Lyon and Healy, Vega and Larson Brothers. In addition to Kay, notable modern American carved mandolin makers include Gibson, Weber, Monteleone and Collings. Mandolins from other countries include Loar (China), Santa, Rosa (China), Michael Kelly (Korea), Eastman (China), Kentucky (China), Heiden (Canada), Gilchrist (Australia) and Morgan Monroe (China).

**Question 0**

What style of Gisbon mandolin was largely copied?

**Question 1**

When was the Gibson F-5 largely copied?

**Question 2**

Who supervised the copying of the Gibson F-5?

**Question 3**

Who are the other creators of the Loar season?

**Question 4**

Who were the major modern American mandolin makers?

**Question 5**

Which Gisbon mandolin style was never imitated?

**Question 6**

When was the Gibson F-5 never copied?

**Question 7**

Who rejected the copy of the Gibson F-5?

**Question 8**

Who are the other businessmen of the Loar era?

**Question 9**

Who were the major modern African mandolin makers?

**Text number 16**

The mandolin's international repertoire is almost limitless, and musicians play a wide variety of music on it. This is particularly true for violin music, as the mandolin has the same tuning as the violin. After its invention and early development in Italy, the mandolin spread throughout the European continent. The instrument was mainly used in the classical tradition, and many cities had mandolin orchestras, the so-called Estudiantinas or Zupforchestern in Germany. After the continental popularity of the mandolin family, local traditions appeared outside Europe in America and Japan. Itinerant mandolin virtuosos such as Giuseppe Pettinen, Raffaele Calace and Silvio Ranieri contributed to the mandolin becoming a fashionable instrument in the early 20th century. This 'mandolin revival' was fading by the 1930s, but just as the mandolin was falling into disuse, the mandolin found a new niche in American country, old-time, bluegrass and folk music. More recently, the repertoire and styles of the baroque and classical mandolin have benefited from increased awareness and interest in early music, with the media drawing attention to classical musicians such as Israeli Avi Avital, Italian Carlo Aonzo and American Joseph Brent.

**Question 0**

With which instrument does the mandolin have the same tuning?

**Question 1**

Where was the mandolin primarily used?

**Question 2**

When was the mandolin considered a fad?

**Question 3**

Who contributed to the mandolin being a fad?

**Question 4**

When did mandolin playing stop?

**Question 5**

Which instrument does not have the same tuning as the mandolin?

**Question 6**

Where was the mandolin not primarily used?

**Question 7**

When was the mandolin considered anything other than a fad?

**Question 8**

Who contributed to making the mandolin more than just a fad?

**Question 9**

When did mandolin bottling start?

**Text number 17**

Phil Skinner played a key role in the development of the mandolin movement in Australia in the 20th century, and was awarded the MBE in 1979 for services to music and community. Born Harry Skinner in Sydney in 1903, he began learning music at the age of 10 when his uncle taught him the banjo. Skinner started teaching part-time at the age of 18, until the Great Depression forced him to take up teaching full-time and learn a wider range of instruments. Skinner founded the Sydney Mandolin Orchestra, the oldest surviving mandolin orchestra in Australia.

**Question 0**

Who played a key role in the Australian mandolin movement?

**Question 1**

When did the Australian mandolin movement start?

**Question 2**

When was Phil Skinner awarded an MBE?

**Question 3**

What was Phil Skinner's birth name?

**Question 4**

At what age did Phil Skinner start playing music?

**Question 5**

Who played a key role in the African mandolin movement?

**Question 6**

When did the African mandolin movement start?

**Question 7**

When did Phil Skinner lose his MBE?

**Question 8**

What was Phil Skinner's married name?

**Question 9**

At what age did Phil Skinner stop playing music?

**Text number 18**

Sydney Mandolins (Artistic Director: Adrian Hooper) has significantly increased its repertoire by commissioning over 200 works from Australian and international composers. Most of these works have been released on CD and can be heard regularly on radio stations on the ABC and MBS networks. One of the group's members, mandolin virtuoso Paul Hooper, has had several concertos composed for him by Eric Gross and others. He has performed and recorded these works with the Sydney Symphony Orchestra and the Tasmanian Symphony Orchestra. Paul Hooper has also had many solo works dedicated to him by Australian composers such as Caroline Szeto, Ian Shanahan, Larry Sitsky and Michael Smetan.

**Question 0**

Who is the director of Sydney Mandolins?

**Question 1**

How many orders have been placed for Sydney mandolins?

**Question 2**

In which medium were most of these works published?

**Question 3**

On which radio stations can you hear them?

**Question 4**

For whom have several concerts been written?

**Question 5**

Who is not the leader of the Sydney Mandolins?

**Question 6**

How many mandolins in Sicily have been commissioned?

**Question 7**

In which medium were most of these works never published?

**Question 8**

On which radio stations can you never hear them?

**Question 9**

For whom has no concerto been written?

**Text number 19**

In the early 20th century there were several mandolin orchestras (Estudiantinas) in Belgium. Today only a few groups remain: the Royal Estudiantina la Napolitaine (founded in 1904) in Antwerp, the Brasschaats mandoline orkest in Brasschaat and the orchestra in Mons (Bergen). Gerda Abts is a well-known mandolin virtuoso in Belgium. She is also a mandolin teacher and teaches at the music schools of Lier, Wijnegem and Brasschaat. She is now also professor of mandolin at the "Koninklijk Conservatorium Artesis Hogeschool Antwerpen". He also performs annually with various ensembles. He is closely associated with the Brasschaat Mandolin Orchestra. His website is www.gevoeligesnaar.be.

**Question 0**

What is Etsudiantinas?

**Question 1**

Where were the Estudiantinas active at the beginning of the 20th century?

**Question 2**

What groups are left today?

**Question 3**

Where is Gerda Abts well known?

**Question 4**

Where is Gerda Abst Professor Mandolin?

**Question 5**

What is Atsudiantinas?

**Question 6**

Where are the Estudiantinas operating at the beginning of the 21st century?

**Question 7**

Which groups are no longer available?

**Question 8**

Where is Gerda Abts not well known?

**Question 9**

Where Gerda Abst is not a professor of mandolin?

**Text number 20**

Before the golden age of mandolins in France, the mandolin had a history, and mandolin musicians played in Paris until the Napoleonic Wars. Players, teachers and composers included Giovanni Fouchetti, Eduardo Mezzacapo, Gabriele Leon and Gervasio. During the golden age itself (1880s-1920s), the mandolin was very much in evidence in France. Notable mandolin players or composers included Jules Cottin and his sister Madeleine Cottin, Jean Pietrapertosa and Edgar Bara. There were dozens of 'estudiantina' mandolin orchestras in Paris in the early 20th century. Mandolin magazines included L'Estudiantina, Le Plectre, École de la mandolie.

**Question 0**

At what age did France have a history with the mandolin?

**Question 1**

Where in France did mandolinists play?

**Question 2**

When did mandolin players stop playing in Paris?

**Question 3**

Who were the musicians and composers of this period?

**Question 4**

What years were considered the golden age of mandolins?

**Question 5**

What was the age in Italy before the history of the mandolin?

**Question 6**

Where in Italy did mandolinists play?

**Question 7**

When did mandolinists start playing in Paris?

**Question 8**

Who weren't the players and composers during this period?

**Question 9**

What years were not considered the golden age of mandolins?

**Text number 21**

On the island of Crete, the mandolin is one of the most important instruments used in Cretan music, along with the lyre and the lute (lute). It first appeared in Crete around the time of the Venetian rule of the island. Different variations of the mandolin, such as the 'mantola', were used to accompany the lyre, violin and lute. Stelios Foustalierakis reported that the mandolin and the mpoulgar were used to accompany the lyrra in the early 20th century in the city of Rethymno. There are also reports that the mandolin was mainly a female instrument. Nowadays it is played mainly as a solo instrument for personal and family occasions in the Ionian Islands and Crete.

**Question 0**

On which island is the mandolin the most important instrument in Cretan music?

**Question 1**

When did the mandolin appear in Crete?

**Question 2**

What was one variation of the mandolin that was used?

**Question 3**

Who told you that the mandolin and mpoulgar were used to accompany the lyric?

**Question 4**

The mandolin was said to be popular with which gender?

**Question 5**

On which island is the mandolin not the main instrument in Cretan music?

**Question 6**

When did the mandolin leave Crete?

**Question 7**

What was one variation of the mandolin that was never used?

**Question 8**

Who stated that the mandolin and mpoulgar were not used to accompany the lyric?

**Question 9**

The mandolin was said to be unpopular with which gender?

**Text number 22**

The instrument has been adapted in many ways to meet the specific needs of Indian Carnatic music. In Indian classical and light music, the mandolin, which bears little resemblance to the European mandolin, is usually tuned to E-B-E-B. Since there is no concept of absolute pitch in Indian classical music, any suitable tuning can be used which preserves the relative pitch range between notes. Another common tuning in which these pitch spacings are the same is C-G-C-G, which corresponds to the Sa-Pa-Sa-Pa style of Indian Carnatic classical music. This tuning corresponds to the way violins are tuned in Carnatic classical music. This type of mandolin is also used in Bhangra, a popular dance music in Punjabi culture.

**Question 0**

What kind of music were the instruments adapted to a lot?

**Question 1**

What is the mandolin usually tuned to in Indian music?

**Question 2**

What is not a concept in Indian music?

**Question 3**

What is another popular worm tune?

**Question 4**

These mandolins are used in the popular dance music called?

**Question 5**

Many adaptations were made to instruments to make them unsuitable for what type of music?

**Question 6**

What is the mandolin usually tuned to in Asian music?

**Question 7**

What concept does not exist in Asian music?

**Question 8**

What is not a popular worm tune?

**Question 9**

These mandolins are used in unpopular dance music called?

**Text number 23**

Although almost any acoustic mandolin style can be used for Irish traditional music, almost all Irish players prefer flat-backed instruments with oval sound holes to Italian-style bowl mandolins or the carved mandolins with f-holes favoured by bluegrass mandolinists. The former are often too soft-toned to hold their own in sessions (and tend to get caught in the lap of the player), while the latter tend to sound harsh and obtrusive to the ear of the traditional player. However, the F-hole mandolin comes into its own in a traditional session, where its brighter sound cuts through the pub's sonic reverb. In formal performances and recordings, flat-bottomed 'Irish-style' mandolins (reminiscent of the Martin Army-Navy mandolins of the First World War era) and carved (arched) mandolins with oval sound holes, such as Gibson's 1920s A-style mandolin, are particularly popular.

**Question 0**

What kind of instruments does the Irish player prefer?

**Question 1**

Why is it said that the Italian style cannot hold its own?

**Question 2**

What type of mandolin tended not to stay on the player's lap?

**Question 3**

Which mandolin was preferred for official performances and recordings?

**Question 4**

What did the Irish-style mandolin look like?

**Question 5**

What kind of instruments does an Italian musician prefer?

**Question 6**

Why do they say that the Italian style can hold its own session?

**Question 7**

What type of mandolin didn't tend to stay in the player's lap?

**Question 8**

What mandolin is not popular in official performances and recordings?

**Question 9**

What did the Italian-style mandolin look like?

**Text number 24**

Notable Irish mandolinists include Andy Irvine (who, like Johnny Moynihan, almost always tunes the top E down to D to achieve an open tuning GDAD), Paul Brady, Mick Moloney, Paul Kelly and Claudine Langille. John Sheahan and the late Barney McKenna, who played fiddle and tenor banjo in The Dubliners, are also accomplished Irish mandolin players. The instruments used are either the oval-holed instruments described above (made by the British instrument maker Roger Bucknall of Fylde Guitars) or instruments with a carved oval hole and curved back (made by Stefan Sobell of Northumberland). The Irish guitarist Rory Gallagher often played the mandolin on stage, and he used it most famously in the song 'Going To My Hometown'.

**Question 0**

Who are the famous Irish mandolin players?

**Question 1**

Who are the popular violinist and tenor banjo player?

**Question 2**

What was the name of John Sheahan and Barney Mckenna's band?

**Question 3**

Who made the instruments used by the Dubliners?

**Question 4**

Which Irish guitarist played the mandolin on stage?

**Question 5**

Who are the famous Italian mandolinists?

**Question 6**

Who are the unpopular violinist and tenor banjo player?

**Question 7**

What was the title of John Sheahan and Barney Mckenna's work?

**Question 8**

Who made the instruments used by the Italian group?

**Question 9**

Which Irish guitarist played mandolin offstage?

**Text number 25**

Antonio Vivaldi composed a mandolin concerto (Concerto in C major op.3 6) and two concertos for two mandolins and orchestra. Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart placed it in his 1787 work Don Giovanni, and Beethoven created four variations on it. Antonio Maria Bononcini composed La conquista delle Spagne di Scipione Africano il giovane in 1707 and George Frideric Handel composed Alexander Balus in 1748. Others include Giovani Battista Gervasio (Sonata in D major for mandolin and bass string), Giuseppe Giuliano (Sonata in D major for mandolin and bass string), Emanuele Barbella (Sonata in D major for mandolin and bass string), Domenico Scarlatti (Sonata no. 54 (K.89) in D minor for mandolin and bassoon) and Addiego Guerra (Sonata in G major for mandolin and bassoon).

**Question 0**

Who composed the Concerto in C major op 3 6?

**Question 1**

Who placed it in his work published in 1787?

**Question 2**

Which two artists created four variations of the Concerto in C major op 3 6?

**Question 3**

Who composed La conquista della Spagne di Scipione Afriacano il giovance?

**Question 4**

When was Alexander Balus composed?

**Question 5**

Who composed the Concerto in D major op 3 6?

**Question 6**

Who placed it in his 1789 work?

**Question 7**

Which two artists created five variations of the Concerto in D major op 3 6?

**Question 8**

Who rejected La conquista della Spagne di Scipione Afriacano il giovance?

**Text number 26**

The expansion of mandolin use continued after World War II until the late 1960s, and Japan still has a strong classical music tradition using mandolins, with active orchestras and university music programmes. New orchestras were established and new orchestral compositions were composed. Today, Japanese mandolin orchestras can have up to 40-50 members and include woodwind, percussion and wind orchestras. Japan also has an extensive collection of 20th century mandolin music from Europe and one of the most complete collections of mandolin sheet music from the golden age of the mandolin, acquired by Morishige Takei.

**Question 0**

Which country still maintains a strong tradition of classical music on the mandolin?

**Question 1**

How many people compose Japanese mandolin orchestras?

**Question 2**

What other instruments do Japanese madnolin orchestras play?

**Question 3**

Japan has a large collection of what?

**Question 4**

Who took a bite out of a collection of mandolin magazines?

**Question 5**

Which country does not maintain a strong classical music tradition on the mandolin?

**Question 6**

How many people compose Chinese mandolin orchestras?

**Question 7**

What other instruments do Chinese mandolin orchestras play?

**Question 8**

Japan does not have a large collection of what?

**Question 9**

Who sold a collection of mandolin magazines?

**Text number 27**

The bandolim (Portuguese for "mandolin") was the favourite instrument of the Portuguese bourgeoisie in the 19th century, but its rapid spread took it elsewhere and it joined other instruments. Today, mandolins are part of the traditional and popular culture of Portuguese singing groups, and most of the mandolin field in Portugal is on the island of Madeira. Madeira has more than 17 active mandolin orchestras and lessons. Mandolin virtuoso Fabio Machado is one of the most accomplished mandolin players in Portugal. The Portuguese influence brought the mandolin to Brazil.

**Question 0**

What does bandolim mean?

**Question 1**

When was bandolim popular among the Portuguese bourgeoisie?

**Question 2**

Where can you see mandolins as part of Portgal?

**Question 3**

Where is the Portuguese mandolin field located?

**Question 4**

How many active mandolin orchestras are there on the island of Madiera?

**Question 5**

What does bandolin mean?

**Question 6**

When was bandolim not popular among the Portuguese bourgeoisie?

**Question 7**

Where can't you see mandolins as part of the Port of Portugal?

**Question 8**

Where are the Japanese mandolins located?

**Question 9**

How many active mandolin orchestras are there on the island of China?

**Text number 28**

The mandolin has been widely used in traditional music in England and Scotland for generations. Simon Mayor is a prominent British player who has produced six solo albums, instructional books and DVDs, as well as recordings with the mandolin quartet Mandolinquents. The instrument has also found its way into British rock music. Mike Oldfield played the mandolin (and Vivian Stanshall performed it) on Oldfield's album Tubular Bells and on several of his later albums (notably Hergest Ridge (1974) and Ommadawn (1975)). It was widely used by the British folk-rock band Lindisfarne, whose two members, Ray Jackson and Simon Cowe, played the instrument and whose 'Fog on the Tyne' was the best-selling album in the UK from 1971 to 1972. The instrument was also widely used in the British folk heroes of the 1960s and 1970s, with bands such as Fairport Convention and Steeleye Span adopting it as the main instrument in many of their songs. Jackson's playing was also featured on Rod Stewart's Maggie May, which went to number one in the UK and number one on the Billboard Hot 100. It has also been used by other British rock musicians. Led Zeppelin bassist John Paul Jones is an accomplished mandolin player and has recorded numerous songs on mandolin, including Going to California and That's the Way; the mandolin part of The Battle of Evermore is played by Jimmy Page, who composed the song. Other Led Zeppelin songs featuring mandolin include Hey Hey What Can I Do and Black Country Woman. Pete Townshend of The Who played mandolin on Mike Post Theme and on many other songs on Endless Wire. Another example is McGuinness Flint, whose most successful single When I'm Dead And Gone featured Graham Lyle on mandolin. Lyle was also briefly a member of Ronnie Lane's Slim Chance and played mandolin on their hit How Come. One of the earliest mandolin players in popular music was Robin Williamson of The Incredible String Band. Jethro Tull's Ian Anderson is a very skilled mandolin player (beautiful song Pussy Willow), as is his guitarist Martin Barre. The Smiths' popular song Please Please Please Please Please Let Me Get What I Want featured a mandolin solo by Johnny Marr. More recently, the Glasgow band Sons and Daughters featured Ailidh Lennon on mandolin on songs such as Fight, Start to End and Medicine. British folk-punk icon Levellers also regularly use the mandolin in their songs. Contemporary bands have also started to use the mandolin and its unique sound - such as Indigo Moss from South London, who use it on all their recordings and live shows. The mandolin has also featured in the playing of rock band Muse's Matthew Bellamy. It also forms the basis of Paul McCartney's 2007 hit "Dance Tonight". However, it was not the first time the Beatle played the mandolin; that honour goes to George Harrison on Gone Troppo, the title track from the 1982 album of the same name. In Lanarkshire, the Lanarkshire Guitar and Mandolin Association teaches mandolin playing to over 100 people. More recently, hard rock supergroup Them Crooked Vultures have also played a song based mainly on the mandolin. This song was omitted from their debut album and features former Led Zeppelin bassist John Paul Jones[citation needed].

**Question 0**

Who is a famous British player?

**Question 1**

What did Simon Mayer produce?

**Question 2**

Who played mandolin on the album Tubular Bells?

**Question 3**

What was the best-selling album in the UK?

**Question 4**

Which Rod Stewart song used the mandolin?

**Question 5**

Who is a famous Asian player?

**Question 6**

What did Simon Mayer sell?

**Question 7**

Who played mandolin on the album Tubular Chimes?

**Question 8**

What was the best-selling album in the US?

**Question 9**

Which Bob Stewart song used the mandolin?

**Text number 29**

The popularity of the mandolin in the United States was boosted by the success of a touring group of young European musicians known as Estudiantina Figaro, or simply "Spanish Students" in the United States. The group landed in New York on 2 January 1880 and played to wildly enthusiastic audiences in Boston and New York. Ironically, this band did not play mandolins but bandurrios, which are also small, mandolin-like, two-stringed instruments. The success of Figaro's Spanish students spawned other groups that imitated their musical style and costumes. Italian musician Carlo Curti hastily formed a musical group after seeing Figaro's Spanish students perform; his group of Italian-born Americans called themselves the 'original Spanish students', confident that American audiences would not know the difference between Spanish bandurrias and Italian mandolins. The imitators' use of mandolins helped to create enormous public interest in an instrument that was previously relatively unknown in the United States.

**Question 0**

Which group was popular in the US?

**Question 1**

When did Estudiantina Figaro come to the United States?

**Question 2**

Where did Estudiantina Figaro play?

**Question 3**

Which group was inspired by Estudiantina Figaro?

**Question 4**

What did the original Spanish students expect the American public not to know?

**Question 5**

Which group was popular in the UK?

**Question 6**

When did Estudiantina Figaro leave the United States?

**Question 7**

Where did Estudiantina Figaro refuse to play?

**Question 8**

Which group was not inspired by Estudiantina Figaro?

**Question 9**

What did the original Spanish students expect the African audience not to know?

**Text number 30**

The mandolin's popularity in the United States blossomed in the 1880s, when the instrument became part of a craze that continued until the mid-1920s. Clarence L. Partee reports that the first mandolin made in the United States was made in 1883 or 1884 by Joseph Bohmann, an established violin maker in Chicago. Partee described the early instrument as larger than the European instruments to which he was accustomed, with a "peculiar" shape and "coarse" texture, and said the quality improved until American instruments were "superior" to imported ones. At the time, Partee was using an imported mandolin made in France.

**Question 0**

When did madol awareness in the US become fluent?

**Question 1**

When was the first madolin made in the USA?

**Question 2**

Who made the first American mandolin?

**Question 3**

Where was Joseph Bohmann from?

**Question 4**

What kind of madolin did Partee use?

**Question 5**

When did madol awareness in the US not become fluent?

**Question 6**

When was the first mandolin destroyed in the USA?

**Question 7**

Who made the first British mandolin?

**Question 8**

What kind of mandolin did Partee not use?

**Text number 31**

The instruments are marketed by teacher-traders, just like the title character in Music Man. Often these teacher-dealer leaders led mandolin orchestras: groups of 4 to 50 musicians playing various instruments of the mandolin family. Alongside the teacher-traders, however, were serious musicians who sought to carve out a place for the instrument in classical music, ragtime and jazz. Like the teacher-traders, they travelled around the United States, recording, performing and teaching individual players and mandolin orchestras. Samuel Siegel played mandolin in Vaudeville and became one of America's foremost mandolin musicians. Seth Weeks was an African-American who taught and performed not only in the United States but also in Europe, where he recorded. Another pioneering African-American musician and leader who started with a mandolin orchestra was composer James Reese Europe. W. Eugene Page toured the country with an ensemble and was known for his mandolin and mandola performances. Other names include Valentine Abt, Samuel Adelstein, William Place Jr. and Aubrey Stauffer.

**Question 0**

Which actor in a popular musical was a teacher-trader?

**Question 1**

What did these teacher-traders often do?

**Question 2**

How many people were in these teacher-merchant orchestras in general?

**Question 3**

Who played the mandolin in Vaudeville?

**Question 4**

Who was a famous African-American musician and director?

**Question 5**

Which actor in a popular musical was a student trader?

**Question 6**

What did these student traders often do?

**Question 7**

How many people were in these student-merchant orchestras in general?

**Question 8**

Who refused to play the mandolin in Vaudeville?

**Question 9**

Who was a famous North American musician and director?

**Text number 32**

The instrument was primarily used in ensembles well into the 1930s, and although the craze died out in the early 1930s, instruments developed for orchestral use found a new home in bluegrass. Gibson's famous Lloyd Loar Master Model (1923) was intended to revive the waning interest in mandolin ensembles, but with little success. "However, the 'Loar' became the defining instrument of bluegrass music when Bill Monroe bought an F-5 S/N 73987 from a Florida barbershop in 1943 and made it his main instrument.

**Question 0**

The setting in which the mandolin was used until the 1930s was?

**Question 1**

Where did the mandolins find a new home?

**Question 2**

Which mandolin is designed to increase interest in the mandolin?

**Question 3**

Where did the mandolin become the face of bluegrass music?

**Question 4**

What instrument did Bill Monroe use?

**Question 5**

The setting in which the mandolin was used until the 1940s was?

**Question 6**

Why did mandolins never find new work?

**Question 7**

What mandolin is not designed to increase interest in the mandolin?

**Question 8**

Why didn't the mandolin become the face of bluegrass music?

**Question 9**

What instrument did Bill Monroe not use?

**Text number 33**

But mandolin orchestras never disappeared completely. In fact, mandolin ensembles (groups usually arranged like the string section of a modern symphony orchestra, with first mandolins, second mandolins, mandolos, mandocellos, mandobasses and guitars, sometimes supplemented by other instruments) continue to grow in popularity alongside all other forms of mandolin. Since the mid-nineties, several mandolin-based guitar programs have flourished in public schools across the country, including the Fretworks Mandolin and Guitar Orchestra, the first of its kind. The Classical Mandolin Society of America, a national organization founded by Norman Levine, represents these groups. Notable contemporary mandolin musicians and classical mandolin composers include Samuel Firstman, Howard Fry, Rudy Cipolla, Dave Apollon, Neil Gladd, Evan Marshall, Marilynn Mair and Mark Davis (Mair-Davis Duo), Brian Israel, David Evans, Emanuil Shynkman, Radim Zenkl, David Del Tredici and Ernst Krenek.

**Question 0**

Which groups have become popular in public schools?

**Question 1**

What are the two most popular groups of public schools?

**Question 2**

Who founded the Classical Mandolin Society of America?

**Question 3**

Who are the contemporary mandolinists and composers?

**Question 4**

Which groups have become unpopular in public schools?

**Question 5**

What are the two most unpopular groups of public schools?

**Question 6**

Who founded the non-classical Mandolin Society of America?

**Question 7**

Who are not contemporary mandolin musicians and composers?

**Text number 34**

While Cowan Powers and his family recorded old-time music between 1924 and 1926, his daughter Orpha Powers was one of the earliest known Southern music artists to record with a mandolin. As the 1930s approached, individual mandolins were increasingly used in Southern string band music, especially by brother duos such as the sedate Blue Sky Boys (Bill Bolick and Earl Bolick) and the harder-edged Monroe Brothers (Bill Monroe and Charlie Monroe). However, the mandolin's modern popularity in country music is directly attributable to one man: Bill Monroe, the father of bluegrass music. After the Monroe brothers broke up in 1939, Bill Monroe formed his own band, briefly known as the Blue Grass Boys, and completed the transition of mandolin styles from the "parlor sound" typical of the brothers' duets to the modern "bluegrass" style. He joined the Grand Ole Opry in 1939, and its powerful bright-channel broadcast on WSM-AM spread his style throughout the South and directly inspired many musicians to take up the mandolin. Monroe famously played a Gibson F-5 mandolin, signed and dated July 9, 1923 by Gibson's chief acoustical engineer Lloyd Loar, which has since been emulated most sonically and aesthetically by modern builders.

**Question 0**

Which family recorded early music between 1924 and 1926?

**Question 1**

Who was the earliest known southern music artist?

**Question 2**

What type of mandolin was becoming popular in the 1930s?

**Question 3**

Who was considered the father of bluegrass music?

**Question 4**

What was the name of Bill Monroe's group?

**Question 5**

Which family recorded new age music between 1924 and 1926?

**Question 6**

Who was the earliest known Northern music artist?

**Question 7**

What type of mandolin was becoming popular in 1935?

**Question 8**

Who was considered the mother of bluegrass music?

**Text number 35**

Monroe's style included playing lead melodies in the style of a violinist and also a percussive chord sound called "chop" because of the sound made by the rapidly struck and muted strings. He also perfected a sparse, percussive blues style, especially above the neck on keys that had not been used much in country music, especially in B-flat and E-flat. He emphasized a strong, syncopated right hand at the expense of left-hand virtuosity. The second generation of Monroe's most influential successors are Frank Wakefield and, today, Mike Compton and David Long of the Nashville Bluegrass Band, who often tour as a duo. Tiny Moore of the Texas Playboys developed the electric five-string mandolin and helped popularise the instrument in western swing music.

**Question 0**

What was the chord that made Monroe popular?

**Question 1**

Which keys were popular with Monroe?

**Question 2**

Who was Monroe's most influential successor?

**Question 3**

Who developed the electric five-string mandolin?

**Question 4**

What kind of music did the electronic five-string mandolin help popularise?

**Question 5**

What was it that made Monroe popular?

**Question 6**

What keys made Monroe unpopular?

**Question 7**

Who was Monroe's least influential successor?

**Question 8**

Who developed the electric six-string mandolin?

**Question 9**

What kind of music did the electric six-string mandolin help popularise?

**Text number 36**

Other notable bluegrass mandolinists who emerged in the early 1950s and are still active include Jesse McReynolds (Jim and Jesse), who invented a syncopated banjo roll-like style called crosspicking, and Bobby Osborne (Osborne Brothers), a master of clarity and sparkling single-tune runs. Today's most respected and influential bluegrass players include Herschel Sizemore, Doyle Lawson and the multi-talented Sam Bush, who is equally at home with old-time fiddle, rock, reggae and jazz. Ronnie McCoury of the Del McCoury Band has won numerous awards for his Monroe-influenced playing. The late John Duffey of the original Country Gentlemen and later the Seldom Scene did much to popularize bluegrass mandolin among folk and urban audiences, especially on the East Coast and in the Washington area.

**Question 0**

Who was a prominent bluegrass mandolinist who became popular in the 1950s?

**Question 1**

Which scuffle was Jesse McReynolds involved in?

**Question 2**

What technology did Jesse McReynolds create?

**Question 3**

What is cross-pollination?

**Question 4**

Who won several awards for his Monroe-inspired music?

**Question 5**

Who was a popular bluegrass mandolinist in the 1950s?

**Question 6**

Which job did Jesse McReynolds belong to?

**Question 7**

Which technology did Jesse McReynolds destroy?

**Question 8**

What is not cross-selection?

**Question 9**

Who didn't win awards for their Monroe-inspired music?

**Text number 37**

Jethro Burns, best known as one half of the comedy duo Homer and Jethro, was also the first major jazz mandolinist. Tiny Moore made the mandolin famous in Western swing music. He initially played an eight-string Gibson, but after 1952 switched to a five-string fixed-body electric instrument built by Paul Bigsby. Modern players, including David Grisman, Sam Bush and Mike Marshall, have worked since the early 1970s to demonstrate the mandolin's versatility in all styles of music. Californian Chris Thile is a well-known player who has achieved many accomplishments in traditional bluegrass, classical music, contemporary pop and rock; the Nickel Creek band featured his playing in their ensemble combining traditional and pop styles, and he currently plays in their Punch Brothers band. The mandolin is most often associated with bluegrass, but over the years it has also been used extensively in country music. Famous players include Marty Stuart, Vince Gill and Ricky Skaggs.

**Question 0**

What is Jethro Burns commonly known for?

**Question 1**

What kind of music did Jethro Burns play?

**Question 2**

Who introduced the mandolin to Western swing music?

**Question 3**

Who was known for important works of traditional bluegrass?

**Question 4**

Who are the other well-known players?

**Question 5**

What is Jethro Burns so well known for?

**Question 6**

What kind of music did Jethro Burns not play?

**Question 7**

Who introduced the mandolin to Eastern swing music?

**Question 8**

Who was not known for the important works of traditional bluegrass?

**Question 9**

Who are the other unknown players?

**Text number 38**

The mandolin has also been used in blues music, notably by Ry Cooder, who did excellent covers on his first recordings, Yank Rachell, Johnny "Man" Young, Carl Martin and Gerry Hundt. Howard Armstrong, known for his blues fiddle playing, got his start on his father's mandolin and played in string bands similar to the other Tennessee string bands he came into contact with, with a band line-up that included 'mandolins and fiddles and guitars and banjos'. And every now and then they would add a little ukulele and a bass violin". Other blues players from string bands of the era include Willie Black (Whistler And His Jug Band), Dink Brister, Jim Hill, Charles Johnson, Coley Jones (Dallas String Band), Bobby Leecan (Need More Band), Alfred Martin, Charlie McCoy (1909-1950), Al Miller, Matthew Prater and Herb Quinn.

**Question 0**

Who got his start on his father's mandolin?

**Question 1**

Who is the most popular mandolinist in blue music?

**Question 2**

What other instruments did the Tennessee string orchestras use?

**Question 3**

Who played in Whistler and His Jug Band?

**Question 4**

Who is the most popular mandolinist in red music?

**Question 5**

What other instruments did the Kentucky string orchestras use?

**Question 6**

Who played in Singer and His Jug Band?

**Text number 39**

The mandolin has been used occasionally in rock music, and first appeared in the psychedelic era of the late 1960s. Levon Helm of The Band occasionally switched from his drum kit to play the mandolin, notably on Rag Mama Rag, Rockin' Chair and Evangeline. Jethro Tull's Ian Anderson played mandolin on Fat Man, their second Stand Up album, and occasionally on later releases. Rod Stewart's 1971 number one hit Maggie May features a prominent mandolin riff. David Grisman played mandolin on two Grateful Dead tracks on the American Beauty album, Friend of the Devil and Ripple, which became instant favourites with amateur players at jams and camping gatherings. John Paul Jones and Jimmy Page both played mandolin on Led Zeppelin songs. The popular alt rock band Imagine Dragons play mandolin on some of their songs, the most famous being It's Time. Dash Crofts of the soft rock duo Seals and Crofts used the mandolin extensively in their repertoire in the 1970s. In 1980, Styx released Boat on the River, featuring Tommy Shaw on vocals and mandolin. The song did not chart in the US, but was popular in much of Europe and the Philippines.

**Question 0**

When did the mandolin first appear in rock music?

**Question 1**

Who played drums and mandolin in The Band?

**Question 2**

Which Rod Stewart song from 1971 featured the mandolin?

**Question 3**

Which Greatful Dead artist played the mandolin?

**Question 4**

Tommy Shaw sang and played mandolin on which Styx song?

**Question 5**

When was the last time the mandolin was used in rock music?

**Question 6**

Who played drums and guitar in The Band?

**Question 7**

Which Rod Stewart song from 1971 featured the mandolin?

**Question 8**

Which Grateful Dead artist didn't play the mandolin?

**Text number 40**

Some rock musicians today use mandolins, often single-string electric models rather than two-string acoustic mandolins. One example is Tim Brennan of the Irish-American punk rock band Dropkick Murphys. In addition to electric guitar, bass and drums, the band uses a number of instruments associated with traditional Celtic music, including mandolin, tin whistle and Highland bagpipes. The band explains that these instruments accentuate the growling sound they prefer. The 1991 R.E.M. hit "Losing My Religion" is based on a few simple mandolin notes played by guitarist Peter Buck, who also played mandolin on nearly a dozen other songs. The single reached number four on the Billboard Hot 100 (number one on the rock and alternative charts), Luther Dickinson of the North Mississippi Allstars and The Black Crowes has used the mandolin frequently, notably on the Black Crowes' "Locust Street". Armenian-American rock band System of A Down used the mandolin extensively on their 2005 double album Mezmerize/Hypnotize. The pop-punk band Green Day has used the mandolin on several occasions, notably on their 2000 album Warning, while Dave Matthews Band's violinist Boyd Tinsley has been using the electric mandolin since 2005. The Decemberists' frontman Colin Meloy and guitarist Chris Funk regularly use the mandolin in their music. Heart's rhythm guitarist Nancy Wilson uses mandolin on Heart's song "Dream of the Archer" from the album Little Queen and on Heart's cover of Led Zeppelin's "The Battle of Evermore". The mandolin features prominently in "Show Me Heaven", the theme song for Days of Thunder, composed by Maria McKee.

**Question 0**

What kind of mandolin do rock musicians use today?

**Question 1**

Which Irish-American punk band uses mandolins?

**Question 2**

Which REM song uses simple mandolin notes?

**Question 3**

Which American rock band uses mandolins a lot?

**Question 4**

Which film uses a mandolin in its theme song?

**Question 5**

What type of mandolin do rock musicians never use nowadays?

**Question 6**

Which Italian-American punk band uses mandolins?

**Question 7**

Which REM piece uses complex mandolin notes?

**Text number 41**

As in Brazil, the mandolin has played an important role in Venezuelan music. It has had a privileged position as the main melody instrument in several regions of the country. In particular, in the eastern parts of the states of Sucre, Nueva Esparta, Anzoategui and Monagas, the mandolin has been made the main instrument in the Joropo, Puntos, Jotas, Polos, Fulias, Merengues and Malagueñas. In the west of the country, the mandolin sound is also closely linked to the regional genres of the Venezuelan Andes: bambucos, pasillos, pasodobles and waltzes. In the western city of Maracaibo, the mandolin has been played in Decimas, Danzas and Contradanzas Zulianas, and in the capital Caracas, Merengue Rucaneao, Pasodobles and Waltzes have also been played on the mandolin for almost a century. Today, Venezuelan mandolinists include a significant number of virtuoso musicians and ensembles such as Alberto Valderrama, Jesus Rengel, Ricardo Sandoval, Saul Vera and Cristobal Soto.

**Question 0**

Where in Brazil do mandolins play an important role?

**Question 1**

What is the sound of the mandolin associated with in the West?

**Question 2**

Who are the famous Venezuelan mandolinists?

**Question 3**

Where in Brazil do mandolins play an insignificant role?

**Question 4**

What is the sound of the mandolin not associated with in the West?

**Question 5**

Who are not the famous Venezuelan mandolinists?

**Text number 42**

To fill this gap in the literature, mandolin orchestras have traditionally played many arrangements of music written for regular orchestras or other ensembles. Some players have sought out contemporary composers to acquire new works. Traditional mandolin orchestras are still particularly popular in Japan and Germany, but they also exist throughout the United States, Europe and other parts of the world. They perform works composed for the mandolin family instruments or rearrangements of traditional pieces. The structure of a modern traditional mandolin orchestra consists of the following instruments: first and second mandolins, mandolins (either octave mandolins tuned an octave lower than the mandolin or tenor mandolins tuned like a viola), mandolins (tuned like a cello) and bass instruments (a conventional string bass or, rarely, mando basses). Smaller configurations, such as quartets of two mandolins, a mandola and a mando cello, may also occur.

**Question 0**

What kind of music have mandolins played?

**Question 1**

Where are traditional mandolin orchestras still popular?

**Question 2**

What is the structure of a modern traditional orchestra?

**Question 3**

What are reduced-size entities made up of?

**Question 4**

How are mandocellos usually tuned?

**Question 5**

What kind of music have mandolins never played?

**Question 6**

Where are traditional mandolin orchestras still unpopular?

**Question 7**

What is the structure of a modern unconventional orchestra?

**Question 8**

What are large entities made of?

**Document number 307**

**Text number 0**

Insects (Latin insectum, Greek ἔντομον [éntomon], "cut into parts") are a class of invertebrate animals of the arthropod family with a chitinous exoskeleton, a three-part body (head, thorax and abdomen), three pairs of arthropod legs, compound eyes and one pair of antennae. They are the most diverse group of animals on the planet, with over a million described species, representing more than half of all known living organisms. The current number of species is estimated to be between six and ten million, representing possibly more than 90% of the Earth's diverse animal species. Insects are found in almost all environments, but only a small proportion of species live in the oceans, which are dominated by another group of arthropods, crustaceans.

**Question 0**

Which family are insects classified in?

**Question 1**

How many parts does an insect's body contain?

**Question 2**

Besides the head and abdomen, what is the other big part of an insect's body?

**Question 3**

What kind of skeleton do insects have?

**Question 4**

How many pairs of arthropods do insects have?

**Question 5**

What does an insect mean in Latin?

**Question 6**

What is the Latin word for insect?

**Question 7**

Which category do insects belong to?

**Question 8**

What kind of skeleton do insects have?

**Question 9**

Insects have a 3-piece body with a throat, a stomach and a what?

**Text number 1**

The life cycle of insects varies, but most hatch from eggs. Insect growth is limited by an inflexible exoskeleton, and development involves several molts. Immature stages may differ from adults in structure, habits and habitat, and may include a passive pupal stage in groups undergoing four-stage metamorphosis (see holometabolism). Insects undergoing triphasic metamorphosis lack a pupal stage and adults develop through several nymphal stages. The higher-level relationship of Hexapoda is unclear. Fossil insects of enormous size have been found from the Palaeozoic period, including giant dragonflies with wingspans of 55-70 cm. The most diverse groups of insects appear to have evolved in association with flowering plants.

**Question 0**

How does the life cycle of most insects usually start?

**Question 1**

What is the primary limitation to an insect's physical growth?

**Question 2**

What stage of development distinguishes the four-stage metamorphosis from the three-stage metamorphosis that is missing in the latter?

**Question 3**

What is the term for the stages of development of an adult insect?

**Question 4**

In which era have huge fossil dragonflies with very long wing spans been found?

**Question 5**

Where do insects hatch?

**Question 6**

What limits the growth of insects?

**Question 7**

Insect evolution involves a bunch of what?

**Question 8**

How many stages of metamorphosis does an insect go through?

**Question 9**

With which insects did the most diverse insects co-evolve?

**Text number 2**

Adult insects typically move by walking, flying or sometimes swimming (see below under Movement). Because it allows fast but stable movement, many insects use a tripod gait, where they walk with their feet touching the ground in alternating triangular patterns. Insects are the only invertebrates that have evolved flight. Many insects spend at least part of their lives underwater, and larval adaptations include gills, and some adult insects are aquatic and have adaptations for swimming. Some species, such as aquatic insects, can walk on the surface of water. Insects are mostly solitary, but some, such as certain bees, ants and termites, are social and live in large, well-organised colonies. Some insects, such as earwigs, show maternal care and guard their eggs and young. Insects can communicate with each other in many different ways. Male moths can sense the pheromones of female moths from long distances. Other species communicate by sound: crickets stridulate, or rub their wings together to attract a mate and repel other males. Lampyridae, members of the beetle family (Coleoptera), communicate by light.

**Question 0**

What is the term for the insect walk, which is characterised by walking in alternating triangles?

**Question 1**

Which larval adaptations are common to underwater insects?

**Question 2**

Which species of insect can walk on the surface of water?

**Question 3**

What do crickets do to attract or repel a mate?

**Question 4**

Which variant of the beetle genus Coleoptera uses light to communicate?

**Question 5**

Insects move by walking, flying and what else?

**Question 6**

Which insects walk, fly and swim?

**Question 7**

Insects walk on the ground alternating between what?

**Question 8**

What are called insects walking in an alternating triangle?

**Question 9**

What can insects do with each other in different ways?

**Text number 3**

People consider certain insects to be pests and try to control them with insecticides and many other techniques. Some insects damage crops by eating the sap, leaves or fruit. A few parasitic species are pathogenic. Some insects have complex ecological functions; for example, blowflies help to eat carrion but also spread disease. Insect pollinators are essential for the life cycle of many flowering plant species on which most organisms, including humans, depend at least in part; without them, the terrestrial part of the biosphere (including humans) would be destroyed. Many other insects are considered ecologically useful predators, and some insects provide direct economic benefits. Silkworms and bees have been widely used by humans for silk and honey production. In some cultures, people eat the larvae or adults of certain insects.

**Question 0**

What method do people often use to try to combat the spread of insects?

**Question 1**

Without the complex pollination role of insects, what part of the biosphere would be destroyed?

**Question 2**

Which insect provides tangible economic benefits through silk production?

**Question 3**

Which insect is known to eat carcasses?

**Question 4**

What do people consider to be the most common insects?

**Question 5**

How can humans control insects?

**Question 6**

What can insects harm?

**Question 7**

Insects can damage crops by eating the juice, fruit or what?

**Question 8**

For what production do people use silkworms?

**Text number 4**

The word "insect" comes from the Latin word insectum, which means "cut or divided body" or literally "cut", which comes from the passive voice of the singular imperfect tense of the insectare (in- "in" and secare "to cut"), because insects seem to be "cut" into three parts. Pliny the Elder adopted the Latin name as a loan translation of the Greek word ἔντομος (éntomos), meaning 'insect' (as in entomology), which was the name used by Aristotle for this species, also referring to their 'notched' bodies. "Insect" first appears documented in English in 1601 in Holland's translation of Pliny. Translations of Aristotle's term include the common word 'insect' in Welsh (trychfil, from trychu 'to cut' and mil 'animal'), Serbo-Croatian (zareznik, from rezati 'to cut') and Russian (насекомое nasekomoje, from seč'/-sekat' 'to cut').

**Question 0**

What is the Latin term for an insect?

**Question 1**

Who introduced the Latin term for insect, borrowing it from the Greek vernacular?

**Question 2**

How many parts does the insect's body appear to be divided into?

**Question 3**

Which Greek philosopher used the term entomos to describe insects, referring to their notched bodies?

**Question 4**

In what year is the word insect usually said to have first appeared in English?

**Question 5**

Insect means to have notched or shared what?

**Question 6**

How many pieces are insects cut into?

**Question 7**

Who gave this class of life the name "insect"?

**Question 8**

In what year did the word "insect" appear in the document?

**Question 9**

Who introduced the Latin version of the word "insect"?

**Text number 5**

The phylogeny of the higher arthropod phylogeny is still under debate and research. In 2008, researchers at Tufts University discovered a 300 million year old 300 million year old Carboniferous specimen, which they believe to be the world's oldest known full-body trace of a primitive flying insect. The oldest confirmed insect fossil is the Devonian Rhyniognatha hirsti, from the 396 million-year-old Rhynie rock. It may have superficially resembled the modern silverfish insect. This species already had a dicondylar mandible (two joints in the lower jaw), a feature associated with winged insects, suggesting that wings may have evolved by that time. Thus, the first insects probably appeared earlier, in the Silurian period.

**Question 0**

From which period do researchers believe the oldest known full-body representation of a flying insect originates?

**Question 1**

Which is thought to be the oldest known insect fossil?

**Question 2**

What year did Tufts researchers discover what is believed to be the oldest known flying insect track?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the mandible with two joints?

**Question 4**

What type of insect is the dicondylar mandible associated with?

**Question 5**

What higher level is constantly under discussion and research?

**Question 6**

A higher level phylogeny is what?

**Question 7**

What impression has the university given you?

**Question 8**

The university found a rudimentary flying what?

**Question 9**

How old is a primitive flying insect discovered by a university?

**Text number 6**

Late Palaeolithic and Early Permian insect orders include both extant groups and their parent groups, as well as a number of paleozoic groups that are now extinct. During this period, some giant dragonfly-like forms reached wingspans of 55-70 cm, making them much larger than any living insect. This giant size may have been due to the higher oxygen levels in the atmosphere, which allowed for greater respiratory power than today. The absence of flying vertebrates may have been another factor. Most extinct insect species evolved during the Permian period, which began around 270 million years ago. Many of the early groups became extinct during the Permian and Triassic extinction events, the largest mass extinction in the history of the Earth, around 252 million years ago.

**Question 0**

What other insect orders, besides the Carboniferous groups, include the extant groups, the stem groups and the paleozoic groups?

**Question 1**

How long (cm) did the wingspans of giant frog-like shapes grow?

**Question 2**

Which substance's higher concentrations may have contributed to the giant size?

**Question 3**

How many million years ago is the Permian period thought to have started?

**Question 4**

The most significant mass extinction of insect groups is generally considered to occur in which period?

**Question 5**

Late Caboniferous and Early Permain are what sequences?

**Question 6**

Insect orders both include what?

**Question 7**

Insect organisations include several types of which groups?

**Question 8**

What type of giant insect had wingspans?

**Question 9**

How wide was the wingspan of dragonfly-like shapes?

**Text number 7**

Insects were the first terrestrial herbivores, and they are the main selection factors for plants. Plants developed chemical defences against these herbivores, and insects in turn developed mechanisms against herbicides. Many insects use these toxins to protect themselves from predators. Such insects often advertise their toxicity with warning colours. This successful evolutionary model has also been exploited by mimics. Over time, this has led to complex groups of co-evolved species. In contrast, some interactions between plants and insects, such as pollination, are beneficial to both organisms. Coevolution has led to the evolution of very specific mutualisms in such systems.

**Question 0**

What defences have plants developed in response to insects?

**Question 1**

What is the term for a plant-eating insect?

**Question 2**

What do many insects use adaptively to defend themselves against predators?

**Question 3**

How do insects sometimes show toxicity as a visible warning?

**Question 4**

What is an example of a mutually beneficial process that demonstrates co-evolution between plants and insects?

**Question 5**

What insects are considered terrestrial?

**Question 6**

What were the main selection factors for insects?

**Question 7**

What did plants eventually form against insects?

**Question 8**

Insects formed mechanisms to protect themselves against what?

**Question 9**

What colours do insects use to show how poisonous they are?

**Text number 8**

Insects can be divided into two groups, which have historically been treated as subclasses: wingless insects, called Apterygota, and winged insects, called Pterygota. The Apterygota class includes the primitive wingless order of silverfish (Thysanura). Archaeognaths form the Monocondylia clade based on the shape of their mandibles, while the Thysanura and Pterygota clades are grouped in the Dicondylia clade. Thysanura itself may not be monophyletic, as the Lepidotrichidae is a sister group to Dicondylia (Pterygota and the rest of Thysanura).

**Question 0**

What is the name of the class of winged insects?

**Question 1**

What is the name of a class of insects that does not have wings?

**Question 2**

Which group of insects belongs to the Monocondylia group primarily because of the shape of their lower jaw?

**Question 3**

To which group do Thysanura and Pterygota belong?

**Question 4**

Insects have historically been divided into how many groups?

**Question 5**

What are winged insects called?

**Question 6**

Do Apterygotes have wings or wingless?

**Question 7**

What is Thysanura?

**Question 8**

What are Thysanura and Pterygota?

**Text number 9**

Traditional systematics based on morphology or appearance has generally given the class Hexapoda the status of a superclass:180 and defined four groups within it: insects (Ectognatha), spring caterpillars (Collembola), Protura and Diplura, the latter three of which are grouped as Entognatha on the basis of internalised parts of the oral cavity. Supraordinal relationships have undergone numerous changes with the advent of evolutionary history and genetic data-based methods. Recent theory suggests that Hexapoda clades are polyphyletic (where the last common ancestor was not a member of the group), and Entognath clades have an evolutionary history distinct from insects. Many traditional appearance-based taxa have been shown to be paraphyletic, so instead of using classifications such as subclasses, superclasses and subclasses, it has proved preferable to use monophyletic groupings (where the last common ancestor is a member of the group). The best supported monophyletic groupings for insects are shown below.

**Question 0**

Based on morphology and appearance, known as what?

**Question 1**

Which category do Hexapodas belong to?

**Question 2**

How many groups are defined in the upper class?

**Question 3**

Springtails are also known as what?

**Question 4**

Collembola, protura and dipkura belong to a group called what?

**Text number 10**

Paleoptera and Neoptera are winged insect orders, distinguished by having hardened body parts called sclerites, and in Neoptera by muscles that allow the wings to fold flat over the abdomen. Neoptera can be further subdivided into incomplete metamorphosis (Polyneoptera and Paraneoptera) and complete metamorphosis. Establishing the relationships between the orders of Polyneoptera has proved difficult, as new discoveries are constantly being made which require revision of taxa. For example, Paraneoptera has been shown to be more closely related to the family Endopterygota than to other members of the family Exopterygota. A recent molecular discovery that the traditional parasitic orders Mallophaga and Anoplura originate from within Psocoptera has led to the new taxon Psocodea. Phasmatodea and Embiidina have been proposed to form Eukinolabia. Mantodea, Blattodea and Isoptera reportedly form a monophyletic group called Dictyoptera.

**Question 0**

Paleoptera and Neoptera are what orders of insects?

**Question 1**

What are the hard body parts of insects called?

**Question 2**

Insect wings fold flat on what?

**Question 3**

Neoptera can be divided into which "based" group?

**Question 4**

Paraneopter and Endopterygota are closely related to what?

**Text number 11**

Exopterygotes are probably paraphyletic to Endopterygotes. Controversial issues include Strepsiptera and Diptera, which have been grouped together in the genus Halteria based on the reduction of a single wing pair - a position that does not receive sufficient support in the entomological community. The genus Neuropterida is often merged or subdivided according to taxonomic arbitrariness. Fleas are now believed to be closely related to the boreid mecoptera. Many questions remain about the basic relationships of endopterygotes, especially the genus Hymenoptera.

**Question 0**

Which are likely to be paraphyletic?

**Question 1**

Strepsiptera and Diptera are controversial what?

**Question 2**

What are called Strepsiptera and Diptera?

**Question 3**

Which community is not in favour of a debate on wing pairs?

**Question 4**

What does the taxonomist divide or group together?

**Text number 12**

Although the true extent of species diversity remains uncertain, estimates range from 2.6 to 7.8 million species, with an average of 5.5 million species. This probably represents less than 20% of all species on Earth, and with only about 20,000 new species described each year for all organisms, most species are likely to remain undescribed for years to come unless more species are described. Of all the species described, around 850 000 to 1 000 000 are insects. Four of the 24 orders of insects dominate in terms of the number of species described, and at least 3 million species belong to the orders Coleoptera, Diptera, Hymenoptera and Lepidoptera. A recent study estimated the number of beetles at 0.9-2.1 million, with an average of 1.5 million.

**Question 0**

What is the true diversity of insect species?

**Question 1**

How many species of insects are estimated to exist?

**Question 2**

How many new species of all organisms are discovered each year?

**Question 3**

What proportion of all species on Earth are insects?

**Question 4**

Most insect species will remain what for many years to come?

**Text number 13**

Insects have a segmented body supported by an exoskeleton, a hard outer shell composed mainly of chitin. The body segments are organised into three separate but related units, the tagmata: head, thorax and abdomen. The head has a pair of sensory antennae, a pair of compound eyes and, if present, one to three simple eyes (or ocelli) and three sets of variously modified appendages forming the mouthparts. The thorax has six segmented legs - one pair of prothorax, mesothorax and metathorax segments forming the thorax - and none, two or four wings. The abdomen consists of eleven segments, but in some insect species these segments may be fused or smaller. The abdomen also contains most of the digestive, respiratory, excretory and reproductive structures:22-48 There is considerable variation and many adaptations in insect body parts, especially in the wings, legs, antennae and mouthparts.

**Question 0**

What kind of body do insects have?

**Question 1**

What supports the bodies of insects?

**Question 2**

Chitin is what type of insect's outer shell?

**Question 3**

What are the units of an insect's body?

**Question 4**

What is an insect's head, throat and abdomen?

**Text number 14**

The head is surrounded by a hard, heavily sclerotised, unsegmented, skeletonised head capsule called the epicranium, which contains most of the sensory organs such as the antennae, eyes and palate. Of all insect classes, Orthoptera has the most features found in other insects, such as sutures and sclerites. Here, the apical point or tip (dorsal region) is located between the compound eyes in insects with hypognathic and opisthognathic heads. In predictive insects, the apex is not located between the compound eyes, but rather where the ocelli usually are. This is because the main axis of the head has turned 90° and is now parallel to the main axis of the body. In some species, this area has changed and is given a different name.:13

**Question 0**

Which part of the insect has the largest number of sensory organs?

**Question 1**

What is another word for capsules?

**Question 2**

Which insect has the most characteristics?

**Question 3**

What is the vertex, also called the name?

**Question 4**

Between which eyes is the apex usually located?

**Text number 15**

The thorax is a tagma consisting of three parts, the prothorax, mesothorax and metathorax. The anterior segment, closest to the head, is the prothorax, whose main features are the first pair of feet and the pronotum. The middle segment is the mesothorax, whose main features are the second pair of feet and the front wings. The third and most posterior segment, flanking the abdomen, is the metathorax, with the third pair of feet and the hind wings. Each segment is crossed by a suture between the segments. Each segment has four basic areas. The dorsal surface is called the tergum (or notum), which separates it from the abdominal tergum. The two lateral areas are called the pleura (singular: pleuron) and the ventral side the sternum. The prothoracic notum is called the pronotum, the mesothoracic notum the mesonotum and the metathoracic notum the metanotum. Following this logic, mesopleura and metapleura, mesosternum and metasternum are used.

**Question 0**

How many episodes are there on the larynx?

**Question 1**

Another term for tagma is?

**Question 2**

The front is closest to what?

**Question 3**

Prothrorax is an insect which part?

**Question 4**

How many side regions does the pleura consist of?

**Text number 16**

The abdomen is the largest part of the insect, typically with 11-12 segments, and is less heavily sclerotised than the head or thorax. Each abdominal segment is represented by a sclerotised tergum and sternum. The terga are separated from each other and from the adjacent sternum or pleura by membranes. The pleural sacs are located in the pleural cavity. Variations of this plan include fusion of the terga or terga and sterna to form a single dorsal or ventral shield or conical tube. Some insects have a sclerite called laterotergite in the pleural region. Ventral sclerites are sometimes called laterosternites. The embryonic and post-embryonic stages of many insects have 11 abdominal segments. In modern insects, the number of abdominal segments tends to decrease, but the rudimentary number of 11 segments is maintained during embryonic development. There is considerable variation in the number of abdominal segments. If the genus Apterygota is taken as an approximate plan of the pterygotes, confusion arises: adult animals of the genus Protura have 12 segments, those of the genus Collembola 6. The orthopteran family Acrididae has 11 segments, and the abdomen of a fossil specimen of the genus Zoraptera has 10 segments.

**Question 0**

What is the largest tagma of an insect?

**Question 1**

How many segments make up an insect's abdomen?

**Question 2**

The stomach is less strong than the chest and what?

**Question 3**

Insect stomach has sclerotised tergum and what else?

**Question 4**

What is in the pleural cavity?

**Text number 17**

The outer skeleton of insects, the cuticle, consists of two layers: the epicuticle, which is a thin and waxy, water-repellent outer layer that does not contain chitin, and a lower layer called the percuticle. The procuticle is chitinous and much thicker than the epicuticle, and has two layers: an outer layer called the exocuticle and an inner layer called the endocuticle. The tough and flexible endocuticle is made up of numerous fibrous chitin and protein layers that intersect each other in a sandwich pattern, whereas the exocuticle is rigid and hardened:22-24 Many soft-bodied insects (e.g. caterpillars) have a greatly reduced exocuticle, especially during their larval stage.

**Question 0**

What is called the outer skeleton of an insect?

**Question 1**

How many layers are there in a cuticle?

**Question 2**

Which cuticle later is like wax?

**Question 3**

What is the epicuticle not made of?

**Question 4**

Is the procutile thinner or thicker than the epicutile?

**Text number 18**

Insects are the only invertebrates to have evolved active flight, and this has been an important factor in their success.186 Their muscles can contract several times for each nerve impulse, allowing their wings to flap faster than would normally be possible. The attachment of muscles to the exoskeleton is more efficient and allows for more muscle coupling; crustaceans also use the same method, although all spiders use hydraulic pressure to extend their legs, inherited from their ancestral arthropod ancestors. Unlike insects, however, most aquatic crustaceans are biomineralised by calcium carbonate from water.

**Question 0**

Insects are also known as what kind of vertebrae?

**Question 1**

What kind of active abilities have insects developed?

**Question 2**

What role has active flight played for insects?

**Question 3**

How many times can the muscles of an insect contract?

**Question 4**

Insect muscles are attached to what?

**Text number 19**

There is one ganglion on each side of the thoracic segments, which are connected in pairs, one pair per segment. This arrangement is also seen in the abdomen, but only in the first eight segments. In many insect species, the number of ganglia is reduced by fusion or reduction. Some cockroaches have only six ganglia in the abdomen, while the wasp Vespa crabro has only two in the thorax and three in the abdomen. In some insects, such as the housefly Musca domestica, all the body ganglia are fused into one large thoracic ganglion.

**Question 0**

What is on each side of the thoracic segment?

**Question 1**

How many ganglia are on each side of the thoracic segment?

**Question 2**

Ganglions are connected to what?

**Question 3**

How many pairs of ganglia are there in a segment?

**Question 4**

Where else in the insect are ganglia found?

**Text number 20**

At least some insects have nociceptors, cells that detect and transmit pain sensations. This was discovered in 2003 by studying the different responses of the larvae of the common fruit fly Drosophila to contact with a heated and unheated probe. The larvae responded to contact with a heated probe by a stereotyped rotation that did not occur when the larvae were touched with an unheated probe. Although insects have been shown to feel pain, there is no consensus that insects consciously feel pain.

**Question 0**

How many insects have nociceptors?

**Question 1**

What are the cells that detect and transmit pain?

**Question 2**

When were nociceptors discovered?

**Question 3**

Nociceptors were discovered by examining the common what?

**Question 4**

To which probe do the larvae react?

**Text number 21**

The salivary glands in the insect's mouth (element 30 in the numbered pictures) produce saliva. The salivary ducts lead from the glands to the reservoirs and then on through the head to an opening called the salivary gland, located behind the tonsils. By moving its palate (element 32 in the numbered figure), the insect can mix its food with saliva. The mixture of saliva and food then passes through the salivary glands into the mouth, where it begins to break down. Some insects, such as flies, have extra-oral digestion. Extra-oral digesting insects secrete digestive enzymes into their food to break it down. This strategy allows insects to obtain a significant proportion of the available nutrients from their food:31 Almost all insect digestion takes place in the gut. It can be divided into anterior, middle and posterior intestines.

**Question 0**

What produces saliva in the mouths of insects?

**Question 1**

What leads from salivary glands to reservoirs?

**Question 2**

What is the opening through the head?

**Question 3**

Where is the spit line located?

**Question 4**

Where does the insect's digestion take place?

**Text number 22**

When food leaves the vegetation, it moves into the midgut (element 13 in the numbered diagrams), also known as the mesentery, where most of the digestion takes place. Microscopic protrusions in the wall of the midgut, called microvilli, increase the surface area of the wall and allow nutrients to be absorbed; they are usually located near the initial end of the midgut. In some insects, the role and location of microvilli may vary. For example, specialized microvilli that produce digestive enzymes may be more likely to be near the end of the midgut and absorption near the beginning or end of the midgut:32

**Question 0**

What is another name for mesenteron?

**Question 1**

Where does the food go after it leaves the guts?

**Question 2**

Where does most insect digestion take place?

**Question 3**

What kind of protrusions are there in the midgut wall?

**Question 4**

What are microscopic protrusions called?

**Text number 23**

In the posterior alimentary canal (element 16 in the numbered diagrams), the proctodaeum, uric acid combines undigested food particles into faecal pellets. The rectum absorbs 90% of the water contained in these faecal pellets, and the dry pellets are then passed through the anus (element 17), completing the digestive process. Uric acid is formed by diffusing haemolymph waste from the Malpighian tubules (element 20). It is then discharged directly into the digestive tract at the junction of the mid and hind digestive tract. The number of Malpighian tubules varies between species, ranging from only two tubules in some insects to more than 100 tubules in some insects:71-72, 78-80.

**Question 0**

What is proctodaeum?

**Question 1**

Which food particles contain uric acid?

**Question 2**

What kind of acid forms faecal pellets?

**Question 3**

How much water does an insect's rectum absorb?

**Question 4**

Where is the dry insect pellet thrown away?

**Text number 24**

The reproductive system of a female insect consists of a pair of ovaries, accessory hormones, one or more spermathecae and the ducts that connect these parts. The ovaries are made up of several ovarian tubes, called ovaries, which vary in size and number from species to species. The number of ova depends on the number of eggs an insect can produce, and the shape of the ova also influences the rate at which they develop. Female insects can lay eggs, receive and store sperm, process sperm from different males and lay eggs. The accessory glands or glandular parts of the fallopian tubes produce various substances for sperm maintenance, transport and fertilisation, as well as for egg protection. They can produce glue and protective substances to coat the eggs, or hard coatings for the batch of eggs, called ootheca. Spermathecae are tubes or bags in which sperm can be stored between mating and fertilization of the egg.:880

**Question 0**

There are a couple of what in the female reproductive organs?

**Question 1**

What kind of glands are in the reproductive system of female insects?

**Question 2**

What connects the parts inside the reproductive system of a female insect?

**Question 3**

Where are the egg tubes inside the insect?

**Question 4**

What are fallopian tubes called?

**Text number 25**

The reproductive system of males is the testes, which depend on the body cavity through the trachea and adipose tissue. Most male mammals have a pair of testes with seminal tubes or follicles inside the membranous sac. The follicles are connected to the vas efferents by the vas efferents, and the two tubular vas deferentia connect to the central ejaculatory duct leading out. Part of the vas deferens is often dilated and forms a seminal vesicle that stores sperm before they exit the female. The seminal vesicles contain a glandular lining that secretes nutrients to nourish and maintain the sperm. The ejaculatory duct originates from the invasion of epidermal cells during development and as a result has a cuticular lining. The terminal part of the ejaculatory duct may sclerotise to form an internal organ, the aedeagus. The rest of the male reproductive organs are derived from the embryonic mesoderm, with the exception of gametes, or spermatogonia, which are derived from the embryonic germ cells very early in embryonic development.:885

**Question 0**

What is the male reproductive system?

**Question 1**

Where is the trachea located?

**Question 2**

Most insects have a couple of what?

**Question 3**

What's inside a man's testicles?

**Question 4**

What are the follicles within the male reproductive system associated with?

**Text number 26**

Insects breathe without lungs. Instead, the insect respiratory system uses a system of internal tubes and sacs through which gases are either diffused or actively pumped, delivering oxygen directly to the tissues that need it through the trachea (element 8 in the numbered figure). Because oxygen is delivered directly, the circulatory system is not used to transport oxygen and therefore its use is greatly reduced. The insect circulatory system has neither veins nor arteries, but consists of a single perforated spinal tube that pulses peristaltically. Towards the thorax, the dorsal tube (element 14) divides into chambers and acts like an insect's heart. The opposite end of the spinal tube is like an insect's aorta, which circulates haemolymph, the liquid equivalent of arthropod blood, within the body cavity:61-65 Air is taken in through openings in the sides of the abdomen, called spirals.

**Question 0**

Insect respiration occurs without what?

**Question 1**

Insect respiratory tracts contain sacs, and what else?

**Question 2**

What is diffused or actively pumped through the insect's respiratory tract?

**Question 3**

What does the insect's respiratory tract carry into the tissues?

**Question 4**

Which system in an insect's respiratory tract does not carry oxygen?

**Text number 27**

Different groups of insects have many different patterns of gas exchange. Insect gas exchange patterns can range from continuous and diffusive ventilation to discontinuous gas exchange.:65-68 In continuous gas exchange, oxygen is taken in and carbon dioxide is released in a continuous cycle. In contrast, in discontinuous gas exchange, the insect takes in oxygen while active, and small amounts of carbon dioxide are released while the insect is at rest. Diffusive ventilation is simply a form of continuous gas exchange that occurs by diffusion rather than by physically taking in oxygen. Some aquatic insect species also have adaptations that aid respiration. As larvae, many insects have gills that can absorb oxygen dissolved in water, while other insects need to rise to the surface to replenish their air reserves, which may be held or trapped in special structures.

**Question 0**

What kind of exchanges do different insects show?

**Question 1**

Gas exchange patterns can include what type of ventilation?

**Question 2**

What type of gas exchange releases carbon dioxide continuously?

**Question 3**

What gas exchanges does carbon dioxide release when an insect rests?

**Question 4**

How does diffusion ventilation work?

**Text number 28**

Most insects hatch from eggs. Fertilisation and development take place inside the egg, which is surrounded by a shell (chorion) of maternal tissue. Unlike the eggs of other arthropods, most insect eggs are drought resistant. This is because two additional membranes, the amnion and the serosa, develop from embryonic tissue inside the chorion. The serosa secretes a chitin-rich cuticle that protects the embryo from desiccation. In Schizophora, however, the serosa does not develop; these flies lay their eggs in moist places, such as rotting matter. Some insect species, such as the cockroach Blaptica dubia and juvenile aphids and tsetse flies, are oviparous. The eggs of ovoviviparous animals develop entirely inside the female and hatch immediately after laying. Some other species, such as those of the cockroach genus Diploptera, are viable, i.e. they develop inside the mother and are born alive.:129, 131, 134-135 Some insects, such as parasitic wasps, have polygyny, in which a single fertilised egg cell divides into many, sometimes thousands of separate embryos:136-137 Insects can be mono-, di- or polygynous, i.e. they can have one, two or many nests (generations) per year.

**Question 0**

Where do insects hatch?

**Question 1**

Where does conception take place?

**Question 2**

Fertilisation and what else happens inside the egg?

**Question 3**

Chorion is another word for what?

**Question 4**

Broods is another term for what word?

**Text number 29**

Other developmental and reproductive variants include haplodiploidy, polymorphism, pedomorphism or peramorphism, sexual dimorphism, parthenogenesis and, less commonly, hermaphroditism.:143 In haplodiploidy, which is a type of sex determination system, the sex of an offspring is determined by the number of pairs of chromosomes an individual receives. This system is typical in bees and wasps. Polymorphism means that a species can have different morphs or forms, such as the long-winged katydid, which has four different species: green, pink and yellow or brownish. Some insects may retain phenotypes that are normally found only in young insects; this is called pededomorphosis. In peramorphosis, the opposite phenomenon, insects adopt previously invisible traits as they mature into adults. Many insects have sexual dimorphism, in which males and females have a markedly different appearance, such as the moth Orgyia recensis, an example of insect sexual dimorphism.

**Question 0**

Polymorphism is a developmental and reproductive disorder what?

**Question 1**

What type of system is haplodiploidy?

**Question 2**

The number of chromosome pairs determines the offspring of which?

**Question 3**

Which insects have a sex determination system?

**Question 4**

Polymorphism species have different forms or what else?

**Text number 30**

Some insects use parthenogenesis, a process in which the female can reproduce and give birth without the male fertilising the eggs. Many aphids use a form of parthenogenesis called cyclic parthenogenesis, in which they alternate between one or more generations of asexual and sexual reproduction. In summer, aphids are usually female and parthenogenetic, but in autumn they may produce males for sexual reproduction. Other insects that produce by parthenogenesis include bees, wasps and ants, which produce males. Overall, however, most individuals are females produced by fertilisation. Males are haploids and females are diploids. Rarely, some insects exhibit hermaphroditism, where a given individual has both male and female reproductive organs.

**Question 0**

How many insects use parthenogenesis?

**Question 1**

What is childbirth without fertilised eggs?

**Question 2**

What is usually involved in parthenogenesis?

**Question 3**

Aphis is asexual and sexual what?

**Question 4**

Aphis is usually female and what else in summer?

**Text number 31**

Hemimetabolous insects, i.e. insects with incomplete metamorphosis, undergo a gradual metamorphosis through several molts. An insect moths when it outgrows its exoskeleton, which is not flexible and would otherwise limit the insect's growth. The molting process begins when the insect's epidermis secretes new epicuticle into the old epicuticle. Once the new epicuticle has been secreted, the epidermis releases an enzyme mixture that breaks down the endocuticle, thus detaching the old envelope. Once this stage is complete, the insect causes its body to swell by taking in large amounts of water or air, causing the old cuticle to split at predetermined weak points where the old exocuticle was thinnest. :142

**Question 0**

Insects with incomplete metamorphosis are called?

**Question 1**

What kind of metamorphosis do hemimetabolous insects undergo?

**Question 2**

Do haemimetabolous insects change quickly or gradually?

**Question 3**

Hemimetabolous insects are gradually becoming a series of what?

**Question 4**

Insects molt when they grow out of what?

**Text number 32**

In holometabolism, or complete metamorphosis, an insect undergoes four stages of change: egg or embryo, larva, pupa and adult, or imago. In these species, the egg hatches into a larva, which is usually worm-like in shape. This worm form can be different: eruciform (larval), scarabaeiform (larval), campodeiform (elongated, flat and active), elateriform (wireworm) or vermiform (larval). The larva grows and eventually turns into a pupa, a stage characterised by reduced locomotion and often enclosed in a cocoon. There are three types of cocoon: obtect, exarate and coarctate. Obtect-tupes are compact, with the legs and other appendages enclosed. The legs and other attachments of Exarate tops are free and extend. Coarctate pupae develop inside the larval skin:151 Insects undergo significant changes in shape during the pupal stage and develop into adults. Butterflies are a well-known example of insects that undergo complete metamorphosis, although most insects use this life cycle. Some insects have evolved this system as hypermetamorphosis.

**Question 0**

What is a complete metamorphosis?

**Question 1**

How many stages occur in a complete metamorphosis?

**Question 2**

What is another word for egg?

**Question 3**

What is image?

**Question 4**

Name an example of an insect that undergoes complete metamorphosis?

**Text number 33**

Many insects have very sensitive or specialised sensory organs. Some insects, such as bees, can detect ultraviolet wavelengths or polarised light, while the antennae of moths can detect the pheromones of female butterflies at distances of several kilometres. The yellow paper wasp (Polistes versicolor) is known for its oscillatory movements, a form of communication within the colony; it can oscillate at 10.6 ± 2.1 Hz (n=190). These waving movements can signal the arrival of new material in the nest, and aggression between workers can be used to encourage other workers to increase foraging trips. There is a clear tendency to trade-off between visual acuity and chemical or tactile sensation, such that most insects with well-developed eyes have smaller or simpler antennae, and vice versa. There are several different mechanisms by which insects detect sound, and although the patterns are not universal, insects can generally hear sound if they can produce it. Different insect species can have varying degrees of hearing, although most insects can only hear a narrow range of frequencies related to the frequency of the sounds they produce. Mosquitoes have been found to hear frequencies as low as 2 kHz, and some crickets can hear frequencies as high as 50 kHz. Certain predators and parasitic insects can detect the characteristic sounds produced by their prey or host. For example, some nocturnal moths can detect ultrasonic emissions from bats, which helps them avoid predation.87-94 Blood-dwelling insects have special sensory structures that can detect infrared radiation and use it to locate their hosts.

**Question 0**

What kind of specialised organs do insects have?

**Question 1**

Insect organs are described as sensitive and what?

**Question 2**

What kind of insect can detect ultraviolet wavelengths?

**Question 3**

What kind of light do bees detect?

**Question 4**

What is Polistes versicolor?

**Text number 34**

Some insects have a rudimentary sense of numbers, such as solitary wasps, which prey on only one species. The mother wasp lays her eggs in single cells and gives each egg a number of live larvae from which the young feed when they hatch. Some wasp species always provide five larvae per cell, others twelve and others up to twenty-four. The number of larvae varies from species to species, but is always the same for each sex of the larva. The male of the solitary wasp of the genus Eumenes is smaller than the female, so the mother of one species provides only five larvae; the larger female receives ten larvae in her cell.

**Question 0**

What kind of number sense do insects have?

**Question 1**

Which insect has a rudimentary number sense?

**Question 2**

What species does the solitary wasp prey on?

**Question 3**

What does a wasp moth offer its eggs when they hatch?

**Question 4**

Is a male solitary wasp bigger or smaller than a female solitary wasp?

**Text number 35**

A few insects, such as members of the Poduridae and Onychiuridae (Collembola), Mycetophilidae (Diptera) and Lampyridae, Phengodidae, Elateridae and Staphylinidae, are bioluminescent. The best known group is the fireflies, beetles of the family Lampyridae. Some species are able to control this light formation and produce flashes of light. The function varies, as some species use them to attract mates, while others use them to attract prey. The cave-dwelling larvae of the genus Arachnocampa (Mycetophilidae, fungus gnats) glow to attract small flying insects in sticky silk threads. Some fireflies of the genus Photuris mimic the flashing of females of the genus Photinus to attract males of that species, which are then caught and eaten. The colours of the light emitted range from dull blue (Orfelia fultoni, Mycetophilidae) to familiar green and rare red (Phrixothrix tiemanni, Phengodidae).

**Question 0**

What is another name for Colleobola?

**Question 1**

Mycetophilldae is another name for what?

**Question 2**

Phengodidae is part of what insect family?

**Question 3**

Elateridae and Staphylinidae are what types of luminescence?

**Question 4**

Which fly species mimics the flashing of a Photinus female to attract males?

**Text number 36**

Most insects, with the exception of some species of cave crickets, can detect light and darkness. Many species have keen eyesight that can detect even the slightest movements. Eyes can include simple eyes, called oculars, as well as compound eyes of different sizes. Many species can detect light at wavelengths of infrared, ultraviolet and visible light. Colour vision has been demonstrated in many species, and phylogenetic analysis suggests that UV-green-blue tri-colour vision existed at least in the Devonian period 416-359 million years ago.

**Question 0**

Most insects can detect darkness and what else?

**Question 1**

Which insect cannot detect light and darkness?

**Question 2**

What kind of vision do most insects have?

**Question 3**

What kind of movement do insects detect?

**Question 4**

Many insects can see visible light, ultraviolet and what other light?

**Text number 37**

Insects were the earliest organisms to produce and sense sounds. Insects produce sounds mainly mechanically by means of accessory organs. In grasshoppers and crickets, this is done by stridulation. Crickets produce the loudest sounds of all insects by producing and amplifying sounds through specific modifications to their bodies and musculature. The sound of the African crane swordfish Brevisana brevis has been measured at 106.7 decibels at a distance of 50 cm. Some insects, such as Helicoverpa beetles, hawk moths and Hedylid butterflies, can hear ultrasound and take evasive action when they detect bats spotting them. Some moths produce ultrasonic clicks that were once thought to interfere with bat sonar. It was later discovered that the ultrasonic clicks were mainly produced by unpleasant moths to warn bats, just as warning colours are used against predators that prey on the sense of sight. Some otherwise tasty moths have evolved to mimic these sounds. Recently, the argument that some moths can interfere with the echolocation of bats has been revisited. Ultrasound recordings of bat-moth interactions and high-speed infrared video recordings suggest that the tasty tiger butterfly actually defends itself against attacking big brown bats by using ultrasonic clicks to disrupt bat echolocation.

**Question 0**

What were the earliest sound-producing organisms?

**Question 1**

What do insects sense?

**Question 2**

What kind of activity makes insect sounds?

**Question 3**

What is the mechanical action that prevents insects from making noise?

**Question 4**

What kind of clicking sounds do moths make?

**Text number 38**

Various species of Coleoptera, Hymenoptera, Lepidoptera, Mantodea and Neuroptera also produce very low sounds. These low sounds are simply the sounds produced by the movement of the insect. Microscopic stridulation structures in the insect's muscles and joints amplify the insect's normal movement sounds, which can be used to warn or communicate with other insects. Most sound-producing insects also have eardrums that can detect airborne sounds. Some species of the genus Hemiptera, such as corixids (water boatmen), are known to communicate using underwater sounds. Most insects are also able to sense vibrations transmitted through surfaces.

**Question 0**

What volume does Coleoptera produce?

**Question 1**

Low insect sounds are produced by an insect from where?

**Question 2**

Low-level insect sounds can be heard through what?

**Question 3**

Insect movement sounds are used to warn and do what with other insects?

**Question 4**

What kind of sounds can the koriksids use to communicate?

**Text number 39**

Some species use vibrations to communicate between members of the same species, such as to attract a mate, as in the song of the turtle dove (Nezara viridula). Vibrations can also be used to communicate between completely different species; myrmecophilic lycaenid butterflies (which live in mutualistic relationships with ants) communicate with ants in this way. The Madagascar hissing cockroach is able to push air through its nostrils and make a hissing sound as a sign of aggression. The death's-head hawkmoth emits a squeaky sound by forcing air out of its throat when agitated, which may also reduce aggressive worker bee behaviour when bees are in close proximity.

**Question 0**

What do insects use to communicate with members of the same species?

**Question 1**

Vibrations are used to communicate with members of the same species and with which other species?

**Question 2**

Which insects have a song to attract males of the same species?

**Question 3**

What is a lycaenid larva?

**Question 4**

What do you call living with ants?

**Text number 40**

Chemical communication in animals is based on many different factors, such as taste and smell. Chemoresponsiveness is the physiological response of a sensory organ (e.g. the sense of taste or smell) to a chemical stimulus, where chemicals act as signals that regulate the state or function of a cell. A semiochemical is a chemical that carries a message and is designed to attract, repel and transmit information. Types of semiochemicals include pheromones and kairomones. One example is the butterfly Phengaris arion, which uses chemical signals as a form of mimicry to aid predation.

**Question 0**

What is the communication between taste and smell in animals?

**Question 1**

What is the physiological response of a sensory organ?

**Question 2**

Chemical stimuli are signals that regulate the action of what?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the chemical that transmits the message?

**Question 4**

Kairomons are a kind of what?

**Text number 41**

In addition to using sound, many insects have developed chemical means of communication. These chemicals, called semiochemicals, are often derived from plant metabolites and are used to attract, repel and provide other types of information. Pheromones, a type of semiochemical, are used to attract mating partners of the opposite sex, to bring similar individuals of both sexes together, to block the approach of other individuals, to mark tracks and to trigger aggression by nearby individuals. The allomone benefits its producer through the effect it has on the recipient. Kairomones benefit the recipient rather than the producer. Synomones benefit the producer and the recipient. Some chemicals are targeted to individuals of the same species, while others are used for interspecies communication. The use of scents is known to have evolved especially among social insects.:96-105

**Question 0**

Insects use sound and what other means of communication?

**Question 1**

What are the chemicals that insects use to communicate?

**Question 2**

Where do semiochemicals come from?

**Question 3**

Insecticides are used to attract and what else?

**Question 4**

Which insecticide benefits both the recipient and the producer?

**Text number 42**

Social insects such as termites, ants and many bees and wasps are the most familiar eusocial species. They live together in large, well-organised colonies that can be so tightly integrated and genetically similar that colonies of some species are sometimes considered superorganisms. It is sometimes argued that bee species are the only invertebrates (and in fact one of the few non-human groups) to have evolved an abstract symbolic communication system in which behaviour is used to describe and convey specific information about something in the environment. In this communication system, called the dance language, the angle at which the bee dances represents the direction relative to the sun, and the length of the dance represents the distance flown.:309-311 Although bumblebees may not be as evolved as honeybees, they may also have some social modes of communication. For example, Bombus terrestris learns to visit unfamiliar but rewarding flowers more quickly when it sees its conspecifics feeding on the same species.

**Question 0**

What type of insect are termites?

**Question 1**

Termites, bees, wasps and which other insects are social insects?

**Question 2**

What is another term for a social insect?

**Question 3**

Social insects live in well-organised what?

**Question 4**

What is called the method by which a bee dances?

**Text number 43**

Only insects living in nests or colonies have a real capacity for fine spatial orientation or localisation. It allows an insect to return unmistakably to a single hole a few millimetres in diameter among thousands of apparently identical holes, even after travelling several kilometres. Hibernating insects have shown that they can recall a specific location up to a year after they last saw the area of interest. A few insects migrate seasonally over long distances between different geographical areas (e.g. the wintering grounds of the monarch butterfly):14

**Question 0**

Insects with a fine-grained spatial orientation live in colonies and where else?

**Question 1**

Some insects have a fine spatial orientation and/or what else?

**Question 2**

Localisation allows an insect to return to one particular hole among how many other holes?

**Question 3**

What is called an insect that remembers a specific place for up to a year?

**Question 4**

What does an insect do that can remember a particular place for up to a year?

**Text number 44**

Eusocial insects build nests, guard eggs and provide food for offspring full-time (see Eusociality). However, most insects live short lives as adults and rarely interact with each other, except to mate or compete for mates. A small proportion of insects have some form of parenthood, when they at least guard their eggs, and sometimes continue to guard their offspring into adulthood, possibly even feeding them. Another simple form of parenting is the construction of a nest (a burrow or actual structure, which can be simple or complex) in which food is stored and in which the egg is laid. The adult does not make contact with the growing offspring, but it does provide food. This type of management is typical of most bee species and various wasp species.

**Question 0**

Do eusocial insects provide food for their offspring full-time or part-time?

**Question 1**

What do eusocial insects guard?

**Question 2**

What do eusocial insects build?

**Question 3**

What kind of life do most eusocial insects lead when they reach adulthood?

**Question 4**

Adult eusocial insect does not contact what?

**Text number 45**

Insects are the only group of invertebrates to have evolved flight. The evolution of insect wings has been debated. Some entomologists propose that wings originate from paranotal lobes, extensions of the insect's exoskeleton called nota, a theory known as the paranotal theory. Other theories are based on a pleural origin. These theories include proposals that the wings originate from modified gills, a spinneret or an epicoxa appendage. Epicoxa theory suggests that insect wings are modified epicoxa explants, modified appendages at the base of the legs or coxa. In the Carboniferous period, some Meganeura dragonflies had wingspans up to 50 cm (20 inches) wide. The presence of giant insects has been found to be consistent with high atmospheric oxygen levels. Insects are limited in size by their respiratory systems, but high atmospheric oxygen levels allowed for larger sizes. Today, the largest flying insects are much smaller, and include several species of butterflies such as the atlas butterfly and the white witch (Thysania agrippina).

**Question 0**

Insects are the only invertebrates that have evolved into what?

**Question 1**

Which part of the insect has been discussed?

**Question 2**

What is the theory behind the paranormal wings?

**Question 3**

What is the origin of the wings of the modified gills?

**Question 4**

According to the epicoxal theory, insect wings have mutated into what?

**Text number 46**

Many adult insects use six legs for walking and have adopted a three-legged gait. Tripod walking allows for a fast gait while maintaining a stable posture, and has been extensively studied in cockroaches. The legs are used alternately in a triangle that touches the ground. On the first step, the middle right leg and the front and back left legs are in contact with the ground and move the insect forward, while the front and back right legs and the middle left leg are lifted and moved forward to a new position. When they touch the ground to form a new stable triangle, the other legs can be lifted and moved forward in turn, and so on. The purest form of tripod walking can be seen in insects moving at high speed. However, this form of locomotion is not rigid and insects can adapt to different walking patterns. For example, when moving slowly, turning or dodging obstacles, four or more legs may touch the ground. Insects can also adapt their gait to cope with the loss of one or more limbs.

**Question 0**

How many legs do adult insects have?

**Question 1**

What kind of gait have most adult insects adopted?

**Question 2**

What kind of walking is possible with tripod walking?

**Question 3**

How many steps can insects take?

**Question 4**

Insects can change their gait to cope with the loss of what?

**Text number 47**

Cockroaches are among the fastest insect runners, and at full speed they run bipedally to reach high speeds for their body size. Because cockroaches move very fast, they need to be filmed at several hundred frames per second to get a clear picture of their gait. A slower movement is seen in stick insects, the walking stick (Phasmatodea). A few insects have evolved to walk on the surface of water, notably members of the family Gerridae, commonly known as water-hoppers. A few ocean climber species of the genus Halobates even live on the surface of the open sea, a habitat where few insect species are found.

**Question 0**

What kind of movement can be seen in stick insects?

**Question 1**

What is another name for walking stick insects?

**Question 2**

What can some insects walk on?

**Question 3**

Which insect can walk on the surface of water?

**Question 4**

Which insect family do aquatic insects belong to?

**Text number 48**

Many of these species have adaptations to help them move underwater. Water beetles and aquatic insects have legs adapted to paddle-like structures. Dragonfly naiads use jets to force water out of their rectal chambers. Some species, such as water lizards, can walk on the surface of water. They are able to do this because their claws are not on the tips of their feet, as in most insects, but are embedded in a special groove deeper in the top of the feet; this prevents the claws from piercing the surface of the water. Other insects, such as the Stenus beetle (Stenus), are known to secrete pygidial glandular secretions that reduce surface tension, allowing them to move on the surface of the water with Marangoni propulsion (also known by the German term Entspannungsschwimmen).

**Question 0**

What type of legs do water beetles have?

**Question 1**

What kind of propulsion do dragonflies use?

**Question 2**

Where do dragonflies shoot water from?

**Question 3**

What is the special track on the water foot?

**Question 4**

What types of gland secretions does the Stenus beetle secrete?

**Text number 49**

Insect ecology is the scientific study of how insects interact with the surrounding environment or ecosystem, either as individuals or as communities.3 Insects play one of the most important roles in their ecosystems, which include many functions such as turning and aerating soil, burying manure, pest control, pollination and feeding wildlife. An example of this is beetles, which are scavengers that eat dead animals and fallen trees, thereby recycling biological materials into forms that other organisms find useful. These and other insects are responsible for most of the process of topsoil formation:3, 218-228.

**Question 0**

What is called learning about how insects interact with their environment?

**Question 1**

What is another term for the surrounding environment?

**Question 2**

What role do insects play in the ecosystem?

**Question 3**

What kind of burrowing do insects do?

**Question 4**

Beetles are also called what?

**Text number 50**

Camouflage is an important defensive strategy that uses colouring or shape to blend in with the surrounding environment. Such protective colouration is common and widespread among beetle genera, especially those that feed on wood or vegetation, such as many leaf beetles (Chrysomelidae) or beetles that feed on nettles. In some of these species, carving or differently coloured scales or hairs make the beetle resemble bird droppings or other inedible objects. Many species that live in sandy environments blend in with the colour of the substrate. Most phasmids are known to effectively mimic the shapes of sticks and leaves, and some species (such as O. macklotti and Palophus centaurus) have mossy or lichen-like projections covering their bodies to complement their camouflage. Some species have the ability to change colour in response to changes in their environment (B. scabrinota, T. californica). In addition, several species have been observed to complement cryptic behaviour with a rocking movement of the body from side to side, which is thought to mirror the movement of leaves or branches swaying in the wind. Another way in which stinging insects avoid predation and resemble branches is by feigning death (catalepsy), whereby the insect enters a motionless state that it can maintain for a long period of time. The nocturnal feeding habits of adult individuals also help Phasmatodea to remain hidden from predators.

**Question 0**

What is an important defence strategy for insects to survive?

**Question 1**

What colouring and shape help the insect to function in the environment?

**Question 2**

Protective staining is common in which insect family?

**Question 3**

What is Chrysomelidae?

**Question 4**

What kind of dung can a beetle resemble?

**Text number 51**

Another defensive tactic that often uses colour or shape to distract potential enemies is impersonation. Many longhorn beetles (Cerambycidae) bear a striking resemblance to wasps, which helps them avoid predation, even though the beetles are actually harmless. Bates and Müller mimicry complexes are common in bat species. Genetic polymorphism and natural selection result in otherwise edible species (mimic species) gaining a survival advantage by resembling inedible species (model). Such a mimicry complex is called Batesian, and is most commonly known from the mimicry of the lime-titid butterfly Viceroy butterfly to the inedible danai butterfly Monarch. Subsequent studies have found that Viceroy is actually more venomous than Monarch, and this similarity should be considered a case of mimicry in Müllerian mimicry. In Mullerian mimicry, inedible species, usually within a taxonomic order, find it useful to resemble each other to reduce the sampling rate of predators who need to know the inedibility of the insects. The taxa of the venomous genus Heliconius form one of the best-known Mullerian complexes.

**Question 0**

What is the strategy of imitation?

**Question 1**

Mimicry is used to do what to potential enemies?

**Question 2**

What other insects are beetles like?

**Question 3**

Mimicry complexes are usually found where?

**Question 4**

What is the well-known Mullerian complex?

**Text number 52**

Chemical defence is another important form of defence, found in Coleoptera and Lepidoptera species and usually advertised with bright colours, such as the Monarch butterfly. They gain their toxicity by binding chemicals from the plants they eat to their own tissues. Some bat butterflies make their own venom. Predators that eat poisonous butterflies and moths can become sick and vomit violently, learning not to eat such species; this is in fact the basis of Müllerian mimicry. A predator that has eaten a poisonous lepidopteran in the past may avoid other species with similar markings in the future, thus sparing many other species. Some beetles of the genus Carabidae can spray chemicals from their stomachs with great precision to repel predators.

**Question 0**

What kind of defence do Coleoptera species have?

**Question 1**

What chemical defence does the monarch butterfly use?

**Question 2**

Insects become toxic by doing what with plant chemicals?

**Question 3**

Which insect makes its own poisons?

**Question 4**

What can some beetles spray from their stomachs?

**Text number 53**

Pollination is the process by which pollen is transferred in plant reproduction, allowing fertilisation and sexual reproduction. Most flowering plants require an animal to perform the transport. Although other animals are counted as pollinators, insects do most of the pollination. Since insects usually benefit from pollination in the form of energy-rich nectar, it is a great example of mutualism. Different flower characteristics (and combinations of them) that attract one type of pollinator or another in different ways are called pollination syndromes. They have evolved through complex plant-animal adaptations. Pollinators find flowers through bright colouration, including ultraviolet, and attractive pheromones. The study of pollination by insects is called anthropology.

**Question 0**

The pollen transferred in plant reproduction is called?

**Question 1**

What is needed to transport pollen?

**Question 2**

What does most of the pollination?

**Question 3**

What do insects get in return for pollination?

**Question 4**

Flowers that allow only one type of pollinator are called what?

**Text number 54**

Many insects are considered pests by humans. Insects that are commonly considered pests include parasites (e.g. lice, louses), disease spreaders (mosquitoes, flies), damage to structures (termites) or destroy agricultural products (grasshoppers, hives). Many entomologists are involved in various forms of pest control, such as research for insecticide companies, but increasingly they rely on biological control, or biopesticides. Biological control uses one organism to reduce the population density of another organism - the pest - and is seen as a key component of integrated pest management.

**Question 0**

What do people like about insects?

**Question 1**

Lice and bed bugs are considered what kind of insect?

**Question 2**

Flies and which other insects spread diseases?

**Question 3**

What kind of insect can damage architectural structures?

**Question 4**

What do grasshoppers destroy?

**Text number 55**

Although pest insects are the most popular, many insects are beneficial to the environment and to humans. Some insects, such as wasps, bees, butterflies and ants, pollinate flowering plants. Pollination is a reciprocal relationship between plants and insects. When insects gather nectar from different plants of the same species, they also spread pollen from plants they have previously eaten. This greatly increases the ability of plants to cross-pollinate, which maintains and possibly even improves their evolutionary fitness. Ultimately, this has implications for humans, as ensuring healthy crops is crucial for agriculture. In addition to pollination, ants help to spread plant seeds. This helps in plant dispersal, which increases plant diversity. This leads to a better environment overall. A serious environmental problem is the decline in pollinator insect populations, and today several species of insects are cultivated primarily for pollination control to provide sufficient pollinators in the field, orchard, or greenhouse during the flowering season:240-243 Another solution, as in Delaware, has been the cultivation of native plants to support native pollinators such as L. viereck. The insects also produce useful substances such as honey, wax, varnish and silk. Humans have been cultivating honey bees for thousands of years for honey, although for beekeepers, crop pollination is becoming increasingly important. The silkworm has had a major impact on human history, as the silk trade has forged links between China and the rest of the world.

**Question 0**

What kind of insects attract people's attention the most?

**Question 1**

What are many insects to the environment?

**Question 2**

What do bees, wasps, butterflies and ants do to flowers?

**Question 3**

What do insects collect from plants?

**Question 4**

What kind of environmental problems would arise without pollination?

**Text number 56**

Insectivorous insects, i.e. insects that eat other insects, are beneficial to humans because they eat insects that can cause damage to agriculture and human structures. For example, aphids eat crops and cause problems for farmers, but ladybirds eat aphids and can be used as a means of significantly reducing pest aphid populations. While birds may be the more visible insect predators, insects themselves account for the majority of insect consumption. Ants also help control animal populations by consuming small vertebrates. Without predators to keep them in check, insects can experience almost unstoppable population explosions.:328-348:400

**Question 0**

Which insects eat other insects?

**Question 1**

Are insectivorous insects beneficial or harmful to humans?

**Question 2**

Which insect eats aphids?

**Question 3**

What are the most visible insect predators?

**Question 4**

What is the biggest consumer of insects?

**Text number 57**

Insects play an important role in biological research. For example, the common fruit fly Drosophila melanogaster, because of its small size, short generation and high fecundity, is a model organism for research into the genetics of higher eukaryotes. D. melanogaster has played an integral role in the study of principles such as genetic linkage, gene interactions, chromosomal genes, development, behaviour and evolution. Because genetic systems are highly conserved among eukaryotes, understanding basic cellular processes such as DNA replication or transcription in fruit flies can help to understand these processes in other eukaryotes, including humans. The D. melanogaster genome was sequenced in 2000, reflecting its important role in biological research. It was found that 70% of the fly genome is similar to the human genome, supporting the theory of evolution.

**Question 0**

Where do insects play an important role?

**Question 1**

What is a common insect used for research purposes?

**Question 2**

Drosophila has helped develop the principles of what kind of linkage?

**Question 3**

Genetic systems are conserved among what types of systems?

**Question 4**

What percentage of the fly genome is similar to the human genome?

**Text number 58**

In some cultures insects, especially deep-fried crickets, are considered a delicacy, while in others they are part of the normal diet. Insects are high in protein for their mass, and some authors suggest that they could be a major source of protein in the human diet.10-13 However, in most first world countries, entomophagy (eating insects) is taboo. Since it is impossible to completely eliminate insect pests from the human food chain, insects are inadvertently present in many foods, especially cereals. Food safety legislation in many countries does not ban the presence of insects in food, but rather limits their presence. According to cultural materialist anthropologist Marvin Harris, eating insects is taboo in cultures that have other sources of protein, such as fish or cattle.

**Question 0**

What insects are considered insects in some cultures?

**Question 1**

Which deep-fried insect is part of the normal diet in some cultures?

**Question 2**

What is the protein content of insects?

**Question 3**

What is the term for eating insects?

**Question 4**

Where is eating insects considered taboo?

**Text number 59**

Scarab beetles had religious and cultural symbolism in Ancient Egypt, Greece and some shamanistic Old World cultures. The ancient Chinese regarded crickets as symbols of rebirth or immortality. In Mesopotamian literature, the epic poem of Gilgamesh contains references to the Odonata beetles, which signify the impossibility of immortality. Among the Australian Arrernte Aborigines, honey ants and witch ants were personal clan themes. For the San Bushmen of Kalahari, the praying mantis has cultural significance, including the importance of creation and Zen-like patience in waiting:9

**Question 0**

Which insect from the ancient world is considered symbolic?

**Question 1**

In which culture do pigs symbolise immortality?

**Question 2**

What kind of ants are symbolic among Australian Aborigines?

**Question 3**

The praying mantis symbolises patience and what else?

**Question 4**

In which countries do witch maids act as personal totems for clans?

**Document number 308**

**Text number 0**

While there is a broad consensus in science that essentialist and typological conceptualisations of race are unsustainable, researchers around the world continue to conceptualise race in very different ways, some of which have essentialist implications. While some scientists sometimes use the concept of race to distinguish between imprecise sets of traits, others in the scientific community believe that the concept of race is often used in a naive or simplistic way,[page needed] and argue that humans are taxonomically irrelevant because all living humans belong to the same species, Homo sapiens, and the same subspecies, Homo sapiens sapiens sapiens.

**Question 0**

Where do all living people belong?

**Question 1**

What species are all humans?

**Question 2**

Among whom is race of no taxonomic significance?

**Question 3**

Between which set of characteristics do some researchers use race to differentiate?

**Question 4**

How do scientists around the world still conceptualise race?

**Text number 1**

There is a broad consensus that, in everyday use, common racial categories are socially constructed and that racial groups cannot be defined biologically. However, some researchers argue that racial categories are correlated to some extent with biological characteristics (e.g. phenotype) and that the prevalence of certain genetic markers in human populations varies, some of which correspond more or less to traditional racial groups. For this reason, there is currently no consensus on whether racial categories can be considered relevant for understanding human genetic variation.

**Question 0**

Which group cannot be defined biologically?

**Question 1**

What kind of classification in everyday use is there a broad consensus that it is only a social construct?

**Question 2**

What do some people claim that racial categories apparently correlate with?

**Question 3**

The frequency of some genetic markers varies between which populations?

**Question 4**

What is the majority opinion on whether racial categories can be considered to have an impact on human genetic variation?

**Text number 2**

When people define and talk about a particular concept of race, they create a social reality through which social classification is implemented. In this sense, races are said to be social constructs. These constructs develop in different legal, economic and socio-political contexts and can be the result rather than the cause of significant social situations. While many understand race as a social construct, most scholars agree that race has real material effects on people's lives through institutionalised practices of favouritism and discrimination.

**Question 0**

How do people create a social reality in which social classification takes place?

**Question 1**

What can be called a social construct?

**Question 2**

In what contexts do social constructions of race develop?

**Question 3**

Constructs can be a consequence rather than a cause of what?

**Question 4**

How does race affect people's lives?

**Text number 3**

Socio-economic factors, combined with an early but persistent racial perception, have led to considerable suffering among disadvantaged racial groups. Racial discrimination is often associated with a racist mindset in which individuals and ideologies of one group come to regard members of an out-group as both racially defined and morally inferior. As a result, racial groups with relatively little power are often marginalised or oppressed, while hegemonic individuals and institutions are blamed for racist attitudes. Racism has led to many tragedies such as slavery and genocide.

**Question 0**

Socio-economic factors and enduring racial perceptions have led to what has happened to certain racial groups?

**Question 1**

What does discrimination often involve?

**Question 2**

How do members of one group typically perceive the moral status of out-groups?

**Question 3**

Where do less powerful groups often find themselves?

**Question 4**

What has led to many tragic events, such as slavery and genocide?

**Text number 4**

In some countries, law enforcement authorities use race to profile suspects. This use of racial categories is often criticised for perpetuating outdated notions of human biological variation and promoting stereotypes. Because in some societies racial groupings closely correspond to patterns of social stratification, race can be an important variable for social scientists studying social inequalities. As sociological factors, racial categories can partly reflect subjective attributions, self-identities and social institutions.

**Question 0**

What do law enforcement authorities in some countries use to profile suspects?

**Question 1**

Why is the use of racial profiling often criticised?

**Question 2**

What contributes to stereotypes?

**Question 3**

Whose race can be an important factor in studying social inequalities?

**Question 4**

Which may partly reflect subjective characteristics, self-identities and social institutions?

**Text number 5**

Groups of people have always seen themselves as different from their neighbours, but these differences have not always been seen as natural, unchanging and global. These features distinguish how the concept of race is used today. In this way, race as we understand it today emerged during the historical process of exploration and conquest that brought Europeans into contact with groups from different continents, and during the ideology of classification and typology in the natural sciences.

**Question 0**

How have groups of people always perceived themselves in comparison to other close groups?

**Question 1**

What differences between the groups have not typically been found?

**Question 2**

What was the process by which our current understanding of race came about?

**Question 3**

Where did Europeans come into contact with other groups?

**Question 4**

What is the ideology of science?

**Text number 6**

The European concept of "race" and many of the ideas that are associated with it today were born during the scientific revolution, which introduced and prioritised the study of the natural sciences, and during the era of European imperialism and colonisation, which established political relations between Europeans and peoples with different cultural and political traditions. As Europeans encountered people from different parts of the world, they speculated about the physical, social and cultural differences between different groups of people. The rise of the Atlantic slave trade, which gradually supplanted the earlier trade in slaves from all over the world, created an additional incentive to classify groups of people in order to justify the subjugation of African slaves. Drawing on classical sources and their own internal interactions - the hostility between English and Irish, for example, strongly influenced early European thinking about human differences - Europeans began to sort themselves and others into groups based on physical appearance and to attribute to individuals in these groups patterns of behaviour and abilities that were said to be deeply ingrained. A set of folk beliefs emerged that linked inherited physical differences between groups to inherited intellectual, behavioural and moral characteristics. Similar ideas can be found in other cultures, such as China, where the concept, often translated as 'race', was associated with a supposed common descent from the Yellow Emperor and was used to emphasise the unity of ethnic groups in China. There have been bitter conflicts between ethnic groups throughout history and throughout the world.

**Question 0**

When did many ideas related to the concept of "race" originate?

**Question 1**

What created relations between Europeans and people of different cultures?

**Question 2**

Who speculates about the differences between different groups of people?

**Question 3**

Justifying the subordination of which group was one of the incentives for classifying groups of people?

**Question 4**

Which groups have always been in violent conflict?

**Text number 7**

The first published classification of humans into different races after the classical period seems to be François Bernier's Nouvelle division de la terre par les différents espèces ou races qui l'habitent ("New division of the earth according to the different species or races that inhabit it"), published in 1684. However, the scientific classification of phenotypic variation was often accompanied by racist ideas about the innate tendencies of different groups, with the most desirable characteristics always being associated with the white, European race, and other races being classified as a continuum of increasingly undesirable characteristics. In the classification drawn up by Carl Linnaeus, the inventor of zoological taxonomy in 1735, the human race Homo sapiens was divided into the continental species europaeus, asiaticus, americanus and afer, each with a different sense of humour: sanguine, melancholic, choleric and phlegmatic. Homo sapiens europaeus was described as active, sharp and adventurous, while Homo sapiens afer was said to be cunning, lazy and careless.

**Question 0**

Who wrote the first published book that classified people into races?

**Question 1**

In which century did differences between groups of people become a subject of science?

**Question 2**

Which breed traits were typically associated with the most desirable characteristics?

**Question 3**

How was Homo sapiens europaeus described?

**Question 4**

What characteristics were then given to homo spaiens?

**Text number 8**

Johann Friedrich Blumenbach's Natural Varieties of Mankind, published in 1775, proposed five main divisions: the Caucasian race, the Mongoloid race, the Ethiopian race (later called the Negroid and not to be confused with the narrower Ethiopian race), the American Indian race and the Malayan race, but he did not propose any hierarchy between the races. Blumenbach also noted that there was a gradual shift in appearance from one group to adjacent groups, and suggested that 'one species of mankind passes so rationally into another that the boundaries between them cannot be defined'.

**Question 0**

What year was Blumenbach's paper published?

**Question 1**

How many divisions were defined in Blumenbach's study?

**Question 2**

Which breed was later renamed negroid?

**Question 3**

What kind of transitions were observed from one group to another?

**Question 4**

What can't the difference between human diversity mean?

**Text number 9**

The combination of popular beliefs about racial differences and scientific explanations of these differences in the 1600s and 1900s produced, according to one scholar, a "racial ideology". According to this ideology, races are primitive, natural, permanent and distinct. It was also argued that some groups may have been the result of the mixing of previously separate populations, but that careful study could distinguish between ancestral races that had merged and produced mixed groups. Later influential classifications by Georges Buffon, Petrus Camper and Christoph Meiners classified all 'Negroes' as inferior to Europeans. In the US, Thomas Jefferson's race theories were influential. He regarded African whites as inferior, especially in intelligence and with unnatural sexual desires, but described Indians as equal to whites.

**Question 0**

What did the fusion of superstitious beliefs and scientific beliefs about group differences produce?

**Question 1**

What were considered races according to racial ideology?

**Question 2**

How could some groups have led according to ideology?

**Question 3**

Which group was considered to be inferior to Europeans?

**Question 4**

Who specifically noted the unnatural sexual desires of Africans?

**Text number 10**

In the last two decades of the 1700s, the historian Edward Long and the anatomist Charles White, the ethnologists Christoph Meiners and Georg Forster in Germany and Julien-Joseph Virey in France in England promoted the theory of polygenism, the belief that different races had evolved separately on each continent and had no common ancestor. In the United States, Samuel George Morton, Josiah Nott and Louis Agassiz promoted this theory in the mid-19th century. Polygenism was popular and widespread in the 19th century, culminating in the founding of the London Anthropological Society (1863) during the American Civil War, in contrast to the Ethnological Society, which had abolitionist sympathies.

**Question 0**

Which theory is the belief that racial differences had developed independently on each continent?

**Question 1**

In which country did Edward Long and Charles White advocate the belief in polygenism?

**Question 2**

What was the profession of Christoph Meiners and Georg Forster?

**Question 3**

In which century was polygenism most common?

**Question 4**

What was the Ethnological Society sympathetic to?

**Text number 11**

Today, all humans are classified as belonging to Homo sapiens species and Homo sapiens sapiens subspecies. However, this is not the first hominin species: the first Homo species, Homo habilis, is thought to have evolved in East Africa at least 2 million years ago, and members of this species populated different parts of Africa in a relatively short period of time. Homo erectus is thought to have evolved over 1.8 million years ago, and by 1.5 million years ago had spread throughout Europe and Asia. Virtually all physical anthropologists agree that archaic Homo sapiens (a group including the possible species H. heidelbergensis, H. rhodesiensis and H. neanderthalensis) evolved from the African Homo erectus ((sensu lato) or Homo ergaster).

**Question 0**

Which species do all humans alive today belong to?

**Question 1**

When is Homo habilis thought to have evolved in East Africa?

**Question 2**

How many millions of years ago had Homo erectus spread to Europe and Asia?

**Question 3**

Which species populated parts of Africa in a relatively short time?

**Question 4**

From which group could archaic Homo sapiens have evolved?

**Text number 12**

In the early 20th century, many anthropologists accepted and taught the belief that biologically distinct races were isomorphic with distinct linguistic, cultural and social groups, and applied this belief to the field of eugenics, along with a practice now called scientific racism. After the Nazi eugenics programme, racial exceptionalism lost widespread popularity. Racial anthropologists were pressured to acknowledge the findings of cultural and population genetics studies and to revise their conclusions about the sources of phenotypic variation. A significant proportion of modern anthropologists and biologists in the West began to regard race as an unfounded genetic or biological designation.

**Question 0**

Who taught and accepted the belief that biologically different races were isomorphic?

**Question 1**

What practice was integrated into the field of eugenics on issues of diversity of social groups?

**Question 2**

What impact did the Nazi eugenics programme have on racial exceptionalism?

**Question 3**

What conclusions did racial anthropologists have to revise?

**Question 4**

What did many modern anthropologists in the West begin to regard as the racial standard?

**Text number 13**

Population geneticists have debated whether the concept of population can provide a basis for a new concept of race. To this end, a workable definition of population must be found. Surprisingly, there is no universally accepted concept of population used by biologists. Although the concept of population is central to ecology, evolutionary biology and conservation biology, most definitions of population are based on qualitative descriptions, such as "a group of organisms of the same species in a particular state at a particular time" Waples and Gaggiotti identify two broad types of population definitions: those belonging to the ecological paradigm and those belonging to the evolutionary biological paradigm. Examples of such definitions are:

**Question 0**

Which geneticists are discussing what can provide the basis for a new concept of race?

**Question 1**

Which category of researchers, surprisingly, has no generally accepted view of the population?

**Question 2**

What are most definitions of population based on?

**Question 3**

What do Waples and Gaggiotti define as two broad types?

**Question 4**

What are both ecological and evolutionary definition shapers?

**Text number 14**

Traditionally, subspecies are considered to be geographically isolated and genetically distinct populations. In other words, "the term 'subspecies' is used to express the objective degree of divergence in microevolution". The objection to this idea is that it does not specify what degree of differentiation is required. Thus, any population that is biologically slightly different could be considered a subspecies, even at the level of a local population. This is why Templeton has argued that it is necessary to set a threshold for the level of differentiation required to designate a population as a subspecies.

**Question 0**

Which are traditionally geographically isolated?

**Question 1**

What does "subspecies" mean for the purpose of indicating the degree of objectivity?

**Question 2**

What is the objection to the idea of a sub-species because it does not define it?

**Question 3**

What should a population be like to be considered a subspecies?

**Question 4**

What did Templeton argue was necessary to set a threshold for a population to be a subspecies?

**Text number 15**

In practice, this means that populations of organisms must reach a certain measurable level of divergence in order to be recognised as subspecies. Dean Amadon proposed in 1949 that subspecies be defined according to the 75% rule, which means that 75% of a population must be outside 99% of the range of other populations for a given morphological trait or set of traits. The seventy-five percent rule is still defended, but other researchers argue that it should be replaced by a ninety or ninety-five percent rule.

**Question 0**

What organisms must have a measurable abundance to be considered subspecies?

**Question 1**

Who suggested that subspecies should be defined according to the seventy-five percent rule?

**Question 2**

In what year did Dean Amadon make his proposal?

**Question 3**

According to the 75% rule, how much of the population must be outside the range of other populations for a given set of characters?

**Question 4**

Many researchers argue about what should be replaced by the ninety or ninety-five percent rule?

**Text number 16**

In 1978, Sewall Wright suggested that human populations that have lived for long periods in different parts of the world should generally be regarded as different subspecies on the usual criterion that most individuals in such populations can be correctly classified by examination. Wright argued that a trained anthropologist cannot classify English, West African and Chinese with 100% accuracy on the basis of features, skin colour and hair type, even though there is so much variation within these groups that each individual can be easily distinguished from the others. However, it is customary to use the term race rather than subspecies for the major and minor subdivisions of the human species.

**Question 0**

When did Sewall Wright make his proposal on human populations?

**Question 1**

How should account be taken of populations that lived for a long time in different parts of the world?

**Question 2**

What is needed to correctly distribute individuals in subspecies populations?

**Question 3**

What does Wright think an anthropologist should not easily distinguish between groups?

**Question 4**

What term is commonly used instead of a subspecies?

**Text number 17**

Cladistics is another classification method. A clade is a taxonomic group of organisms consisting of a common ancestor and all descendants of that ancestor. Each creature born through sexual reproduction has two direct lineages, one maternal and one paternal. Carl Linnaeus based the taxonomy of living organisms on anatomical similarities and differences, while cladistics seeks to create a taxonomy - a phylogenetic tree - based on genetic similarities and differences and by tracing the process of acquisition of multiple traits by individual organisms. Some researchers have attempted to clarify the concept of race by equating it with the biological idea of a clade. Often mitochondrial DNA or Y-chromosome sequences are used to study the migration pathways of ancient humans. These single-focus DNA sources do not recombine and are inherited from a single parent. Individuals from different continental groups tend to be more similar to each other than to people from other continents, and tracing either mitochondrial DNA or non-recombining Y-chromosome DNA explains how people living in one place can be largely descended from people in a distant place.

**Question 0**

What is the cladistics method?

**Question 1**

What is a clade or taxonomic group?

**Question 2**

How many common ancestors does the clan have?

**Question 3**

What is another term for a phylogenetic tree?

**Question 4**

What chromosome sequences are used to study ancient human migration routes?

**Text number 18**

Often taxonomists prefer to use phylogenetic analysis to determine whether a population can be considered a subspecies. Phylogenetic analysis is based on the concept of derived traits that are not shared between groups, and is usually applied to allopatric (geographically distinct) and therefore separate populations. This would make a sub-species evolutionarily a clade - a group with a common evolutionary ancestral population. The steady gradation of human genetic variation in general rules out the idea that human population groups can be considered monophyletic (purely distinct), since there always seems to have been considerable gene flow between human populations. Rachel Caspari (2003) has argued that clades are by definition monophyletic groups (a taxon containing all descendants of a given ancestor), and since none of the groups currently considered races are monophyletic, none of these groups can be clades.

**Question 0**

Which analytical method do taxonomists prefer to use when looking at a population?

**Question 1**

How are allopatric populations distinguished from each other?

**Question 2**

What is a group with a common evolutionary ancestor population called?

**Question 3**

What is the figure of speech for a word that just means "purely shared"?

**Question 4**

Who claimed in 2003 that all clades are by definition monophyletic groups?

**Text number 19**

However, anthropologists Lieberman and Jackson (1995) argue that there are deeper methodological and conceptual problems with using cladistics to support conceptions of race. They argue that "molecular and biochemical proponents of this model explicitly use racial categories in the initial grouping of samples". For example, large and highly diverse macroethnic groups such as East Indians, North Africans and Europeans are presumably grouped as Caucasian before their DNA variation is analysed. This is said to limit and distort interpretations, obscure other lineage relationships, reduce the influence of more immediate clinical environmental factors on genomic diversity, and may obscure our understanding of true kinship relationships. They argue that no matter how significant the empirical research, these studies use the term race conceptually imprecisely and carelessly. They argue that the authors of these studies find support for racial segregation only because they started out by assuming the validity of race. "For empirical reasons, we prefer to emphasize clinical variation, which recognizes the existence of adaptive heritable variation in humans while emphasizing that such variation does not occur in packets that can be called races. "

**Question 0**

What did Lieberman and Jackon find to be the deep problems with using cladistics to support their concepts?

**Question 1**

Into which group would the different groups of East Indians, North Africans and Europeans be grouped before DNA analysis?

**Question 2**

Cladistics can limit and distort what?

**Question 3**

Lieberman and Jackson suggest that some researchers use the term race in what way?

**Question 4**

Where is there variation that can be classified as breeds?

**Text number 20**

A crucial innovation in the reconceptualisation of genotypic and phenotypic variation was the observation by anthropologist C. Loring Brace that such variation, insofar as it is influenced by natural selection, slow migration or genetic drift, is distributed along geographical gradients or lineages. This is partly due to the isolation caused by distance. This fact drew attention to a problem common to phenotype-based descriptions of races (e.g. descriptions based on hair texture and skin colour): they do not take into account many other similarities and differences (e.g. blood group) that do not correlate very strongly with racial characteristics. Thus, anthropologist Frank Livingstone's conclusion that "there are no races, only racial lines" is that because racial lines transcend racial boundaries.

**Question 0**

What did C. Loring Brace observe about the variations?

**Question 1**

Why are the variations distributed along the lines?

**Question 2**

What is the common problem with phenotype-based breed descriptions?

**Question 3**

What is Frank Livingstone's profession?

**Question 4**

What is the conclusion of the evidence that clans cross racial lines?

**Text number 21**

In his reply to Livingstone, Theodore Dobzhansky argued that when speaking of race, attention must be paid to the way the term is used: "I agree with Dr. Livingstone that if races must be 'distinct entities' then races do not exist, and if 'race' is used as an 'explanation' of human variability and not vice versa, then the explanation is invalid." He further argued that the term race could be used if a distinction was made between "racial differences" and the "concept of race". The former refers to any differences in genetic frequencies between populations; the latter is a "judgment call". Furthermore, he pointed out that even if there is clinical variation, "racial differences are objectively observable biological phenomena... but it does not follow that racially distinct populations must be given racial (or sub-racial) designations". In short, Livingstone and Dobzhansky agree that there are genetic differences between people; they also agree that the use of the concept of race to classify people and the way in which the concept of race is used is a matter of social convention. They disagree on whether the concept of race is still a meaningful and useful social convention.

**Question 0**

What do we need to pay attention to when we talk about race?

**Question 1**

What did Dobzhansky agree with Dr Livingstone on?

**Question 2**

What is only "discretionary"?

**Question 3**

While racial differences can be easily seen, they do not need to be given what?

**Question 4**

Livingston and Dobzhansky disagree on whether race is a concept of what?

**Text number 22**

In 1964, biologists Paul Ehrlich and Holm pointed out cases where two or more clones are distributed asymmetrically - for example, melanin is distributed downward from the equator north and south; the haplotype frequencies of beta-S haemoglobin, on the other hand, radiate from specific geographical points in Africa. As anthropologists Leonard Lieberman and Fatimah Linda Jackson noted, "the asymmetric patterns of heterogeneity distort any description of a population as if it were genotypically or even phenotypically homogeneous".

**Question 0**

What did two biologists point out in 1964?

**Question 1**

Which gene distribution decreases as you move away from the equator in either direction?

**Question 2**

What do beta-5-hemogoblin haplotype frequencies make of certain points in Africa?

**Question 3**

What is the profession of both Leonard Lieberman and Fatimah Linda Jackson?

**Question 4**

Which models of heterogeneity distort all demographics?

**Text number 23**

Patterns of human physical and genetic variation such as those described above have led to the conclusion that the number and geographic location of all races described depends largely on the importance and number of the traits under consideration. The researchers found a skin-lightening mutation that partially explains the presence of light skin in humans (people who migrated from Africa north to present-day Europe), which they estimate to have occurred between 20 000 and 50 000 years ago. East Asians owe their relatively fair skin to various mutations. On the other hand, the more traits (or alleles) one looks at, the more strands of humanity are observed, because traits and gene sequences do not always correspond to the same geographical location. Or as Ossorio & Duster (2005) put it:

**Question 0**

What is the consequence of the high dependence of race on quantity and geography?

**Question 1**

Which mutation did the researchers find?

**Question 2**

What partly explains the appearance of pale skin in humans?

**Question 3**

What do East Asians have to thank for their relatively fair skin?

**Question 4**

Traits and gene frequencies do not always correspond to which location?

**Text number 24**

Coop et al. (2009) found that "the selected allele that strongly distinguishes the French from both Yoruba and Han may be strongly clinical across Europe, or it may be highly prevalent in Europe and absent elsewhere, or it may be distributed in some other way according to the geographic nature of the selective pressure.". However, we see that the global geographic distributions of these putatively selected alleles are largely determined by their frequencies in Yoruba, France and Han alone (Figure 3). The global distributions fall into three major geographic patterns, which we interpret as non-African sweep types, West Eurasian sweep types, and East Asian sweep types, respectively."

**Question 0**

What is the one thing that strongly distinguishes the French from some other groups of the population that is clinical across Europe?

**Question 1**

When did Coop and others find out about a selected allele?

**Question 2**

Something that is found a lot in Europe may be what elsewhere?

**Question 3**

How many major geographical patterns are there in the global distributions?

**Question 4**

What are swipes?

**Text number 25**

Another way of looking at differences between populations is to measure genetic differences rather than physical differences between groups. In the mid-20th century, anthropologist William C. Boyd defined race as "a population that differs significantly from other populations in the frequency of one or more genes. It is a matter of chance which gene loci and how many gene loci we decide to consider a significant 'constellation'". Leonard Lieberman and Rodney Kirk have pointed out that "the main weakness of this argument is that if a single gene can distinguish between races, then the number of races is equal to the number of breeding human pairs". Moreover, anthropologist Stephen Molnar has argued that clan heterogeneity inevitably leads to a multiplication of races, rendering the concept itself useless. According to the Human Genome Project, "People who have lived in the same geographical area for many generations may have some alleles in common, but no allele is found in all members of one population or in all members of any other population."

**Question 0**

What can be used to look at differences between groups instead of physical differences?

**Question 1**

Who was William C. Boyd?

**Question 2**

For Boyd, the race was based on a certain differentiation in terms of what frequency of occurrence in the population?

**Question 3**

How many races would there be if a single gene could distinguish one race from another?

**Question 4**

What can people who have lived in the same area for generations have in common?

**Text number 26**

Population geneticist Sewall Wright developed one way to measure genetic differences between populations, known as the Fixation index, often abbreviated FST. This statistic is often used in taxonomy to compare differences between two populations by measuring genetic differences between and among populations for single genes or multiple genes simultaneously. It is often said that the human fixation index is around 0.15. This means that an estimated 85% of the variation measured in the whole human population occurs within individuals in the same population and about 15% of the variation occurs between populations. These estimates imply that two individuals from different populations are almost as likely to be more similar to each other than either of the members of their own group. Richard Lewontin, who established these ratios, thus concluded that "race" or "subspecies" are not appropriate or useful ways to describe human populations. Others have noted, however, that the variation among groups was relatively similar to that observed in other mammal species.

**Question 0**

What did Sewall Wright develop as a single measurement method?

**Question 1**

What was the Wright method known as?

**Question 2**

What is often mentioned in FST for people?

**Question 3**

Richard Lewontin concluded after looking at FST ratios that race was not an appropriate or useful way to describe what?

**Question 4**

Is the variation in human groups similar to the variation observed in which other species?

**Text number 27**

Wright himself believed that values > 0.25 represented very high genetic variation and that FST values of 0.15-0.25 represented high variation. However, about 5% of human variation occurs between populations within continents, so some studies have found FST values between continental groups (or races) as low as 0.1 (or possibly lower), suggesting a more moderate level of genetic variation. Graves (1996) has argued that FST should not be used as a marker of subdiversity because the statistic is used to measure the degree of differentiation between populations, although see also Wright (1978).

**Question 0**

FST values above .25 represent a very high what?

**Question 1**

How much variation is there in people between continental populations?

**Question 2**

What FST values have been found in some studies?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the person who thinks that the FST should not be used as a marker of subspecies status?

**Question 4**

FST is used to measure the degree of differentiation between what?

**Text number 28**

Jeffrey Long and Rick Kittles criticized the application of FST to human populations at length in their 2003 article "Human Genetic Diversity and the Nonexistence of Biological Races". They argue that the 85% figure is misleading because it implies that all human populations contain on average 85% of all genetic diversity. They argue that this figure does not accurately reflect the history of human populations because it treats all human groups as independent. A more realistic picture of the relationships of human groups is to understand that some groups of people are parents of other groups and that these groups represent paraphyletic groups relative to their lineage groups. For example, the recent theory of African origins holds that the African human population is paraphyletic with respect to all other human groups because it represents the ancestral group from which all non-African populations originated, but moreover, non-African groups are derived from only a small, non-representative sample of this African population. This means that all non-African groups are more closely related to each other and to some African groups (probably East African) than to others, and that migration out of Africa represented a genetic bottleneck, so that much of the diversity that was in Africa did not move out of Africa with the migrating groups. This view produces a version of human population movement that does not result in all human populations being independent, but rather in diversity becoming diluted the further away from Africa a population lives, and that each founding event represents a genetic subset of its parent population. Long and Kittles find that instead of 85% of human genetic diversity being in all human populations, about 100% of human diversity is in a single African population, while only about 70% of human genetic diversity is in a population originating in New Guinea. Long and Kittles argued that this still leads to the conclusion that the global human population is genetically homogeneous compared to other mammalian populations.

**Question 0**

In 2003, which two researchers presented a long critique of the application of FST to human populations?

**Question 1**

What do Long and Kittles make of the fact that human populations contain on average 85% of all genetic diversity?

**Question 2**

Non-African people groups can only drive from what sample of the African population?

**Question 3**

What was the bottleneck of migration from Africa?

**Question 4**

How much human genetic diversity is there in one African population?

**Text number 29**

In his 2003 article "Human Genetic Diversity: Lewontin's Fallacy", A. W. F. Edwards argued that instead of deriving a taxonomy from a taxonomy through analysis of local variation, it is possible to construct a human classification system based on typical genetic patterns or clusters derived from complex genetic data. Subsequent geographic studies of humans have shown that such genetic clusters can be derived by analysing large numbers of logs, which can be used to sort sampled individuals into groups corresponding to traditional continental racial groups. Joanna Mountain and Neil Risch warned that although genetic clusters may one day be shown to correspond to phenotypic differences between groups, such assumptions are premature because the relationship between genes and complex traits is still poorly understood. However, Risch denied that such limitations would render the analysis useless: "Perhaps year of birth alone is not a very good way to measure age. Does that mean we should throw it out? ... Any category we come up with is incomplete, but that doesn't prevent us from using it or from having a use for it. "

**Question 0**

What kind of classification system of people did A.W.F. Edwards advocate?

**Question 1**

What might genetic clusters one day answer?

**Question 2**

How is the relationship between genes and complex traits understood?

**Question 3**

For Risch, any category that someone comes up with is a what?

**Question 4**

For Risch, imperfect classes are still what?

**Text number 30**

Early human genetic cluster analysis studies were carried out on samples taken from ancestral populations living at extreme geographical distances from each other. It was thought that such large geographical distances maximised genetic variation between the groups included in the analysis and thus maximised the probability of finding cluster patterns specific to each group. Given that human migration (and hence human gene flow) has recently accelerated globally, further research was undertaken to assess the extent to which genetic cluster analysis can model both ancestrally identified groups and geographically separated groups. One such study looked at a large multiethnic population in the United States and "found only modest genetic differences between different contemporary geographic regions within each racial and ethnic group. Thus, ancient geographic ancestry, which correlates strongly with self-defined race/ethnicity - as opposed to current residence - is the most important determinant of the genetic makeup of the US population." (Tang et al. (2005))

**Question 0**

Which groups were sampled early for genetic cluster analysis?

**Question 1**

Where did the groups from which the genetic clusters were taken live apart?

**Question 2**

What was thought to maximise the probability of finding unique cluster patterns in the groups?

**Question 3**

Which human activity has only recently picked up speed?

**Question 4**

Human migration tends to accelerate this type of what flows?

**Text number 31**

Witherspoon et al (2007) have argued that although individuals can be reliably classified into particular population groups, it is still possible that two randomly selected individuals from different populations/clusters may be more similar to each other than a randomly selected member of their own cluster. They found that several thousand genetic markers had to be used to answer the question "How often is a pair of individuals from one population genetically more different than two individuals selected from two different populations?" would be "never". Three population groups, geographically very far apart (European, African and East Asian populations) were assumed. The world population as a whole is much more complex, and studying more and more groups would require more and more markers to get the same answer. The authors conclude that "caution should be exercised when using geographical or genetic ancestry to draw conclusions about individual phenotypes". Witherspoon et al. conclude that "the fact that sufficient genetic data allow individuals to be correctly assigned to their populations of origin is consistent with the finding that most human genetic variation occurs within populations, not between them. It is also compatible with our ﬁnding that even when looking at the most discrete populations and using hundreds of loci, individuals are often more similar to members of other populations than to members of their own population. "

**Question 0**

People randomly selected from different groups may be more similar to each other than to members of which group?

**Question 1**

How many genetic markers must be used to show that people from different groups are different?

**Question 2**

Researching more and more groups requires more and more what?

**Question 3**

What should be used when using ancestry to infer individual phenotypes?

**Question 4**

People are more often similar to members of which populations?

**Text number 32**

Anthropologists such as C. Loring Brace, philosophers Jonathan Kaplan and Rasmus Winther, and geneticist Joseph Graves have argued that while biological and genetic variation roughly corresponding to the groupings usually defined as "continental races" can certainly be found, this is true for almost all geographically distinct populations. The cluster structure of genetic data is therefore dependent on the researcher's initial hypotheses and the populations sampled. When continental groups are sampled, the clusters become continental; if other sampling methods had been chosen, the cluster structure would be different. Weiss and Fullerton have found that if only Icelandic, Maya and Maori were sampled, three separate clusters would be formed, and all other populations could be described as consisting of a mixture of clinically Maori, Icelandic and Maya genetic material. Indeed, Kaplan and Winther argue that, viewed in this way, both Lewontin and Edwards are correct in their assertions. They conclude that although racial groups are characterised by different allele frequencies, this does not mean that racial classification is a natural taxonomy of the human species, because many other genetic patterns may exist in human populations that transcend racial distinctions. Furthermore, genomic data do not determine whether one wants to see subdivisions (i.e. splitters) or continuum (i.e. lumpers). In Kaplan and Winther's view, racial categories are objective social constructs (see Mills 1998 ) that have conventional biological reality only insofar as categories are selected and constructed for pragmatic scientific reasons. In his earlier work, Winther had defined 'diversity stratification' and 'cluster analysis' as two distinct methods with different questions, assumptions and protocols. Both also have opposite ontological implications with respect to the metaphysics of race.

**Question 0**

The cluster structure of genetic data depends on what initial thing?

**Question 1**

If you sample from a continental group, what clusters emerge?

**Question 2**

What is not the natural taxonomy of the human species?

**Question 3**

What are objective social structures?

**Question 4**

What are diversity and clustering analysis?

**Text number 33**

Many social scientists have replaced the word "race" with "ethnicity" to refer to self-identifying groups based on beliefs about shared culture, ancestry and history. After the Second World War, evolutionary and social scientists were well aware, alongside empirical and conceptual problems, of how racial beliefs had been used to justify discrimination, apartheid, slavery and genocide. This questioning gained momentum in the 1960s with the emergence of the US civil rights movement and numerous anti-colonial movements worldwide. They thus began to believe that race itself was a social construct, a concept that was believed to correspond to objective reality but which was believed in because of its social functions.

**Question 0**

What word do many social scientists use instead of race?

**Question 1**

What was the justification for discrimination, apartheid, slavery and genocide in the Second World War?

**Question 2**

When did the civil rights movement happen?

**Question 3**

Which movement gained momentum worldwide in the 1960s?

**Question 4**

What kind of reality do some people believe race to be a social construct?

**Text number 34**

Craig Venter and Francis Collins of the National Institute of Health jointly announced the mapping of the human genome in 2000. After examining the data from the genome mapping, Venter found that although genetic variation within the human species is in the order of 1-3% (instead of the previously assumed 1%), the variation does not support the notion of genetically defined races. Venter said: "Race is a social concept. It is not a scientific concept. There are no bright lines (that would stand out) if we could compare the sequenced genomes of everyone on the planet." "When we try to apply science to these social differences, everything falls apart. "

**Question 0**

Which organisation do Craig Venter and Francis Collins belong to?

**Question 1**

In what year was it announced that the human genome had been mapped?

**Question 2**

What is not supported by genetic variation within the human species?

**Question 3**

What is a social and not a scientific concept?

**Question 4**

What happens when scientists try to apply science to social differences?

**Text number 35**

The theory that race is merely a social construct has been challenged by the findings of researchers at Stanford University School of Medicine, published in the American Journal of Human Genetics as "Genetic Structure, Self-Identified Race/Ethnicity, and Confounding in Case-Control Association Studies". One of the researchers, Neil Risch, said, "When we looked at the correlation between [microsatellite marker-based] genetic structure and self-identification, we found a 99.9% correlation between the two. In fact, the inconsistency between self-reported sex and markers on the X chromosome was higher! So it can be argued that gender is also a problematic category. There are differences between sex and gender, and self-recognition may not correlate perfectly with biology. And there is sexism."

**Question 0**

Which university researchers questioned the theory that race is just a social construct?

**Question 1**

Where was the challenge to the theory that competitive sport is a social construct published?

**Question 2**

Neil Risch found a 99.9% match between genetic structure and human descriptions. Where?

**Question 3**

What is the problematic category besides race?

**Question 4**

What does self-identification not necessarily correlate with accurately?

**Text number 36**

In principle, the breed was "biologized" in Brazil, but in a way that recognized the difference between ancestry (which determines genotype) and phenotypic differences. There, racial identity was not governed by a rigid descent rule, such as the one-drop rule in the United States. A Brazilian child was never automatically identified with the racial type of one or both parents, and there was only a very limited number of choices, as full siblings could belong to different racial groups.

**Question 0**

In which country was the race "biologised"?

**Question 1**

What did not dominate racial identity in Brazil?

**Question 2**

What Brazilian children never automatically identified with the type?

**Question 3**

Where can full siblings belong?

**Question 4**

What determines the genotype?

**Text number 37**

More than a dozen breed classes would be recognised according to all possible combinations of hair colour, hair texture, eye colour and skin colour. These types would overlap like the colours of the spectrum, with no one category being significantly different from the others. In other words, race refers primarily to appearance, not heredity, and appearance is a poor indicator of ancestry because few genes are responsible for someone's skin colour and features: a person considered white may have more African ancestry than a person considered black, and the reverse may also be true for European ancestry. The complexity of racial classifications in Brazil reflects the extent of miscegenation in Brazilian society, which remains highly, but not strictly, stratified by skin colour. Socio-economic factors also play a role in the demarcation of racial lines, as a minority of Pardo or brown people are likely to start declaring themselves white or black if they move up the social ladder, and are considered relatively 'whiter' as their perceived social status rises (just as in other regions of Latin America).

**Question 0**

How many breed classes would be needed, taking into account all possible combinations of external traits?

**Question 1**

In what ways would the categories fit together rather than being isolated from each other?

**Question 2**

Which breed was referred to instead of heredity?

**Question 3**

What is a bad indicator of appearance?

**Question 4**

Where is there a lot of complexity in breed classifications?

**Text number 38**

However, despite the unchanged racial categories, the aforementioned "biologization" of race in Brazil would correspond quite well to current US racial concepts, if Brazilians are assumed to choose their race as one of the three IBGE census categories, excluding Asians and indigenous peoples. While assimilated Indians and people with very high levels of Indian ancestry are generally classified in the caboclos category, a subcategory of pardo, which roughly means both mestizo and hillbilly, those with less Indian ancestry and higher levels of European genetics are likely to be classified in the pardo category. In several genetic tests, individuals with less than 60-65 percent European ancestry and 5-10 percent Amerindian ancestry generally cluster as Afro-Brazilians (as reported by individuals), or 6.9 percent of the population, and those with about 45 percent or more Sub-Saharan contribution mostly cluster as Afro-Brazilians (average Afro-Brazilian DNA:reported to be about 50 percent of African Sub-Saharan origin, 37 percent of European origin and 13 percent of Amerindian origin).

**Question 0**

Which categories are associated with fluidity?

**Question 1**

Which group do you classify people with a lot of Indian ancestry in?

**Question 2**

What is the rough translation of the word "pardos"?

**Question 3**

Which cluster usually includes people with less than 60-65% European ancestry?

**Question 4**

What percentage of Afro-Brazilian DNA has been reported to be sub-Saharan African DNA?

**Text number 39**

Given more consistent reporting with genetic groups in the mixed-race graduation (e.g., it would not group people with a balance of African and non-African ancestry into the black group instead of multiracial, unlike in other parts of Latin America where people of African ancestry with a lot of African ancestry classify themselves as mixed-race), more people in Brazil would report themselves as white and pardo (47.7% and 42.4% of the population in 2010), as studies suggest that the Brazilian population is believed to have an average of 65-80% autosomal European ancestry (including >35% European mt-DNA and >95% European Y-DNA).

**Question 0**

What would more people report themselves as if more consistent reporting were considered?

**Question 1**

Where do people of African descent classify themselves?

**Question 2**

What percentage of the Brazilian population declared themselves as pardo in 2010?

**Question 3**

What percentage of the Brazilian population is believed to be of autosomal European descent?

**Question 4**

What percentage of the Brazilian population is believed to have more than European Y-DNA?

**Text number 40**

But this is not surprising: However, they lived in such miserable conditions that African male Y-DNA is remarkably rare there, because due to the lack of resources and time to raise children, there is no African male Y-DNA, so most African ancestry comes from the relationships between white masters and female slaves. From the last decades of the empire until the 1950s, the white population increased significantly, with Brazil receiving 5.5 million immigrants between 1821 and 1932, not far behind its neighbour Argentina, which received 6.4 million immigrants and received more European immigrants than the United States during its colonial history. Between 1500 and 1760, 700 000 Europeans settled in Brazil, while 530 000 Europeans settled in the United States during the same period. Thus, the historical construction of race in Brazilian society dealt mainly with differences between people of predominantly European ancestry and small minority groups, which have become less numerous in recent times.

**Question 0**

How many African slaves were brought to Brazil?

**Question 1**

What were the conditions in which African slaves lived in Brazil?

**Question 2**

Most of the people of African descent in Brazil came from which congress?

**Question 3**

In which year did 5.5 million immigrants arrive in Brazil?

**Question 4**

How many Europeans settled in Brazil between 1500 and 1760?

**Text number 41**

The European Union uses the terms "race" and "ethnic origin" as synonyms in its documents, stating that "the use of the term 'race' in this Directive does not imply acceptance of such [racial] theories." Haney López warns that the use of "race" as a category in legislation seeks to legitimise its existence in the popular imagination. In the diverse geographical context of Europe, ethnicity and ethnicity are arguably more resonant and less burdened by the ideological baggage of "race". In the European context, the historical resonance of 'race' underlines its problematic nature. In some countries, it is strongly associated with the laws passed by the Nazis and fascists in Europe in the 1930s and 1940s. In 1996, the European Parliament adopted a resolution stating that "the term should therefore be avoided in all official texts".

**Question 0**

Who uses the terms race and ethnicity interchangeably?

**Question 1**

What legitimizes the use of race as a category in law?

**Question 2**

In what context does the historical use of race highlight its problematic nature?

**Question 3**

Which governments' laws are strongly associated with race?

**Question 4**

In what year did the European Parliament adopt a resolution removing the concept of "race" from all official texts?

**Text number 42**

The concept of racial origin is based on the idea that humans can be divided into biologically distinct "races", an idea that has been widely rejected by the scientific community. As all humans belong to the same species, ECRI (European Commission against Racism and Intolerance) rejects theories based on the existence of different "races". However, ECRI uses this term in its recommendation to ensure that people who are commonly and wrongly perceived as belonging to a 'different race' are not excluded from the protection offered by the law. The law claims that the existence of a "race" is not accepted, but penalises situations where someone is treated less favourably on this basis.

**Question 0**

What is the basis for the idea that humans can be divided into biologically distinct races?

**Question 1**

What community rejects the idea that there are biologically distinct races?

**Question 2**

Why does ECRI reject theories based on the existence of different races?

**Question 3**

What is ECRI trying to ensure that no one becomes?

**Question 4**

The law penalises situations where someone is treated less favourably on what grounds?

**Text number 43**

Since the end of the Second World War, France has become an ethnically diverse country. Today, around 5% of the French population is non-European and non-white. This number is nowhere near the number of non-white citizens in the United States (around 28-37%, depending on how Latinos are classified; see US demographics). However, it is at least three million people and has forced ethnic diversity issues onto the French political agenda. France has developed an approach to dealing with ethnic problems that differs from that of many developed industrialised countries. Unlike the United States, the United Kingdom or even the Netherlands, France follows a 'colour-blind' model of public policy. This means that in practice it does not target any policies directly at racial or ethnic groups. Instead, it uses geographical or class criteria to address issues of social inequality. However, it has developed a wide range of anti-racism policies since the early 1970s. Until recently, French policy focused mainly on hate speech - far beyond similar policies in the US - and relatively little on discrimination in employment, housing and the provision of goods and services.

**Question 0**

Since the end of which war has France become a more ethnically diverse country?

**Question 1**

What percentage of the French population is currently non-European?

**Question 2**

How many non-white citizens are there in the United States?

**Question 3**

What question has the existence of three million non-Europeans in France forced onto the French political agenda?

**Question 4**

What kind of public policy model does France follow?

**Text number 44**

Since the early history of the United States, Native Americans, African Americans and European Americans have been classified as belonging to different races. Efforts to track the mixing between groups led to the increasing use of categories such as mulatto and octagon. The criteria for membership of these races diverged in the late 19th century. During Reconstruction, an increasing number of Americans began to consider as black anyone with "one drop" of known "black blood", regardless of appearance.3 By the early 1900s, this concept had been codified into law in many states.4 Indians were still defined by a percentage of "Indian blood" (the so-called blood quantum). To be white, a person had to be of "pure" white ancestry. The one-drop rule or hypodescent rule refers to the convention that a person is defined as racially black if he or she has known African ancestry. This rule meant that mixed-race persons with identifiable African ancestry were defined as black. The one-drop rule applies not only to persons of African ancestry but also to the United States, making it a particularly African American experience.

**Question 0**

Have groups of people been classified as different races since the history of the United States began?

**Question 1**

What were the results of the efforts to monitor mixing between different groups?

**Question 2**

When did the membership criteria for mixed-race groups differ?

**Question 3**

When did more and more Americans consider anyone with even a drop of "black blood" to be black?

**Question 4**

What is a particularly African-American experience because it is unique to the United States?

**Text number 45**

The term "Hispanic" as an ethnonym emerged in the 20th century as more and more workers from Spanish-speaking countries in Latin America migrated to the United States. Today, the word "Latino" is often used as a synonym for "Latino". The definitions of both terms are not race-specific and include people who consider themselves to belong to different races (black, white, Native American, Asian, and mixed race). However, there is a common misconception in the United States that Latino/Hispanic is a race or sometimes even that national origins such as Mexican, Cuban, Colombian, Salvadoran, etc. are races. Unlike "Latino" or "Hispanic", "Anglo" refers to non-white Americans or non-European Americans, most of whom speak English but are not necessarily of English descent.

**Question 0**

When did the term "Hispanic" start to be used?

**Question 1**

What word is often used as a synonym for "Latino"?

**Question 2**

How are the terms Latino and Hispanic not specific?

**Question 3**

What is a common misconception in the United States about what some national origins are?

**Question 4**

Anglo can refer to non-Hispanic European Americans who speak English but are not necessarily what?

**Text number 46**

Wang, Štrkalj et al (2003) examined the use of race as a biological concept in research articles published in the only Chinese journal of biological anthropology, Acta Anthropologica Sinica. The study showed that the concept of race was widely used by Chinese anthropologists. In a 2007 review article, Štrkalj argued that the sharp contrast in the racial approach between the US and China is due to the fact that race is a factor of social cohesion among China's ethnically diverse people, whereas in America 'race' is a very sensitive issue and a racial approach is seen as undermining social cohesion - as a result, in the socio-political context, US researchers are encouraged not to use racial categories, while in China they are encouraged to use them.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the only anthropology journal in China?

**Question 1**

Who is using the breed concept extensively?

**Question 2**

How does race affect China's ethnically diverse people?

**Question 3**

Why does race undermine social cohesion in America?

**Question 4**

What are Chinese researchers encouraged to use that their American colleagues are not?

**Text number 47**

In 2002-2003, Kaszycka et al (2009) surveyed the opinions of European anthropologists on the concept of biological race. Three factors, country of academic education, discipline and age, emerged as significant differentiators of responses. Those trained in Western Europe, physical anthropologists and middle-aged people rejected race more often than those trained in Eastern Europe, those working in other disciplines and both younger and older generations." The study shows that views on race are socio-politically (ideologically) influenced and highly dependent on education. "

**Question 0**

What year did Kaszycka survey Eureope anthropologists' opinions on the biological concept of race?

**Question 1**

How many factors were found to play a role in the differences in the responses of European anthropologists?

**Question 2**

What did people educated in Western Europe reject more often than those educated in Eastern Europe?

**Question 3**

How are racial views affected?

**Question 4**

What are racial views highly dependent on?

**Text number 48**

One result of the debates on the meaning and validity of the concept of race is that there is no consensus on human variation in the current literature in the various disciplines, although there is a strong consensus in some fields, such as some areas of anthropology. In some studies, the word race is used in its early essentialist taxonomic sense. Many others still use the term race, but to refer to populations, clades or haplogroups. Others reject the concept of race altogether and use the concept of population as a less problematic unit of analysis.

**Question 0**

What is missing from the current literature on human variation?

**Question 1**

What do some studies use the word race to mean?

**Question 2**

What term do some use to refer to populations, clades or haplogroups?

**Question 3**

What do some people avoid altogether?

**Question 4**

Which is the less problematic unit of analysis?

**Text number 49**

Eduardo Bonilla-Silva, professor of sociology at Duke University, points out, "I argue that racism is first and foremost a question of group power; it is about the dominant racial group (whites) seeking to preserve their systemic interests and minorities fighting to overturn the racial status quo." The practices within this new color-blind racism are subtle, institutionalized and supposedly non-racial. Colorblind racism thrives on the idea that race is no longer a problem in the United States. There are contradictions between the alleged color-blindness of most whites and the persistence of a system of color-coded inequality.

**Question 0**

Where is Eduardo Bonilla-Silver a professor of sociology?

**Question 1**

What does Bonilla-Silva claim racism is more about than anything else?

**Question 2**

Who does Bonilla-Silva think is the dominant breed group?

**Question 3**

On what idea does colour-blind racism thrive?

**Question 4**

What is the connection between the alleged colour-blindness of most whites and the persistence of a system of inequality?

**Text number 50**

The use of the concept of biological race in physical anthropology in the United States has declined significantly since the 20th century. Most physical anthropologists in the United States have abandoned the concept of biological race. Since 1932, an increasing number of university textbooks presenting physical anthropology have abandoned the concept of race: between 1932 and 1976, only seven out of thirty-two rejected race; between 1975 and 1984, thirteen out of thirty-three rejected race; between 1985 and 1993, thirteen out of nineteen rejected race. According to one academic journal, 78% of articles in the 1931 Journal of Physical Anthropology used these or near-synonymous terms reflecting the bio-race paradigm, but only 36% in 1965 and only 28% in 1996.

**Question 0**

Which term has seen a significant decline in use in the United States in the 20th century?

**Question 1**

Which group in the US has rejected the concept of biological races?

**Question 2**

In which anthropology textbooks has race been rejected as a valid concept since 1932?

**Question 3**

Of the 33 books rejected between 1975 and 1984, how many rejected a race?

**Question 4**

What percentage of articles published in 1996 used the biological race paradigm?

**Text number 51**

According to a popular textbook on physical anthropology published in 2000, forensic anthropologists overwhelmingly support the idea of the biological essence of the human race. Forensic physical anthropologist and professor George W. Gill has said that the idea that race is only skin deep "simply does not hold, as all experienced forensic anthropologists will attest", and that "many morphological traits tend to follow geographical boundaries that often coincide with climatic zones. This is not surprising, since the selective forces of climate are probably the primary natural forces that have shaped the human race not only in skin colour and hair shape but also in the bony structures of the nose, cheekbones, etc. (For example, protruding noses moisten the air better.)" While he sees good arguments for both sides, the complete denial of contrary evidence "seems to be largely driven by socio-political motives and not at all by science". He also notes that many biological anthropologists consider races to be real, but "no introductory textbook on physical anthropology even presents this view as a possibility. In such a blatant case, it is not science, but rather blatant, politically motivated censorship".

**Question 0**

Which group of anthropologists overwhelmingly supports the idea of human breeds?

**Question 1**

What does George W. Gill think about the idea that race is only skin deep?

**Question 2**

What are the primary natural forces that have shaped the human race?

**Question 3**

What does Gill believe is the reason for the total denial of contrary evidence?

**Question 4**

To what does Gill explain that the perspective is not presented as a possibility?

**Text number 52**

"Race" is still sometimes used in forensic anthropology (when analysing skeletal remains), biomedical research and race-based medicine. Brace has criticised this practice, the practice of forensic anthropologists, for using the controversial term "race" to refer to convention, when in fact they should be talking about regional ancestry. He argues that while forensic anthropologists can establish that a skeletal remains originated from a person whose ancestors are from a particular region of Africa, the classification of a skeleton as "black" is a socially constructed category that is only relevant in the specific context of the United States and is not itself scientifically valid.

**Question 0**

In what kind of anthropology is "race" still sometimes used?

**Question 1**

What term would Brace prefer to use for legal anthropologists?

**Question 2**

What can forensic anthropologists find out about a person's ancestors from their skeletal remains?

**Question 3**

Where does Brace find the term "black" meaningful?

**Question 4**

Why is it bad that the category is only socially constructed?

**Text number 53**

The authors also examined 77 biology and 69 physical anthropology textbooks published between 1932 and 1989. The physical anthropology textbooks claimed the existence of biological races until the 1970s, when they began to claim that races did not exist. Biology textbooks, on the other hand, did not undergo such a change, many of them omitting the race debate altogether. The authors explained this by biologists' efforts to avoid the political implications of racial classifications rather than discussing them, and by ongoing debates within biology about the validity of the concept of 'subspecies'. The authors also noted that some widely used biology textbooks, such as Douglas J. Futuyama's 1986 Evolutionary Biology, had abandoned the concept of race: 'The concept of race, which masks the overwhelming genetic similarity of all peoples and mosaic patterns of variation that do not correspond to racial segregation, is not only socially unacceptable but also biologically untenable (pp. 5 18-5 19)' (Lieberman et al. 1992, pp. 316-17).

**Question 0**

How many university biology textbooks did the researchers study?

**Question 1**

Until when did physical anthropology texts still claim that biological races exist?

**Question 2**

What did the biology textbooks leave out completely?

**Question 3**

What did biologists try to avoid discussing the political implications?

**Question 4**

What did Douglas J. Futuyama mean by the concept of race, which is not only socially dysfunctional but also this?

**Text number 54**

Morning (2008) examined high school biology textbooks from 1952 to 2002 and initially found a similar pattern: only 35% of them dealt directly with race between 1983 and 1992, compared with 92% that initially did. Since then, however, the proportion has risen slightly to 43%. More indirect and shorter discussions of race in the context of medical conditions have increased from none at all to 93% of textbooks. In general, the material on race has shifted from superficial to genetic and evolutionary history. The study finds that the basic message of textbooks about the existence of races has changed little.

**Question 0**

What did Morning find when he studied biology textbooks between 1952 and 2002?

**Question 1**

How many textbooks between 1983 and 1992 dealt with race?

**Question 2**

How much did the proportion of textbooks on race increase since 1992?

**Question 3**

By what percentage have discussions about race in the context of medical disorders increased from zero?

**Question 4**

What does the study claim about the basic message about the existence of races?

**Text number 55**

In the United States, federal policy promotes the use of racially categorized data to identify and eliminate health disparities between racial or ethnic groups. In clinical settings, race is sometimes considered in the diagnosis and treatment of medical conditions. Physicians have found that some diseases are more common in some racial or ethnic groups than in others, but are not sure of the causes of these differences. Recent interest in race-based medicine or race-targeted pharmacogenomics has been driven by the increase in human genetic knowledge that followed the decoding of the human genome in the first decade of the 21st century. There is an active debate among biomedical researchers on the relevance and importance of race in their research. Proponents of the use of breed categories argue that the continued use of breed categories in biomedical research and clinical practice allows the application of new genetic findings and provides clues for diagnosis.

**Question 0**

Who is promoting the use of racially classified data in the US?

**Question 1**

What competition has sometimes been used in clinical settings for diagnosis and treatment?

**Question 2**

What have doctors found about some diseases in certain breed groups?

**Question 3**

What recently sparked the interest in race-based medicine?

**Question 4**

What do proponents of racial categories believe will enable biomedicine?

**Text number 56**

Other researchers point out that the finding of a difference in disease prevalence between two socially defined groups does not necessarily mean that the difference is due to genetic causation. They suggest that medical practices should continue to focus on the individual rather than on the individual's membership of a group. They argue that over-emphasising genetic factors as a driver of health inequalities can lead to risks such as reinforcing stereotypes, promoting racism or ignoring the impact of non-genetic factors on health inequalities. International epidemiological data show that living conditions, rather than race, are the main determinant of health, even for diseases for which treatment is "race-specific". Some studies have found that patients are reluctant to accept racial classification in medical practice.

**Question 0**

What does it not necessarily mean that there is a difference in the incidence of disease between two socially defined groups?

**Question 1**

Where do some studies suggest that medical practices should continue to focus?

**Question 2**

What is the risk of over-emphasising the genetic influence on health problems?

**Question 3**

What makes a bigger difference than race in terms of health status for "race-specific" diseases?

**Question 4**

What do some studies show that patients are not willing to accept in medical practice?

**Text number 57**

In an effort to provide general descriptions that can facilitate the work of law enforcement officers apprehending suspects, the US FBI uses the term "race" to summarise the general appearance (skin colour, hair texture, eye shape and other easily discernible characteristics) of the individuals they are trying to apprehend. From a law enforcement perspective, it is generally more important to produce a description that readily indicates a person's general appearance than to make a scientifically valid classification using DNA or other similar means. In addition to the racial classification of the wanted person, the description will therefore include the following information: height, weight, eye colour, scars and other distinctive features.

**Question 0**

What does the FBI think is facilitated by providing generic descriptions?

**Question 1**

What does the FBI sum up with the term race?

**Question 2**

What do law enforcement officers think individuals' physical characteristics help them do to these individuals?

**Question 3**

What is more important to law enforcement than DNA?

**Question 4**

What else does the description of a wanted person include other than his or her race?

**Text number 58**

Since 2010, criminal justice agencies in England and Wales have used at least two separate racial or ethnic classification systems for criminal reports. One is the system used in the 2001 Census, where people declare their ethnicity: W1 (white British), W2 (white Irish), W9 (other white background); M1 (white and black Caribbean), M2 (white and black African), M3 (white and Asian), M9 (other mixed background); A1 (Asian-Indian), A2 (Asian-Pakistani), A3 (Asian-Bangladeshi), A9 (Other Asian); B1 (Black Caribbean), B2 (Black African), B3 (Other Black); O1 (Chinese), O9 (Other). Others are categories used by the police when visually identifying someone of an ethnic group, for example, during a stop and search or arrest: white - northern European (IC1), white - southern European (IC2), black (IC3), Asian (IC4), Chinese, Japanese or South East Asian (IC5), Middle Eastern (IC6) and unknown (IC0). "IC" stands for "Identification Code"; these designations are also called Phoenix classifications. Officials are instructed to "record the answer given", even if the person gives an answer that may be incorrect; their own understanding of the person's ethnic background is recorded separately. In September 2007, the Office for National Statistics (ONS) questioned the comparability of data recorded by civil servants as part of a review of equality data. One of the problems cited was the number of reports where ethnicity was 'not declared'.

**Question 0**

How many separate classification systems are used by agencies in England and Wales?

**Question 1**

When did individuals identify themselves as belonging to a particular ethnic group?

**Question 2**

How do the police identify someone as belonging to an ethnic group?

**Question 3**

What does IC mean?

**Question 4**

Which ethnicity term was one problem mentioned in the number of reports that included it?

**Text number 59**

In the US, the practice of racial profiling has been found to be both unconstitutional and a violation of civil rights. There is an active debate on why there is a clear correlation between recorded crime, the sentences handed down and the population of a country. Many see de facto racial profiling as an example of institutional racism in law enforcement. A history of misusing racial categories to harm one or more groups and/or to provide protection and benefits to another group clearly influences the debate about the legality of using known phenotypic or genotypic characteristics tied to the supposed race of both victims and perpetrators.

**Question 0**

Where has the practice of racial profiling been found unconstitutional?

**Question 1**

What is a civil rights violation in the United States?

**Question 2**

What do many see as an example of institutional racism in law enforcement?

**Question 3**

How has the misuse of racial categories historically affected one or more groups?

**Question 4**

What has contributed to the debate on the legal use of known phenotypic traits?

**Text number 60**

Mass incarceration disproportionately affects African-American and Latino communities in the United States. Michelle Alexander, author of The New Jim Crow: Mass Incarceration in the Age of Colorblindness (2010), argues that mass incarceration is not only understood as a system of overcrowded prisons. The mass incarceration system is also "a broader network of laws, rules, policies, and customs that control individuals labeled as criminals both inside and outside prison." He further defines it as "a system that locks people not only behind real bars in real prisons, but also behind virtual bars and virtual walls," describing a second-class citizenship that disproportionately targets people of color, particularly African Americans. He compares mass incarceration to Jim Crow laws, noting that both operate as racial caste systems.

**Question 0**

What disproportionately affects African-American and Latino communities?

**Question 1**

Who is the author of "The New Jim Crow: Mass Incarceration in the Age of Colorblindness"?

**Question 2**

What kind of bars and walls does Alexander think people are behind, apart from the physical bars and walls?

**Question 3**

To whom does Alexander think second-class citizenship is disproportionately imposed?

**Question 4**

What kind of caste system is mass incarceration compared to?

**Text number 61**

Similarly, forensic anthropologists use the highly heritable morphological features of human remains (e.g. skull dimensions) to identify the body, including race. In a 1992 article, anthropologist Norman Sauer noted that anthropologists had generally abandoned the concept of race as a valid descriptor of human biodiversity, with the exception of forensic anthropologists. He asked, "If races do not exist, why are forensic anthropologists so good at identifying them?" He concluded:

**Question 0**

What morphological features do forensic anthropologists rely on?

**Question 1**

Which measurement can be used to identify the human body?

**Question 2**

Who said in an article published in 1992 that anthropologists had generally abandoned the concept of race?

**Question 3**

Which group continues to use race as a valid means of representing human biodiversity?

**Question 4**

What are forensic anthropologists very good at identifying?

**Text number 62**

Abu el-Haj argues that genomics and the mapping of lineages and clusters will liberate "the new racial science from the older science by decoupling ancestry from culture and capacity." As an example, he points to recent work by Hammer et al. that sought to test the claim that modern Jews are more closely related to each other than to their non-Jewish neighbors. Hammer et al. found that the degree of genetic similarity among Jews varied according to the locus studied, and suggested that this was the result of natural selection for specific loci. They focused on the Y chromosome, which is not recombinogenic, to "get around some of the complications associated with selection".

**Question 0**

How does mapping clusters distinguish ancestry?

**Question 1**

Hammer and others recently sought to test what claim about how closely related modern Jews are to which group?

**Question 2**

What changed depending on the location of the survey?

**Question 3**

What was suggested as the reason for the degree of genetic drift of the Jews?

**Question 4**

Which chromosome was focused on to circumvent some of the complications of selection?

**Text number 63**

As another example, he points to the work of Thomas et al., who sought to distinguish between the Y chromosomes of Jewish priests (Kohanim) (in Judaism, membership of the priesthood is inherited through the patrilineal line) and the Y chromosomes of non-Jews. Abu el-Haj concluded that this new "racial science" draws attention to the importance of "ancestors" (defined narrowly as not including all ancestors) in some religions and popular culture, and to people's desire to use science to confirm claims about ancestors. This 'race science', he says, is fundamentally different from older conceptions of race that were used to explain differences in human behaviour or social status:

**Question 0**

Thomas and others attempted to distinguish which chromosome between Jewish priests and non-Jews?

**Question 1**

What is the importance of the new "race science"?

**Question 2**

What do people want to strengthen through science?

**Question 3**

What is fundamentally different from older concepts of race?

**Question 4**

How were older racial concepts used?

**Text number 64**

One problem with these tasks is mixing. Many people have very different ancestry. For example, in the United States, colonial and early federal history were periods when there were numerous race relations both outside and inside slavery. This has resulted in the majority of people who identify as African American having some European ancestry. Similarly, many people who identify as white have some African ancestry. In a survey of self-identifying white students at a university in the northeastern United States, about 30% were estimated to have up to 10% African ancestry.

**Question 0**

What is the problem with breed standards?

**Question 1**

How many people have a diverse ancestry?

**Question 2**

When were there periods of high race relations in the United States?

**Question 3**

Who are the ancestors of many people who identify as white?

**Question 4**

What was the estimated proportion of 30% of self-identifying white university students of African descent?

**Document number 309**

**Text number 0**

Since the 19th century, the built-up area of Paris has grown considerably beyond its administrative boundaries; including the suburbs, the total population of the agglomeration is 10 550 350 (January 2012 census). The Paris metropolitan area covers most of the territory of Paris, with a population of 12 341 418 (January 2012 census), or one fifth of the French population. The administrative area covers 12 012 km² (4 638 mi²), with a population of around 12 million in 2014, and has its own regional council and president.

**Question 0**

What is the total population of Paris?

**Question 1**

From which census do these data come?

**Question 2**

What is the population of the Paris metropolitan area?

**Question 3**

How many kilometres does the administrative area cover?

**Question 4**

How many inhabitants lived in the administrative region in 2014?

**Text number 1**

Paris is home to the world's most popular art museum, the Louvre, the Musée d'Orsay, famous for its collection of French Impressionist art, and the Musée National d'Art Moderne, a museum of modern and contemporary art. Paris's major architectural landmarks include the Cathedral of Notre Dame (13th century), Sainte-Chapelle (13th century), the Eiffel Tower (1889) and the Basilica of the Sacré-Cœur in Montmartre (1914). In 2014, 22.4 million people visited Paris, making it one of the world's most popular tourist destinations. Paris is also known for its fashion, especially the twice-yearly Paris Fashion Week, as well as for its high quality cuisine and three-star restaurants. Most of France's major universities and colleges are located in Paris, as are France's major newspapers, including Le Monde, Le Figaro and Libération.

**Question 0**

What is the most popular art museum in the world?

**Question 1**

what is the Musee de Orsay known for?

**Question 2**

What year was the Eiffel Tower built?

**Question 3**

How many visitors came to Paris in 2014?

**Question 4**

In which century was Notre Dame Cathedral built?

**Text number 2**

Paris is home to football club Paris Saint-Germain and rugby union club Stade Français. Built for the 1998 World Cup, the 80 000-seat Stade de France is located north of Paris in the commune of Saint-Denis. Paris hosts the annual French Open Grand Slam tennis tournament on the red clay court of Roland Garros. Paris has hosted the 1900 and 1924 Summer Olympics, the 1938 and 1998 Football World Cups and the 2007 Rugby World Cup. Every July, the Tour de France cycling race finishes in the city.

**Question 0**

What is the name of a football club in Paris?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the Paris Rugby Union?

**Question 2**

How many seats are there at the Stade de France?

**Question 3**

What year will Paris host the football World Cup?

**Question 4**

What month is the Tour de France?

**Text number 3**

By the end of the Western Roman Empire, the city was known as Parisius in Latin and Paris in French. Christianity was introduced in the mid-3rd century AD. According to tradition, it was brought by Saint Denis, the first bishop of Paris. When he refused to renounce his faith, he was beheaded on a hill that became known as 'Mons Martyrum', later 'Montmartre'. His burial place became an important religious shrine; the basilica of Saint-Denis was built there and became the burial place of the kings of France.

**Question 0**

What was the Latin name of Paris?

**Question 1**

In which century was Christianity introduced?

**Question 2**

Who brought Christianity to Paris?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the burial place of Saint Denis?

**Question 4**

Where was Saint Denis beheaded?

**Text number 4**

From 508, the first king of the Merovingian dynasty, Clovis Franksmann, made the city his capital. With the beginning of the Frankish rule in Gaul, there was also a gradual immigration of Franks into Paris, which created the Frankish dialects of Paris. The fortification of Île-de-France failed to prevent a Viking raid in 845, but the strategic importance of Paris - its bridges blocked the passage of ships - was reinforced by the successful defence of the Siege of Paris (885-86). In 987, Hugh Capet, Count of Paris (comte de Paris), Duke of the Franks (duc des Francs), was elected King of the Franks (roi des Franks). Under the reign of the Capet kings, Paris gradually became the largest and most prosperous city in France.

**Question 0**

who was the first king of the Merovingian dynasty?

**Question 1**

In which year was Hugh Capet elected king?

**Question 2**

What helped to create a successful defence at the Siege of Paris?

**Question 3**

What power helped to create the Parisian dialect?

**Text number 5**

By the end of the 13th century, Paris had become the political, economic, religious and cultural capital of France. The Île de la Cité was the site of the royal palace. In 1163, during the reign of Louis VII, the Bishop of Paris, Maurice de Sully, set about building the Cathedral of Notre Dame at its eastern end. On the left bank was the University of Paris, a community of students and teachers founded in the mid-13th century, which trained scholars first in theology and later in canon law, medicine and art.

**Question 0**

Where was the royal palace in the 13th century?

**Question 1**

Who was responsible for building Notre Dame Cathedral?

**Question 2**

Where was the University of Paris located?

**Question 3**

During whose reign was Notre Dame Cathedral built?

**Text number 6**

During the Hundred Years' War, the army of the Duke of Burgundy and a force of about 200 English soldiers occupied Paris from May 1420 to 1436. They defeated Joan of Arc's attempt to liberate the city in 1429. A century later, during the French Wars of Religion, Paris was a stronghold of the Catholic League. On 24 August 1572, the St Bartholomew's Day Massacre took place in Paris, killing thousands of French Protestants. The last of these wars, the eighth, ended in 1594 after Henry IV had converted to Catholicism and finally reached Paris, when he reportedly declared Paris vaut bien une messe ('Paris is worthy of a mass'). The city had been neglected for decades; by the time of his assassination in 1610, Henry IV had rebuilt the Pont Neuf, the first bridge in Paris with pavements and no buildings, connected the Louvre to the Tuileries Palace with a new wing and created Paris' first residential area, the Place Royale, now the Place des Vosges.

**Question 0**

In what year did English soldiers take Paris during the Hundred Years' War?

**Question 1**

Who tried to liberate the city in 1429?

**Question 2**

What was the date of the St Bartholomew's Day massacre?

**Question 3**

In what year was Henri IV assassinated?

**Question 4**

Who was responsible for the rebuilding of Paris in the 17th century?

**Text number 7**

Louis XIV was suspicious of the Parisians and moved his court to Versailles in 1682, but during his reign the arts and sciences flourished in Paris in an unprecedented way. The Comédie-Française, the Academy of Painting and the French Academy of Sciences were founded and headquartered in the city. To show that the city was safe from attack, he dismantled the city walls and replaced them with the Grands Boulevards. To leave monuments to his reign, he built the Collège des Quatre-Nations, Place Vendôme, Place des Victoires and started Les Invalides.

**Question 0**

In what year did Louis XIV move his court to Versailles?

**Question 1**

What monuments did Louis XIV build?

**Question 2**

What was the reason for the demolition of the city walls?

**Question 3**

In which city was the French Academy of Sciences founded?

**Text number 8**

Louis XVI and the royal family were brought to Paris and made virtual prisoners in the Tuileries Palace. In 1793, as the revolution became increasingly radical, the king, queen and mayor were guillotined, along with more than 16 000 others (throughout France), during a reign of terror. Aristocratic and ecclesiastical property was nationalised, and churches in the city were closed, sold or demolished. Revolutionary factions ruled Paris until 9 November 1799 (coup d'état du 18 brumaire), when Napoléon Bonaparte took power as First Consul.

**Question 0**

Where did Louis XVI and his family live?

**Question 1**

When did Napoleon Bonaparte become the first consul?

**Question 2**

How many people were executed during the tyranny?

**Text number 9**

Louis-Philippe was deposed in the streets of Paris in the 1848 uprising. His successor Napoleon III and the newly appointed Prefect of Seine, Georges-Eugène Haussmann, launched a huge public works project to build wide new boulevards, a new opera house, a central market, new water mains, sewers and parks such as the Bois de Boulogne and the Bois de Vincennes. In 1860, Napoleon III also incorporated the surrounding towns into the city and created eight new arrondissements, expanding Paris to its current borders.

**Question 0**

What year was Louis-Phillipe defeated?

**Question 1**

In what year did Napoleon III create new arrondissements?

**Question 2**

Who was Napoleon III's prefect of Siena?

**Text number 10**

In the late 19th century, Paris hosted two major international exhibitions: the 1889 World's Fair, held to celebrate the centenary of the French Revolution and featuring the new Eiffel Tower, and the 1900 World's Fair, which saw the construction of the Pont Alexandre III, the Grand Palais, the Petit Palais and the first Paris Metro line. Paris became a laboratory for naturalism (Émile Zola), symbolism (Charles Baudelaire and Paul Verlaine) and impressionism in art (Courbet, Manet, Monet, Renoir).

**Question 0**

What kind of art did Courbet, Manet, Monet and Renoir create?

**Question 1**

What was the purpose of the 1889 World's Fair?

**Question 2**

Where was the Eiffel Tower unveiled?

**Question 3**

What kind of art did Charles Baudelaire and Paul Verlaine create?

**Text number 11**

During the First World War, Paris was sometimes on the front line; 600-1000 Parisian taxis played a small but very important symbolic role in transporting 6,000 soldiers to the front in the First Battle of the Marne. Zeppelins bombarded the city and German long-range guns bombarded it. In the years after the war, known as Les Années Folles, Paris continued to be a mecca for writers, musicians and artists from all over the world, including Ernest Hemingway, Igor Stravinsky, James Joyce, Josephine Baker, Sidney Bechet and the surrealist Salvador Dalí.

**Question 0**

How many soldiers were transported to the front by Paris taxis in the first battle of the Marne?

**Question 1**

What are the post-war years commonly known as?

**Question 2**

Which popular artists, writers and musicians lived in Paris after the war?

**Text number 12**

On 14 June 1940, the German army marched on Paris, which had been declared an "open city". On 16-17 July 1942, on German orders, the French police and gendarmes arrested 12 884 Jews, including 4 115 children, and imprisoned them for five days at the Vel d'Hiv (Vélodrome d'Hiver), from where they were transported by train to the Auschwitz extermination camp. None of the children returned. The French 2nd Armoured Division and the US Army's 4th Infantry Division liberated the town on 25 August 1944. General Charles de Gaulle led a huge and emotional crowd along the Champs Élysées towards Notre Dame de Paris and gave a speech at the Hôtel de Ville.

**Question 0**

On what day did the German army declare Paris an open city?

**Question 1**

How many Jews were arrested on German orders?

**Question 2**

Where were Jews imprisoned before being transported to Auschwitz?

**Question 3**

How many children returned from Auschwitz?

**Question 4**

On what day was the city liberated?

**Text number 13**

In the 1950s and 1960s, Paris became one of the fronts of the Algerian war of independence. In August 1961, 11 Paris police officers were targeted and killed by the pro-independence FLN, leading to the imposition of a curfew on Algerian Muslims (who were French citizens at the time). On 17 October 1961, an unauthorised but peaceful demonstration by Algerians against the curfew led to violent clashes between police and demonstrators in which at least 40 people were killed, some of whom were thrown into the Seine. The anti-independence organisation Organisation de l'armée secrète (OAS), for its part, carried out several bomb attacks in Paris in 1961 and 1962.

**Question 0**

How many policemen were killed by the pro-independence FLN in August 1961?

**Question 1**

What was the outcome of the police murder?

**Question 2**

How many people were killed in demonstrations against the curfew?

**Question 3**

Who carried out the Paris bombings between 1961 and 1962?

**Text number 14**

Most of the presidents of the post-war Fifth Republic wanted to leave their own monuments in Paris; President Georges Pompidou created the Centre Georges Pompidou (1977) and Valéry Giscard d'Estaing the Musée d'Orsay (1986); President François Mitterrand, who was in power for 14 years, built the Opéra Bastille (1985-1989), the Bibliothèque nationale de France (1996), the Arche de la Défense (1985-1989) and the Louvre Pyramid with its underground courtyards (1983-1989); Jacques Chirac (2006), the Musée du quai Branly.

**Question 0**

What year was the Centre Georges Pompidou built?

**Question 1**

What has Valery Giscard d'Estaing built?

**Question 2**

How many years was Francois Mitterrand in power?

**Question 3**

What did Jacques Chirac build?

**Question 4**

In what year was the Musee de quai Branly built?

**Text number 15**

In the early 2000s, Paris' population started to grow again slowly as more young people moved into the city. It reached 2.25 million in 2011. In March 2001, Bertrand Delanoë became the first socialist mayor of Paris. In 2007, he introduced the Vélib' scheme, which hires out bicycles for use by local residents and visitors, to reduce car traffic in the city. Bertrand Delanoë also transformed a section of the motorway on the left bank of the Seine into an urban promenade and park, the Promenade des Berges de la Seine, which he inaugurated in June 2013.

**Question 0**

What was the population of Paris in 2011?

**Question 1**

Who was the first socialist mayor of Paris?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the scheme that allows local residents to rent bicycles?

**Question 3**

When was the Promenade des Berges de la Seine inaugurated?

**Text number 16**

On 7 January 2015, two French extremists attacked the Paris headquarters of Charlie Hebdo magazine, killing thirteen people, and on 9 January a third terrorist killed four hostages in an attack on a Jewish grocery store in Porte de Vincennes. On 11 January, an estimated 1.5 million people marched in Paris - together with international political leaders - to show solidarity against terrorism and in defence of freedom of expression. Ten months later, on 13 November 2015, Paris and Saint-Denis were the scene of a series of coordinated terrorist attacks by the Islamic State (Daesh, ISIS). 130 people were killed in shootings and bombings, and more than 350 injured. Seven of the attackers killed themselves and others by detonating their explosive devices. On the morning of 18 November, three suspected terrorists, including Abdelhamid Abaaoud, the suspected mastermind of the attacks, were killed in a shootout with police in the Paris suburb of Saint-Denis. President Hollande declared a three-month state of emergency in France.

**Question 0**

On what day did two extremist Muslims attack Charlie Hebdo?

**Question 1**

How many people died in the Charlie Hebdo attack?

**Question 2**

How many people marched against terrorism on 11 January?

**Question 3**

Which Islamic organisation claimed responsibility for the attacks?

**Question 4**

How did the attackers kill themselves?

**Text number 17**

Paris is located in north-central France. By road, it is 450 kilometres south-east of London, 287 kilometres south of Calais, 305 kilometres south-west of Brussels, 774 kilometres north of Marseille, 385 kilometres north-east of Nantes and 135 kilometres south-east of Rouen. Paris is located on a northward bend of the Seine River and includes two islands, Île Saint-Louis and the larger Île de la Cité, which form the oldest part of the city. The mouth of the river into the English Channel (La Manche) is about 375 km downstream from the city, which was founded around 7600 BC. The city is spread over a wide area on both banks of the river. Overall, the city is relatively flat, with the lowest point 35 metres above sea level. Paris has several notable hills, the highest of which is Montmartre at 130 metres. Montmartre takes its name from the martyrdom of Saint Denis, the first bishop of Paris, at the top of Mons Martyrum (Martyr's Hill) in 250.

**Question 0**

Where in France is Paris?

**Question 1**

How many kilometres is it from London?

**Question 2**

Which large river is located in Paris?

**Question 3**

What is the largest island in Paris?

**Question 4**

What is the biggest hill in Paris?

**Text number 18**

Without the parks of Bois de Boulogne and Bois de Vincennes, Paris is an oval of about 87 square kilometres, surrounded by a 35-kilometre ring road, Boulevard Périphérique. The city's last great union in 1860 gave the city its modern form and also created 20 arrondissements (districts) around the bell. In 1860, the city covered an area of 78 square kilometres (30 square miles), and in the 1920s it expanded marginally to 86.9 square kilometres (33.6 square miles). In 1929, the Bois de Boulogne and Bois de Vincennes forest parks were formally annexed to the city, bringing its area to around 105 square kilometres. The metropolitan area of the city covers 2 300 km2 (890 sq mi).

**Question 0**

Which road goes around Paris?

**Question 1**

How big is the Paris metropolitan area?

**Question 2**

When was the last time Paris connected remote areas?

**Question 3**

How many arrondissements are there?

**Question 4**

In what year were the Bois de Boulogne and the Bois de Vincennes merged?

**Text number 19**

The Paris climate is a typical Western European oceanic climate (Köppen climate classification: Cfb ), influenced by the North Atlantic Current. The general climate is mild and moderately humid throughout the year. Summer days are generally warm and pleasant, with average temperatures ranging between 15 and 25 °C and a relatively high level of sunshine. However, there are a few days each year when the temperature rises above 32°C (90°F). Some years have even seen long periods of severe summer weather, such as the 2003 heat wave, when temperatures exceeded 30°C for weeks, reaching 40°C on some days and rarely cooling at night. More recently, the average temperature in July 2011 was 17.6°C, with an average minimum temperature of 12.9°C and an average maximum temperature of 23.7°C. The average temperature for July this year was 17.6°C.

**Question 0**

Which current influences the weather in Paris?

**Question 1**

How is the Paris climate classified?

**Question 2**

What are the average summer temperatures?

**Question 3**

What was the average temperature in July 2011?

**Text number 20**

Spring and autumn have mild days and crisp nights on average, but they are variable and unstable. Surprisingly warm or cool weather often occurs in both seasons. In winter, sunshine is scarce, days are cold but usually above freezing, and temperatures are around 7°C (45°F). Light night frosts are fairly common, however, but temperatures fall below -5°C (23°F) only a few days a year. Snow falls every year, but rarely stays on the ground. In the city, it occasionally snows lightly or drizzles, either accumulating or not.

**Question 0**

What is the average winter temperature?

**Question 1**

Will Paris see snow?

**Question 2**

How often does the temperature drop below -5 C

**Text number 21**

Voters in Paris indirectly elect the Mayor of Paris, and voters in each borough elect the 163-member Paris Council (Conseil de Paris). Each district has a number of members according to its population: from 10 members in the least populated districts (1st to 9th) to 36 members in the most populous district (15th). The elected council members elect the mayor. Sometimes the candidate with the most votes in the whole city is not elected if the other candidate has the support of a majority of the council members. Mayor Bertrand Delanoë (2001-2014) was elected only by a minority of the city's voters, but by a majority of councillors. Once elected, the Council plays a largely passive role in the city government, meeting only once a month. The current council is divided between a 91-member left-wing coalition of socialists, communists, greens and far left, and a 71-member centre-right coalition, plus a few representatives of smaller parties.

**Question 0**

How many members are there in the Paris Council?

**Question 1**

How Mayor Bertand Delanoe was elected

**Question 2**

How often does the Council meet?

**Question 3**

In what years was Bertrand Delanoe mayor?

**Text number 22**

The 2013 city budget was €7.6 billion, of which €5.4 billion was spent on city administration and €2.2 billion on investment. Most of the budget (38%) was spent on public housing and urban planning projects, 15% on roads and transport, 8% on schools (mainly financed from the state budget), 5% on parks and gardens and 4% on culture. The city's main source of revenue comes from direct taxes (35 %), supplemented by a 13 % property tax. 19 % of the budget comes from transfers from the state administration.

**Question 0**

What was the city's budget in 2013

**Question 1**

How much of the budget was allocated to city administration?

**Question 2**

What percentage of the budget is spent on public housing and urban planning projects?

**Question 3**

What is the main source of income in Paris?

**Question 4**

What percentage of the budget is allocated to schools?

**Text number 23**

The Métropole du Grand Paris was officially created on 1 January 2016. It is an administrative structure created for cooperation between the city of Paris and its closest suburbs. It comprises the City of Paris and the municipalities of the three departments of the inner suburbs, the cities of Hauts-de-Seine, Seine-Saint-Denis and Val-de-Marne; and seven municipalities in the outer suburbs, including Argenteuil in Val d'Oise and Paray-Vieille-Poste in Essonne, which were added to incorporate Paris' main airports. The metropolis covers an area of 814 square kilometres and has a population of 6.945 million people.

**Question 0**

When was the Metropole du Grand Paris founded?

**Question 1**

How big is Metropole?

**Question 2**

What is the population of a big city?

**Question 3**

Which three inner suburban departments are part of a metropolis?

**Question 4**

How many suburban municipalities are part of a metropolis?

**Text number 24**

The new structure will be governed by a 210-member metropolitan council, which will not be directly elected but by the councils of the member municipalities. By 2020, its basic tasks will include urban planning, housing and environmental protection. The first President of the Metropolitan Council, Patrick Ollier, a Republican and Mayor of Rueil-Malmaison, was elected on 22 January 2016. Although the metropolis has a population of almost seven million and accounts for 25% of France's GDP, it has a very small budget of only €65 million, compared to the €8 billion budget of the City of Paris.

**Question 0**

How many members are there in the Capital Region Council?

**Question 1**

Who was the first President of the Capital Region Council?

**Question 2**

Patrick Ollier was mayor of which city?

**Question 3**

Which political party does Patrick Ollier belong to?

**Question 4**

What is the Metropole budget?

**Text number 25**

The Île de France region, which includes Paris and its surrounding communes, is administered by the Regional Council, based in the 7th arrondissement of Paris. It is made up of 209 members representing the various communes of the region. On 15 December 2015, the list of candidates of the centre-right coalition led by Valérie Pécresse, the Union of the Right, narrowly won the regional elections, defeating the coalition of socialists and ecologists. The Socialists had ruled the region for seventeen years. In 2016, the new regional council has 121 members from the right-wing Alliance, 66 from the left-wing Alliance and 22 from the far-right National Front.

**Question 0**

In which region is the Regional Council located?

**Question 1**

How many years did the socialists rule the region?

**Question 2**

How many councillors do they have from the right-wing alliance in 2016?

**Question 3**

Who led the Alliance of the Right?

**Text number 26**

France's highest courts are located in Paris. The Supreme Court, which deals with criminal and civil cases, is located in the Palais de Justice of the Île de la Cité, while the Conseil d'État, which provides legal advice to the executive and acts as the highest administrative court dealing with actions against public bodies, is located in the Palais-Royal in the 1st arrondissement. The Constitutional Council, an advisory body with supreme authority over the constitutionality of laws and government decrees, also meets in the Montpensier wing of Palais-Royal.

**Question 0**

Where are France's highest courts located?

**Question 1**

What is the highest court of justice?

**Question 2**

Where does the Constitutional Council meet?

**Question 3**

Where is the Chamber of Commerce located?

**Question 4**

Where does the Parliament meet?

**Text number 27**

Paris and its region is home to the headquarters of several international organisations, including UNESCO, the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, the International Chamber of Commerce, the Paris Club, the European Space Agency, the International Energy Agency, the International Organisation for French-speaking Countries, the European Union Institute for Security Studies, the International Bureau of Weights and Measures, the International Bureau of Exhibitions and the International Organisation for Human Rights.

**Question 0**

Where is UNESCO headquarters?

**Question 1**

Where is the headquarters of the International Federation for Human Rights?

**Question 2**

Where is the headquarters of the European Space Agency?

**Text number 28**

Security in Paris is mainly the responsibility of the Paris police prefecture, a department of the French Ministry of the Interior. It oversees the National Police units that patrol the city and three neighbouring municipalities. It is also responsible for emergency services such as the Paris Fire Brigade. Its headquarters are in Place Louis Lépine on the Île de la Cité. The Prefecture has 30 200 police officers and more than 6 000 vehicles, including police cars, motorbikes, fire engines, boats and helicopters. In addition to traditional police duties, the local police monitor the number of sales in large shops (up to two a year) and ensure that at least one bakery is open in each district during the summer holidays. The National Police has its own special unit for riot and crowd control and security in public buildings, called Compagnies Républicaines de Sécurité (CRS), which was created in 1944 immediately after the liberation of France. Vans with CRS agents are often seen in the city centre during demonstrations and public events.

**Question 0**

Who is responsible for security in Paris?

**Question 1**

Where is the headquarters of the Paris police prefecture?

**Question 2**

How many police officers are there in the Paris police prefecture?

**Question 3**

When were the Compagnies Republicaines de Securite founded?

**Question 4**

How many vehicles are in the fleet?

**Text number 29**

Most French rulers since the Middle Ages have sought to leave their mark on a city that has never been destroyed by disaster or war, unlike many other world capitals. In modernising its infrastructure over the centuries, Paris has even preserved its earliest history on its street map. The city was originally formed, before the Middle Ages, around a series of islands and sandy beaches on the bend of the Seine, two of which remain today: the island of Saint-Louis and the island of the Cité; the third is the île aux Cygnes, artificially created in 1827. Modern Paris owes much to Baron Haussmann's renewal of the second Empire style at the end of the 19th century: many of the busiest streets, avenues and boulevards in Paris today are the result of this urban renewal. The Parisian style is also characterised by its linear street facades, the creamy grey 'Paris stone' of its buildings, the linear top-floor balconies and tree-lined boulevards. The city centre's large population makes it much more different from most other western cities of the world.

**Question 0**

Who moved to Paris in the 19th century?

**Question 1**

Which two islands are now in Paris?

**Question 2**

When was ile aux Cygnes created?

**Text number 30**

Since the early 17th century, Parisian town planning legislation has been strictly enforced, particularly with regard to the alignment of streets, the height of buildings and the distribution of buildings. In a recent development, the building height limit of 37 metres (121 feet) from 1974 to 2010 was raised to 50 metres (160 feet) in central areas and 180 metres (590 feet) in some of Paris' outlying districts, but in some of the city's most central districts, even older building height regulations remain in force. Montparnasse's 210-metre tower was the tallest building in both Paris and France until 1973, but this record has been held by the Tour First tower in the La Défense district of Courbevoie since its construction in 2011. Launched in 2009, the new La Defense project, called Hermitage Plaza, proposes the construction of two towers, 85 and 86 storeys high, or 320 metres, which would be the tallest buildings in the European Union and only slightly shorter than the Eiffel Tower. They were due to be completed in 2019 or 2020, but in January 2015 construction had not yet started and questions were raised in the press about the future of the project.

**Question 0**

What is the current height limit in central Paris?

**Question 1**

What was the tallest building in Paris until 1973?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the La Defense project that has not yet started?

**Question 3**

When did the Hermitage Plaza open?

**Question 4**

How many towers were to be built?

**Text number 31**

Examples of European architecture in Paris date back more than a millennium, such as the Romanesque church of the monastery of Saint-Germain-des-Prés (1014-1163), the early Gothic architecture of the basilica of Saint-Denis (1144), Notre Dame Cathedral (1163-1345), the magnificent Gothic church of Saint Chapelle (1239-1248) and the Baroque churches of Saint-Paul-Saint-Louis (1627-1641) and Les Invalides (1670-1708). The 19th century saw the construction of the neoclassical Madeleine church (1808-1842), the Palais Garnier opera house (1875), the neo-Byzantine basilica of the Sacré-Cœur (1875-1919) and the lavish Belle Époque modernism of the Eiffel Tower (1889). Impressive examples of 20th century architecture include the Centre Georges Pompidou (1977), designed by Richard Rogers and Renzo Piano, and the Louvre Pyramid (1989), designed by I.M. Pei. Contemporary architecture includes Jean Nouvel's Musée du Quai Branly (2006) and Frank Gehry's Louis Vuitton Foundation's new contemporary art museum (2014).

**Question 0**

When was La Madeleine built?

**Question 1**

When was the Palais Garnier opera house built?

**Question 2**

When was the Eiffel Tower built?

**Question 3**

Who built the Louis Vuitton Foundation Art Museum?

**Question 4**

Who built the Louvre pyramid?

**Text number 32**

In 2012, 28 800 people without a permanent place of residence lived in the Paris agglomeration (urban area), an increase of 84% compared to 2001, representing 43% of the homeless population in France as a whole. Of these, 41% were women and 29% were accompanied by children. Fifty-six per cent of the homeless were born outside France, with the majority coming from Africa and Eastern Europe. There are sixty shelters for the homeless in Paris, known as Centres d'hébergement et de réinsertion sociale (CHRS), funded by the city and run by private charities and associations.

**Question 0**

What was the population of the Paris urban area in 2012, excluding permanent residence?

**Question 1**

What proportion of homeless people in France live in Paris?

**Question 2**

What proportion of homeless people are women?

**Question 3**

How many homeless shelters are there in Paris?

**Question 4**

Who is funding these homeless shelters?

**Text number 33**

With the exception of the 20th century additions of the Bois de Boulogne, the Bois de Vincennes and the Paris heliport, the administrative boundaries of Paris have remained unchanged since 1860. The Department of Seine had administered Paris and its suburbs since its creation in 1790, but the growing population of the suburbs had made it difficult to administer Paris as a single entity. The problem was "solved" by reorganising its parent "District de la région parisienne" (Paris Region) into several new departments from 1968 onwards: Paris became its own department and the administration of its suburbs was shared between the three surrounding departments. The Paris region was renamed "Île-de-France" in 1977, but the name "Paris region" is still in common use. On 1 January 2016, Paris was merged into its suburban regions with the creation of the Métropole du Grand Paris.

**Question 0**

What are the only two additions to the administrative boundaries of Paris since 1860?

**Question 1**

When was the Mushroom Division established?

**Question 2**

When was the District de la region parisienne reorganised?

**Question 3**

What was the name given to the Paris region when it was renamed?

**Question 4**

When did Paris merge with its suburbs?

**Text number 34**

The link between Paris and its suburbs, and in particular the lack of suburban transport, became all too apparent as Paris grew. Paul Delouvrier promised to resolve the contradiction between Paris and the suburbs when he became head of the Paris region in 1961: two of his most ambitious projects for the region were the construction of five suburban ville nouvelles ("new towns") and the RER light rail network. Many other suburban residential areas (grands ensembles) were built in the 1960s and 1970s to provide affordable solutions for a rapidly growing population: these areas were initially socially mixed, but few residents owned their homes (the growing economy made it possible to build these areas for the middle class only from the 1970s onwards). Their poor construction quality and haphazard placement in the existing urban fabric contributed to their abandonment by those who could move elsewhere and to their repopulation by people with more limited opportunities.

**Question 0**

When did Paul Delouvrier become leader of the Paris region?

**Question 1**

What was the big problem with Paris being cut off from its suburbs?

**Question 2**

How many suburban villages did Paul Delouvrier build?

**Text number 35**

These areas, known as "sensitive neighbourhoods", are located in the north and east of Paris, particularly in the Goutte d'Or and Belleville districts. To the north of the city, they are mainly located in the Seine-Saint-Denis department and, a little further east, in the Val-d'Oise department. Other hard-to-reach areas include the Seine valley, Évry and Corbeil-Essonnes (Essonne), Mureaux and Mantes-la-Jolie (Yvelines) and scattered social housing estates created under the Delouvrier 'ville nouvelle' policy initiative of 1961.

**Question 0**

Where are the Sensibles districts located?

**Question 1**

Which two districts are the centres of the Quartiers Sensibles?

**Question 2**

Why were these districts created?

**Text number 36**

The population of Paris within its administrative boundaries was 2 241 346 in January 2014. This makes Paris the fifth largest municipality in the European Union after London, Berlin, Madrid and Rome. Eurostat, the EU's statistical office, ranks Paris (6.5 million inhabitants) second after London (8 million) and ahead of Berlin (3.5 million) based on 2012 population figures, which Eurostat calls "urban audit cities". The Paris urban area, or "unité urbaine", is a statistical domain created by the French statistical office INSEE to measure the population of the built-up areas surrounding the city. It is slightly smaller than the Paris region. According to the INSEE, the Paris urban area had 10 550 350 inhabitants at the January 2012 census, making it the most populous urban area in the European Union and the third most populous in Europe after Istanbul and Moscow. The Paris urban area is the second most populous in the European Union after London, with a population of 12 341 418 at the January 2012 census.

**Question 0**

What was the population of the city of Paris in January 2014?

**Question 1**

Where does Paris rank in the EU in terms of the largest municipality?

**Question 2**

Which four cities are bigger than Paris in the EU?

**Question 3**

Who created the Paris urban area?

**Question 4**

According to INSEE, what is the population of the Paris urban area?

**Text number 37**

The population of Paris is now smaller than its historic peak of 2.9 million in 1921, mainly due to a significant reduction in the size of households and a dramatic migration of residents to the suburbs between 1962 and 1975. Factors contributing to this migration included the decline of industrialisation, high rents, the redevelopment of many inner-city neighbourhoods, the conversion of housing into offices and the prosperity of working families. The city's population decline stopped in the 2000s; the July 2004 population estimate showed population growth for the first time since 1954, reaching 2 234 000 in 2009.

**Question 0**

What is the population peak in Paris?

**Question 1**

When was the population of Paris at its peak?

**Question 2**

Which year was the first year of population growth since 1954?

**Question 3**

What was the population in 2009?

**Text number 38**

According to Eurostat, the EU's statistical office, the municipality of Paris was the most densely populated city in the European Union in 2012, with 21 616 people per square kilometre living within its boundaries (NUTS 3 statistical territory). The city was more densely populated than Inner London West, with 10 374 people per square kilometre. According to the same census, three departments bordering Paris, Hauts-de-Seine, Seine-Saint-Denis and Val-de-Marne, had a population density of more than 10 000 inhabitants per square kilometre and were among the ten most densely populated regions in the EU.

**Question 0**

What was the most populous city in the EU in 2012?

**Question 1**

How many people lived within the city limits per square kilometre?

**Question 2**

Which three départements surrounding Paris have a population density of more than 10 000 inhabitants per capita?

**Text number 39**

The remaining group, foreign-born persons who do not have French nationality at birth, are immigrants under French law. According to the 2012 census, 135 853 of the inhabitants of the city of Paris were immigrants from Europe, 112 369 from the Maghreb, 70 852 from sub-Saharan Africa and Egypt, 5 059 from Turkey, 91 297 from Asia (outside Turkey), 38 858 from America and 1 365 from the South Pacific. It should be noted that the number of immigrants from the Americas and the South Pacific living in Paris is significantly higher than the number of immigrants from the French overseas departments and regions of the world.

**Question 0**

How many immigrants were in Paris in 2012 from Europe?

**Question 1**

How many of the migrants who arrived in Paris in 2012 were from Maghreb countries?

**Question 2**

How many of the migrants in Paris in 2012 were from sub-Saharan Africa and Egypt?

**Question 3**

How many Asians moved to Paris in 2012?

**Text number 40**

In the 2012 census, 59.5% of jobs in the Paris region were in market services (12.0% in wholesale and retail trade, 9.7% in professional, scientific and technical services, 6.5% in information and communication services, 6.5% in transport and storage services, 5.9% in financial and insurance activities, 5.8% in administrative and support services, 4.5% in administrative and support services).6 % in accommodation and food services and 8.5 % in miscellaneous other market services), 26.9 % in non-market services (10.4 % in health and social work, 9.6 % in public administration and defence and 6.9 % in education), 8.2 % in industry and utilities (6.6 % in industry and 1.5 % in utilities), 5.2 % in construction and 0.2 % in agriculture.

**Question 0**

What percentage of jobs were market services in 2012?

**Question 1**

Which sector had the fewest jobs in Paris in 2012?

**Question 2**

What percentage of people worked in agriculture?

**Question 3**

What percentage of people worked in the financial and insurance sector?

**Text number 41**

The Paris region had 5.4 million employees in 2010, of which 2.2 million were concentrated in the 39 pôles d'emplois or enterprise zones. The largest of these areas in terms of number of employees is known in French as QCA, or quartier central des affaires, and is located in the western part of the city of Paris, in the 2nd, 8th, 9th, 16th and 18th arrondissements. In 2010, it employed 500 000 salaried workers, around thirty percent of the salaried workforce in Paris and ten percent of the salaried workforce in Île-de-France. The largest sectors in the Central Business District were financial and insurance activities (16% of the district's workforce) and business services (15%). The district also has a large concentration of department stores, shopping malls, hotels and restaurants, as well as government offices and ministries.

**Question 0**

How many employees lived in the Paris region in 2010?

**Text number 42**

The second largest business area in terms of employment is La Défense, to the west of the city, where many companies set up offices in the 1990s. In 2010, 144 600 workers were employed there, 38% of them in the financial and insurance sector and 16% in business support services. Two other important districts, Neuilly-sur-Seine and Levallois-Perret, are extensions of the Paris business district and La Défense. The second district, which includes Boulogne-Billancourt, Issy-les-Moulineaux and the southern part of the 15th arrondissement, is a media and IT hub.

**Question 0**

Who is the second largest employer in the business sector?

**Question 1**

How many people worked for La Defense in 2010?

**Question 2**

In which sector did most of the employees of La Defense work?

**Question 3**

What percentage of people worked on business support?

**Question 4**

Which two districts are extensions of the Paris business district?

**Text number 43**

The Paris region is France's leading economic region, with a GDP of €624 billion ($687 billion) in 2012. In 2011, its GDP was the second highest among European regions and its GDP per capita was the fourth highest in Europe. The Paris region had a population of 18.8% of the French metropolitan area in 2011, but its GDP was 30% of that of the French metropolitan area. In 2015, the region was home to 29 world headquarters out of 31 Fortune Global 500 companies based in France.

**Question 0**

What was the GDP of the Paris region in 2012?

**Question 1**

How many of the 31 Fortune Global 500 companies are headquartered in Paris?

**Question 2**

What percentage of France's GDP comes from the GDP of the Paris region?

**Text number 44**

The Paris region's economy has gradually shifted from manufacturing to high value-added services (finance, IT services, etc.) and high-tech industries (electronics, optics, aeronautics, etc.). The Paris region's strongest economic activity, through the Hauts-de-Seine department and the suburban area of La Défense, is located in the economic centre of Paris to the west of the city, in the Opéra Garnier, La Défense and Val de Seine triangle. Although Paris' economy is dominated by services and industrial employment has declined sharply, the area remains an important manufacturing centre, particularly in the aerospace, automotive and eco-industries.

**Question 0**

Where has the Paris region economy gone?

**Question 1**

What was the largest economy in Paris before today?

**Question 2**

Where is the financial centre of Paris?

**Text number 45**

The majority of Paris' workforce is employed in 370 000 business service jobs, concentrated in the north-western 8th, 16th and 17th arrondissements. Financial services firms in Paris are concentrated in the banking and insurance districts of the 8th and 9th arrondissements in the Midwest. The department store districts of the 1st, 6th, 8th and 9th arrondissements employ 10% of Paris' mostly female workforce, of which 100 000 are registered in the retail sector. Fourteen per cent of Parisians work in hotels and restaurants and in other services to private individuals. Nineteen per cent of Parisian workers are employed by the government, either in administration or education. The majority of health and social workers in Paris work in hospitals and social hostels, which are concentrated in the 13th, 14th, 18th, 19th and 20th arrondissements. Outside Paris, in the western Hauts-de-Seine, the La Défense region, which specialises in finance, insurance and scientific research, employs 144 600 people, and in the north-eastern Seine-Saint-Denis, the audiovisual sector is home to 200 media companies and 10 major film studios.

**Question 0**

In which regions are most business service jobs located?

**Question 1**

Where are the main financial services companies in Paris located?

**Question 2**

Which industries are located in the 1st, 6th, 8th and 9th districts?

**Question 3**

What percentage of Parisians work in hotels and restaurants?

**Question 4**

How many people work in the La Defense area?

**Text number 46**

Most of Paris' industry is concentrated in the suburbs, and the city itself has only around 75 000 industrial workers, most of whom work in textiles, clothing, leather and shoes. The Paris region's industry is specialised in transport, mainly cars, planes and trains, but is in steep decline: industrial employment in Paris proper fell by 64% between 1990 and 2010, while the Paris region lost 48% over the same period. Most of this is due to the relocation of companies outside the Paris region. The Paris region's 800 aerospace companies employed 100 000 people. Four hundred automotive companies employ another 100 000 workers: many of these are concentrated in the Yvelines department around the Renault and PSA-Citroen plants (this department alone employs 33 000 workers), but the industry as a whole suffered major losses when Citroen's large assembly plant in Aulnay-sous-Bois closed in 2014.

**Question 0**

How many industrial workers are there in Paris?

**Question 1**

What does manufacturing in the Paris region specialise in?

**Question 2**

How much did manufacturing employment decline between 1990 and 2010?

**Question 3**

How many people are employed by aerospace companies in the Paris region?

**Question 4**

Which plant closure in 20147 caused a major loss to the car industry?

**Text number 47**

The southern department of Essonne specialises in science and technology, while south-eastern Val-de-Marne, home to the Rungis food market, specialises in food processing and beverages. The industrial decline of the Paris region is rapidly being replaced by the eco-industry, which employs around 100 000 people. In 2011, only 56 927 construction workers were employed in Paris, while the metropolitan area employed 246 639 construction workers, mainly in the Seine-Saint-Denis (41 378) and Hauts-de-Seine (37 303) departments and the new business parks that have sprung up there.

**Question 0**

What does the southern department of Essonne specialise in?

**Question 1**

What does the south-eastern part of Val-de-Marne specialise in?

**Question 2**

How many construction workers worked in Paris in 2011?

**Question 3**

How many construction workers were employed in the capital region?

**Text number 48**

The average net household income (after social security, pension and health insurance contributions) in Paris was €36 085 in 2011. They ranged from €22 095 in the 19th arrondissement to €82 449 in the 7th arrondissement. The median taxable income in 2011 was around EUR 25 000 in Paris and EUR 22 200 in Île-de-France. In general, incomes are higher in the western part of the city and the western suburbs than in the north and east of the metropolitan area. The unemployment rate was estimated at 8.2% in the city of Paris and 8.8% in Île-de-France in the first quarter of 2015. It ranged from 7.6% in the prosperous Essonne department to 13.1% in the Seine-Saint-Denis department, which is home to a large number of recent migrants.

**Question 0**

What was the average net household income in Paris in 2011?

**Question 1**

What was the average income in the 19th arrondissement?

**Question 2**

What was the average in the 7th district?

**Question 3**

What was the unemployment rate in the city of Paris?

**Question 4**

What was the unemployment rate in the department of Siene-Saint-Denis?

**Text number 49**

While Paris has some of the richest neighbourhoods in France, it also has some of the poorest, mainly in the east of the city. In 2012, 14% of households in the city earned less than €777 per month, the official poverty line. 25% of people in the 19th arrondissement lived below the poverty line, 24% in the 18th arrondissement, 22% in the 20th arrondissement and 18% in the 10th arrondissement. In the city's richest ward, Ward 7, 7% lived below the poverty line, Ward 6 8% and Ward 16 9%.

**Question 0**

What percentage of households earned less than €977 per month?

**Question 1**

What percentage of people in the 19th district lived below the poverty line?

**Question 2**

What percentage of people lived below the poverty line in the richest district of Paris?

**Text number 50**

The city's museums and monuments received 72.1 million visitors in 2013. The city's main attraction was Notre Dame Cathedral, with 14 million visitors in 2013, while the Louvre Museum had over 9.2 million visitors in 2013, making it the most visited museum in the world. Other top cultural attractions in Paris in 2013 were the Basilique du Sacré-Cœur (10.5 million visitors), the Eiffel Tower (6 740 000 visitors), the Centre Pompidou (3 745 000 visitors) and the Musée d'Orsay (3 467 000 visitors). In the Paris region, Disneyland Paris in the Marne-la-Vallee, 32 km east of central Paris, was the most visited tourist attraction in France with 14.9 million visitors in 2013.

**Question 0**

How many people visited museums and monuments in Paris in 2013?

**Question 1**

What is the main attraction in Paris?

**Question 2**

How many people visited the Louvre in 2013?

**Question 3**

What is the most popular attraction in Marne-la-Valee?

**Text number 51**

In central Paris, the city's most popular monuments, including Notre Dame Cathedral and the Louvre, as well as Sainte-Chapelle; Les Invalides, where Napoleon's tomb is located, and the Eiffel Tower are on the left bank to the southwest of the city centre. The beaches of Seine, from Pont de Sully to Pont d'Iéna, have been a UNESCO World Heritage Site since 1991. Other landmarks are located east to west along the historic axis of Paris, which runs from the Louvre through the Tuileries Gardens, the Luxor Column in Place de la Concorde, the Arc de Triomphe and the Grande Arche of La Défense.

**Question 0**

Where are the most popular monuments in Paris?

**Question 1**

What's in Les Invalides?

**Question 2**

Since when are the banks of the Seine from Pont de Sully to the Pond'lena River a UNESCO World Heritage Site?

**Text number 52**

In 2013, Paris had 1,570 hotels with 70,034 rooms, of which 55 were 5-star hotels, most of them belonging to international chains, mainly located near the city centre and the Champs-Élysées. Paris has long been famous for its large hotels. The Hotel Meurice, opened in 1817 to British travellers, was one of the first luxury hotels in Paris. The arrival of the railways and the Paris Exposition of 1855 brought the first flood of tourists and the first large modern hotels. The Hôtel Ritz on Place Vendôme opened in 1898, followed by the Hôtel Crillon in a 19th century building on Place de la Concorde in 1909, the Hotel Bristol on rue de Fabourg Saint-Honoré in 1925 and the Hotel George V in 1928.

**Question 0**

How many hotels are there in Paris?

**Question 1**

When did Hotel Meurice open?

**Question 2**

When did the Hotel du Louvre open?

**Question 3**

On which main road are most hotels located?

**Text number 53**

For centuries, Paris has attracted artists from all over the world, who come to the city to train and find inspiration in its wide range of artistic resources and galleries. As a result, Paris has gained a reputation as the 'city of art'. Italian artists made a major contribution to the development of Parisian art in the 1500s and 1600s, particularly in the field of sculpture and reliefs. Painting and sculpture became the pride of the French monarchy, and many Parisian artists were commissioned by French royalty to decorate their palaces during the French Baroque and Classical periods. Sculptors such as Girardon, Coysevox and Coustou became renowned as the best artists of the 17th century French royal court. Pierre Mignard became King Louis XIV's first painter in this period. In 1648, the Académie royale de peinture et de sculpture (Royal Academy of Painting and Sculpture) was founded to respond to the capital's dramatic artistic boom. The Academy was the highest art school in France until 1793.

**Question 0**

What art was Paris famous for in the 1500s and 1600s?

**Question 1**

Who was King Louis XIV's first painter?

**Question 2**

In what year was the Academie royale de peinture et de sculpture founded?

**Question 3**

Until what year was the Academie royale de peinture et de sculpture the best art school?

**Text number 54**

Paris was in its artistic heyday in the 19th and early 20th centuries, with the establishment of an artists' colony in the city and its art schools, in contact with some of the greatest painters of the time: Manet, Monet, Berthe Morisot, Gauguin, Renoir and others. The French Revolution and the political and social changes in France had a profound impact on the art of the capital. Paris played a key role in the development of Romanticism in art, with artists such as Gericault. Impressionism, Art Nouveau, Symbolism, Fauvism, Cubism and Art Deco movements all developed in Paris. In the late 19th century, many artists from the French provinces and the rest of the world came to Paris to exhibit their work in numerous salons and exhibitions and to make a name for themselves. Artists such as Pablo Picasso, Henri Matisse, Vincent van Gogh, Paul Cézanne, Jean Metzinger, Albert Gleizes, Henri Rousseau, Marc Chagall, Amedeo Modigliani and many others joined Paris. Picasso, who lived in Montmartre, painted his famous works La Famille de Saltimbanques and Les Demoiselles d'Avignon between 1905 and 1907. Montmartre and Montparnasse became centres of artistic production.

**Question 0**

What kind of art did Paris help to develop through painters like Gericault?

**Question 1**

In which city did Picasso live?

**Question 2**

Which two cities were at the peak of artistic production?

**Question 3**

Between which two years did Picasso paint La Famille de Saltimbanques and Les Demoiselles d'Avignon?

**Text number 55**

The inventor Nicéphore Niépce made the first permanent photograph on a polished tin plate in Paris in 1825 and then developed the process with Louis Daguerre. Étienne-Jules Marey's work in the 1880s had a major impact on the development of modern photography. Photography played a central role in the surrealist movement in Paris, in the work of Man Ray and Maurice Tabard. Many photographers became famous for their Parisian photography, such as Eugène Atget, famous for his street photography, Robert Doisneau, famous for his playful images of people and markets (of which Le baiser de l'hôtel de ville has become an icon of the romantic vision of Paris), Marcel Bovis, famous for his night photography, and others such as Jacques-Henri Lartigue and Cartier-Bresson. Poster art also became an important art form in Paris in the late 19th century with the work of Henri de Toulouse-Lautrec, Jules Chéret, Eugène Grasset, Adolphe Willette, Pierre Bonnard, Georges de Feure, Henri-Gabriel Ibels, Gavarn and Alphonse Mucha.

**Question 0**

What year was the first permanent photograph made?

**Question 1**

Who invented the first permanent photograph?

**Question 2**

What was Eugene Atget known for as a photographer?

**Question 3**

Who knew about night photography?

**Question 4**

When did poster art become an important art form?

**Text number 56**

The Louvre was the world's most visited art museum in 2014, with 9.3 million visitors. Its treasures include the Mona Lisa (La Joconde) and the Venus de Milo statue. The Centre Georges Pompidou, the second most visited art museum in Paris, also known as the Beaubourg, with its towering service-tube exterior, houses the Musée National d'Art Moderne. Located in the former Orsay train station, the Musée d'Orsay was the third most visited museum in the city in 2014; it showcases 19th century French art, including major collections of Impressionist and Post-Impressionist works. The original building - the railway station - was built for the 1900 World Exhibition. The Musée du quai Branly was the fourth most visited national museum in Paris in 2014; it exhibits works of art from Africa, Asia, Oceania and the Americas. The Musée national du Moyen Âge, or Cluny Museum, displays medieval art, including the famous tapestry series The Woman and the Unicorn. The Musée national des arts asiatiques, or Guimet, has one of the largest collections of Asian art in Europe. There are also important museums dedicated to individual artists, such as the Picasso Museum, the Rodin Museum and the Musée national Eugène Delacroix.

**Question 0**

What was the most visited art museum in Paris in 2014?

**Question 1**

Where is the Mona Lisa located?

**Question 2**

What is the second most popular art museum in Paris?

**Question 3**

Which museum is famous for its exhibition of 19th century French art?

**Question 4**

What is the Musee national des arts asiatiques famous for?

**Text number 57**

Paris is home to one of Europe's largest science museums, the Cité des Sciences et de l'Industrie in La Villette. The National Museum of Natural History, on the left bank, is famous for its dinosaur discoveries, mineral collections and its Evolution Gallery. French military history from the Middle Ages to the Second World War is vividly illustrated at the Musée de l'Armée in Les Invalides, near Napoleon's tomb. In addition to the national museums run by the French Ministry of Culture, the city of Paris has 14 museums, including the Carnavalet Museum of Paris History, the Musée d'Art Moderne de la Ville de Paris, the Palais de Tokyo, the Victor Hugo House, the Balzac House and the Paris Catacombs. There are also important private museums in Paris; the Louis Vuitton Foundation Museum of Contemporary Art, designed by architect Frank Gehry, opened in October 2014 in the Bois de Boulogne.

**Question 0**

Which museum is famous for its dinosaur discoveries?

**Question 1**

When did the Louis Vuitton Foundation Museum of Contemporary Art open?

**Question 2**

Which famous landmark is Mysee de l'Armee lat Les Invalides located closer to?

**Question 3**

How many museums does the city of Paris have?

**Text number 58**

The largest opera houses in Paris are the 19th-century Opéra Garnier (the historic Paris Opera House) and the modern Opéra Bastille; the former presents more classical ballets and operas, while the latter mixes classical and modern repertoire. In the mid-19th century, there were three other active and competing opera houses: Opéra-Comique (which still exists), Théâtre-Italien and Théâtre Lyrique (which in modern times changed its profile and name to Théâtre de la Ville). The Philharmonie de Paris, Paris' modern symphony concert hall, opened in January 2015. Another musical landmark is the Théâtre des Champs-Élysées, where the first performances of Diaghilev's Ballets Russes took place in 1913.

**Question 0**

When was the Philharmonie de Paris opened?

**Question 1**

What are the two biggest opera houses in Paris?

**Question 2**

What does Opera Garnier specialise in?

**Question 3**

What year were the first performances of Diagheli Ballet Russes?

**Question 4**

Where were the first performances of Diagheliv Ballets Russes held?

**Text number 59**

Theatre has traditionally played a major role in Parisian culture, and many of its most popular actors are now also stars of French television. The oldest and most famous theatre in Paris is the Comédie-Française, founded in 1680. It is run by the French government and performs mainly French classics in the Salle Richelieu at 2 rue de Richelieu in the Palais-Royal, next to the Louvre. Other famous theatres include the Odéon-Théâtre de l'Europe, next to the Luxembourg Gardens, which is also a state institution and a theatre landmark, the Théâtre Mogador and the Théâtre de la Gaîté-Montparnasse.

**Question 0**

When was the oldest theatre in Paris founded?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the oldest theatre in Paris?

**Question 2**

Who runs the oldest theatre in Paris today?

**Question 3**

Which famous museum is next to the Comedie-Francaise?

**Text number 60**

The music hall and cabaret are famous Parisian institutions. The Moulin Rouge opened in 1889. It was highly visible because of the large red windmill imitation on its roof, and became the birthplace of the dance known as the French cancan. It helped make famous the singers Mistinguett and Édith Piaf and the painter Toulouse-Lautrec, who made posters for the place. In 1911, the Paris Olympia ballroom invented the grand staircase to consolidate its performances, competing with its great rival Folies Bergère. In the 1920s, its stars included the American singer and dancer Josephine Baker. The Casino de Paris presented many famous French singers, including Mistinguett, Maurice Chevalier and Tino Rossi. Other famous Parisian music halls include Le Lido on the Champs-Élysées, which opened in 1946, and the Crazy Horse Saloon, which featured striptease, dance and magic and opened in 1951. Olympia Paris has hosted Edith Piaf, Marlene Dietrich, Miles Davis, Judy Garland, the Grateful Dead and many others. Paris now has half a dozen music halls, mostly visited by visitors to the city.

**Question 0**

What year did the Moulin Rouge open?

**Question 1**

Which dance was created at the Moulin Rouge?

**Question 2**

What year did Crazy Horse Saloon open?

**Question 3**

Where did the Grateful Dead play?

**Text number 61**

The first book printed in France, Gasparinus de Bergamo's (Gasparino da Barzizza) Epistolae ("Letters"), was published in Paris in 1470 by a press founded by Johann Heynlin. Since then, Paris has been the centre of the French publishing industry, home to some of the world's most famous writers and poets and the setting for many of the classics of French literature. Almost all books published in Paris in the Middle Ages were in Latin rather than French. Paris became the recognised capital of French literature only in the 17th century, when writers such as Boileau, Corneille, La Fontaine, Molière and Racine came not only from the provinces, but also from many other countries, and when the Académie française was founded. In the 17th century, Parisian literary life revolved around cafés and salons, dominated by Voltaire, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Pierre de Marivaux and Beaumarchais.

**Question 0**

What was the name of the first book printed in France?

**Question 1**

Who wrote the Epistle?

**Question 2**

When was the Epistolae published?

**Question 3**

In which language were most books printed in the Middle Ages?

**Text number 62**

In the 19th century, Paris was home to and the subject of some of France's greatest writers, including Charles Baudelaire, Stéphane Mallarmé, Mérimée, Alfred de Musset, Marcel Proust, Émile Zola, Alexandre Dumas, Gustave Flaubert, Guy de Maupassant and Honoré de Balzac. Victor Hugo's Hunchback of Notre Dame inspired the restoration of its stage, Notre-Dame in Paris. Another of Victor Hugo's works, Les Misérables, written while he was in exile outside France during the Second Empire, describes the social change and political turmoil in Paris in the early 1830s. One of the most popular French writers, Jules Verne, worked at the Theatre Lyrique and the Paris Bourse while doing research for his stories at the National Library.

**Question 0**

What book inspired you to renovate Notre Dame?

**Question 1**

Who wrote the hunchback of Notre Dame?

**Question 2**

During which period was Victor Hugo expelled from France?

**Question 3**

Where did Jules Verne work during the day?

**Question 4**

Where did Jules Verne research his stories?

**Text number 63**

In the 20th century, the Parisian literary community was dominated by Colette, André Gide, François Mauriac, André Malraux, Albert Camus and, after the Second World War, Simone de Beauvoir and Jean-Paul Sartre. Between the wars, Paris was home to many important expatriate writers, including Ernest Hemingway, Samuel Beckett and, in the 1970s, Milan Kundera. Patrick Modian, winner of the 2014 Nobel Prize for Literature, who lives in Paris, based much of his literary output on the city during the Second World War and the 1960s and 1970s.

**Question 0**

Who won the 2014 Nobel Prize for Literature?

**Question 1**

In which century did Collete, André Gide and François Mauriac dominate literature?

**Question 2**

In which city does Patrick Modiano live?

**Question 3**

During which war did Modiano base most of his works?

**Text number 64**

Paris is a city of books and bookshops. In the 1970s, 80% of French-language publishing houses were located in Paris, almost all in the 5th, 6th and 7th arrondissements of the Left Bank. Since then, some publishing houses have moved to cheaper areas because of high prices. Paris is also a city of small bookshops: in the 5th arrondissement alone there are around 150 bookshops, and there are 250 bookshops along the Seine. French law protects small Parisian bookshops from competition from discount booksellers; books, including e-books, cannot be sold at a discounted price of more than 5% below the publisher's cover price.

**Question 0**

What percentage of French publishing houses were in Paris in the 1970s?

**Question 1**

How many bookshops are there in the 5th district?

**Question 2**

How many bookstalls are located along the Seine?

**Question 3**

What is the maximum discount rate for a publisher's book?

**Text number 65**

At the end of the 12th century, a polyphonic school was founded at Notre-Dame. A group of Parisian aristocrats known as the Trouvères became famous for their poetry and songs. The troubadours were also popular. During the reign of François I, the lute became popular at the French court and a national music press was set up. During the Renaissance, the French Bolero kings 'practised masquerades, ballet, allegorical dances, concerts, opera and comedy'. Composers of the Baroque era include Jean-Baptiste Lully, Jean-Philippe Rameau and François Couperin and were popular. The Conservatoire de Musique de Paris was founded in 1795. By 1870, Paris had become an important centre for symphonic, ballet and opera music. Composers of the Romantic era (in Paris) include Hector Berlioz (La Symphonie fantastique), Charles Gounod (Faust), Camille Saint-Saëns (Simson et Delilah), Léo Delibes (Lakmé) and Jules Massenet (Thaïs). Georges Bizet's Carmen premiered on 3 March 1875. Since then, Carmen has become one of the most popular and frequently performed operas in the classical canon, and impressionist composers Claude Debussy (La Mer) and Maurice Ravel (Boléro) have also made significant contributions to piano (Clair de lune, Miroirs), orchestra, opera (Palléas et Mélisande) and other forms of music. Foreign-born composers have lived in Paris and made significant contributions both through their works and their influence. They include Frédéric Chopin (Poland), Franz Liszt (Hungary), Jacques Offenbach (Germany) and Igor Stravinsky (Russia).

**Question 0**

In which century was the Notre Dame Polytechnic founded?

**Question 1**

What year was the Conservatoire de Musique de Paris founded?

**Question 2**

During whose reign did the lute become popular?

**Question 3**

Who wrote Carmen?

**Question 4**

Where was Frederic Chopin from?

**Text number 66**

Bal-musette is a style of French music and dance that became popular in Paris in the 1870s and 1880s. By 1880, there were about 150 ballrooms in working-class neighbourhoods in Paris. In the city's cafés and bars, bourrée dancing was performed to the accompaniment of cabrette (a wind whistle, locally called a 'musette') and often vielle à roue (hurdy-gurdy). Parisian and Italian musicians who played the accordion adopted the style and established themselves in the bars of Auvergne, especially in the 19th arrondissement, and the romantic sounds of the accordion have since become one of the city's musical symbols. Paris became a major jazz centre and continues to attract jazz musicians from all over the world to its clubs and cafés.

**Question 0**

Which French musical style became popular in the 1870s and 1880s?

**Question 1**

How many ballrooms were there in Paris in 1880?

**Question 2**

What is cabrette called locally?

**Question 3**

In what kind of bars was the accordion often played?

**Text number 67**

Immediately after the war, the Saint-Germain-des-Pres district and the nearby Saint-Michel district were home to many small jazz clubs, mostly located in basements due to lack of space, including the Caveau des Lorientais, Club Saint-Germain, Rose Rouge, Vieux-Colombier and the most famous, Le Tabou. They introduced Parisians to the music of Claude Luter, Boris Vian, Sydney Bechet Mezz Mezzrow and Henri Salvador. Most clubs closed by the early 1960s as musical tastes shifted to rock and roll.

**Question 0**

When did most jazz clubs close?

**Question 1**

Why were jazz clubs closed?

**Question 2**

Where were most jazz clubs located?

**Text number 68**

The film industry was born in Paris when Auguste and Louis Lumière showed the first film to a paying audience at the Grand Café on 28 December 1895. Many Parisian concert and ballrooms were converted into cinemas as the medium became popular from the 1930s onwards. Later, most of the larger cinemas were divided into several smaller halls. The largest cinema in Paris today is Le Grand Rex, with 2 700 seats  
Large multiplex cinemas have been built since the 1990s. The UGC Ciné Cité Les Halles with 27 screens, the MK2 Bibliothèque with 20 screens and the UGC Ciné Cité Bercy with 18 screens are the largest.

**Question 0**

Where was the first film for the paying public shown in Paris?

**Question 1**

On what day was the first film shown to the paying public in Paris?

**Question 2**

In which decade did cinemas become popular?

**Question 3**

What is the biggest cinema hall in Paris today?

**Text number 69**

Parisians tend to share the same cinema-going trends as many of the world's major cities, with cinemas dominated by Hollywood-produced forms of cinema entertainment. French cinema comes a close second, with notable directors (réalisateurs) such as Claude Lelouch, Jean-Luc Godard and Luc Besson, and slapstick/popular genre such as director Claude Zidi. European and Asian films are also widely shown and appreciated. On 2 February 2000, Philippe Binant staged Europe's first digital cinema screening in Paris, using DLP CINEMA technology developed by Texas Instruments.

**Question 0**

Who made the first digital film projection in Europe?

**Question 1**

Who developed the technology for digital film projection?

**Question 2**

What are the most popular films in Paris?

**Question 3**

When was the first digital cinema screening in Europe?

**Text number 70**

Since the late 1700s, Paris has been famous for its restaurants and haute cuisine, carefully prepared and artfully presented. In 1786, Antoine Beauvilliers opened La Taverne Anglaise, a luxurious restaurant in the arched room of the Palais-Royal, with an elegant dining room, an extensive menu, linen tablecloths, an extensive wine list and well-trained waiters. Le Grand Véfour restaurant in the Palais-Royal dates from the same period. Famous 19th century Parisian restaurants such as Café de Paris, Rocher de Cancale, Café Anglais, Maison Dorée and Café Riche were mostly located near the theatres on the Boulevard des Italiens; they were immortalised in the novels of Balzac and Émile Zola. Several of Paris' most famous restaurants of today appeared during the Belle Époque, such as Maxim's on Rue Royale, Ledoye in the Champs-Élysées gardens and Tour d'Argent on Quai de la Tournelle.

**Question 0**

What is the model for luxury restaurants in Paris?

**Question 1**

When did La Taverne Angaise open?

**Question 2**

In which century did Cafe Anglais, Cafe de Paris and Rocher de Cancale open?

**Question 3**

How close were most of the restaurants opened?

**Text number 71**

Today, thanks to its cosmopolitan population, Paris is home to all the regional cuisines of France and almost all the national cuisines of the world, with more than 9 000 restaurants. The Michelin Guide has been the standard guide to French restaurants since 1900, and its highest award, three stars, is given to the best French restaurants. In 2015, nine of France's 29 Michelin three-star restaurants were located in Paris. These include restaurants serving classic French cuisine, such as L'Ambroisie in Place des Vosges, as well as restaurants serving non-traditional menus, such as L'Astrance, which combines French and Asian cuisine. Several of France's most famous chefs, such as Pierre Gagnaire, Alain Ducasse, Yannick Alléno and Alain Passard, have three-star restaurants in Paris.

**Question 0**

How many restaurants are there in Paris today?

**Question 1**

When was the Michelin Guide created?

**Question 2**

How many three-star Michelin restaurants were there in Paris in 2015?

**Question 3**

How many three-star Michelin restaurants were there in France in 2015?

**Text number 72**

In addition to the classic restaurants, Paris has many other traditional places to eat. The café arrived in Paris in the 17th century, when the drink was first imported from Turkey, and in the 1700s Parisian cafés were the centres of the city's political and cultural life. The Cafe Procope on the left bank dates from this period. The cafés on the Left Bank, notably the Café de la Rotonde and Le Dôme Café in Montparnasse and the Café de Flore and Les Deux Magots on Boulevard Saint Germain, all still in operation, were important meeting places for painters, writers and philosophers in the 20th century. A bistro is a type of eatery, roughly defined as a neighbourhood restaurant, with modest decor and prices, regular customers and a friendly atmosphere. The bistro was named in 1814 by the Russian soldiers who occupied the town, who wanted to get their meals quickly so they could get back to their camp. Real bistros are increasingly rare in Paris, due to rising costs, competition from cheaper ethnic restaurants and the different eating habits of Parisians. The brasserie was originally a tavern next to a brewery, serving beer and food at all hours. From the 1867 Paris World Fair onwards, it became a popular restaurant where beer and other drinks were served by young women dressed in the national costume associated with drinking, particularly the German beer costume. Today, brasseries, like cafés, serve food and drinks around the clock.

**Question 0**

When did the first café open in Paris?

**Question 1**

What is the oldest café in Paris?

**Question 2**

What is the definition of a neighbourhood restaurant?

**Question 3**

When did the brasserie become popular?

**Text number 73**

Paris has been the international capital of high fashion since the 19th century, particularly in the field of haute couture, or handmade clothing for private clients. Paris is home to some of the world's biggest fashion houses, such as Dior and Chanel, and many famous fashion designers, including Karl Lagerfeld, Jean-Paul Gaultier, Christophe Josse and Christian Lacroix. Paris Fashion Week, which takes place in January and July at the Carrousel du Louvre and other venues in the city, is one of the four most important events on the international fashion calendar, alongside Milan, London and New York. Paris is also home to the world's largest cosmetics company, L'Oréal, and three of the world's top five luxury fashion accessory manufacturers: Louis Vuitton, Hermés and Cartier.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the clothes ordered for private customers?

**Question 1**

Which city is Dior from?

**Question 2**

In which century did Paris become largely fashionable?

**Question 3**

What is the biggest cosmetics company in the world?

**Text number 74**

The Paris region is home to the largest number of grandes écoles in France - 55 specialised higher education centres that are not part of the public university system. Prestigious public universities are generally considered grandes établissements. Most of the grandes écoles were relocated to the Paris suburbs in the 1960s and 1970s to new campuses much larger than the old campuses in the crowded city of Paris, although the École Normale Supérieure has remained on rue d'Ulm in the 5th arrondissement. There are a large number of engineering schools there, run by the Paris Institute of Technology, which includes several higher education institutions such as École Polytechnique, École des Mines, AgroParisTech, Télécom Paris, Arts et Métiers and École des Ponts et Chaussées. There are also many business schools, such as HEC, INSEAD, ESSEC and ESCP Europe. A school of management sciences such as the ENA has moved to Strasbourg, the political science school Sciences-Po is still located in the 7th arrondissement of Paris and the most prestigious university of economics and finance Paris-Dauphine in the 16th arrondissement of Paris. The CELSA section of the School of Journalism of the University of Paris-Sorbonne in Paris is located in Neuilly-sur-Seine. Paris is also home to several of France's most famous high schools, including Lycée Louis-le-Grand, Lycée Henri-IV, Lycée Janson de Sailly and Lycée Condorcet. The National Institute for Sports and Physical Education, located in the 12th arrondissement, is both a sports education institute and a high-level training centre for top athletes.

**Question 0**

How many university centres are there in Paris?

**Question 1**

During which period were most of the grandes écoles relocated?

**Question 2**

Where is ENA located?

**Question 3**

Where is CESLA located?

**Text number 75**

The Bibliothèque nationale de France (BnF) runs the public libraries of Paris, including the François Mitterrand Library, the Richelieu Library, the Louvois Library, the Opéra Library and the Arsenal Library. There are three public libraries in the Fourth arrondissement. The Forney Library in Le Marais is dedicated to decorative arts, the Arsenal Library is located in a former military building and houses a large collection of French literature, and the Bibliothèque historique de la ville de Paris, also in Le Marais, houses the Paris Historical Institute. The Sainte-Geneviève Library is located in the 5th arrondissement; designed by Henri Labrouste and built in the mid-19th century, it houses a department of rare books and manuscripts. The Bibliothèque Mazarine, in the 6th arrondissement, is the oldest public library in France. The Médiathèque Musicale Mahler, in the 8th arrondissement, opened in 1986 and houses music collections. The François Mitterrand Library (nicknamed the Très Grande Bibliothèque) in the 13th arrondissement was completed in 1994, designed by Dominique Perrault, and has four glass towers.

**Question 0**

Who runs the public libraries in Paris?

**Question 1**

What is the Forney Library dedicated to?

**Question 2**

When was the Sainte Genevieve library built?

**Question 3**

What is the oldest public library in France?

**Question 4**

Which library has four glass towers?

**Text number 76**

Paris has several scientific libraries and archives. The Sorbonne Library in the 5th arrondissement is the largest university library in Paris. In addition to the Sorbonne, there are branches in Malesherbes, Clignancourt-Championnet, Michelet-Institut d'Art et d'Archéologie, Serpente-Maison de la Recherche and Institut des Etudes Ibériques. Other academic libraries include the Interuniversity Pharmaceutical Library, the Leonardo da Vinci University Library, the Paris School of Mines Library and the René Descartes University Library.

**Question 0**

What is the largest university library?

**Question 1**

Where are the other three branches of the Sorbonne Library located other than in France?

**Question 2**

In which part of Paris is the Sorbonne library located?

**Text number 77**

Like the rest of France, Paris has been predominantly Roman Catholic since the Middle Ages, but today there are few religious believers. The majority of Parisians are still nominally Roman Catholic. According to 2011 statistics, there are 106 parishes and curates in the city, as well as separate parishes for Spanish, Polish and Portuguese Catholics. There are also 10 Eastern Orthodox parishes and bishops of the Armenian and Ukrainian Orthodox Churches. There are also eighty male and 140 female religious congregations and 110 Catholic schools with 75 000 pupils.

**Question 0**

What is the most predominant religion in France?

**Question 1**

How many churches and curators were there in 2011?

**Question 2**

How many Catholic schools are there in Paris?

**Question 3**

How many pupils attend Catholic schools?

**Text number 78**

Almost all Protestant denominations are represented in Paris, and there are 74 evangelical churches of different denominations, including 21 congregations of the United Protestant Church of France and two congregations of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints. There are several important churches for the English-speaking community: the Paris American Church, founded in 1814, was the first American church outside the United States; the present church was completed in 1931. Saint George's Anglican Church in the 16th arrondissement is the city's main Anglican church.

**Question 0**

How many evangelical churches are there in Paris?

**Question 1**

How many LDS churches are there in Paris?

**Question 2**

When was the American Church in Paris founded?

**Question 3**

What is the main Anglican church in Paris?

**Text number 79**

In the Middle Ages, Paris was a centre of Jewish learning, with famous Talmudic scholars such as Yechiel of Paris, who took part in the Parisian debate between Christians and Jewish intellectuals. The Jewish community in Paris was subjected to persecution, alternating expulsions and returns, until France became the first country in Europe to liberate its Jewish population during the French Revolution. Although 75% of France's Jewish population survived the Holocaust during the Second World War, half of the city's Jewish population perished in Nazi concentration camps, and some fled abroad. A large migration of Sephardic Jews from North Africa settled in Paris in the 1960s and today they represent the majority of the Jewish community in Paris. There are currently 83 synagogues in the city; the Agoudas Hakehilos synagogue in the Marais quarter, built by architect Hector Guimard in 1913, is a Paris landmark.

**Question 0**

What percentage of France's Jewish population survived the Holocaust?

**Question 1**

When did large numbers of Sephardic Jews settle in Paris?

**Question 2**

Who built the Agodudas Hakehilos synagogue in the Marais quarter?

**Question 3**

When was the Agoudas Hakehilos synagogue in the Marais quarter built?

**Text number 80**

The Pagode de Vincennes Buddhist temple near Lake Daumesnil in the Bois de Vincennes park is a former Cameroon pavilion from the 1931 Paris Colonial Exhibition. It houses several different schools of Buddhism and has no single leader. It protects the largest Buddha statue in Europe, over nine metres high. Two other small temples are located in an Asian community in the 13th district. The Hindu temple dedicated to Ganesh on Rue Pajol in the 18th arrondissement was opened in 1985.

**Question 0**

What is the former Cameroon Pavilion?

**Question 1**

Where is the largest Buddha statue in Europe?

**Question 2**

How tall is the largest Buddha statue in Europe?

**Question 3**

When was the Rue Pajol Hindu temple opened?

**Text number 81**

The most popular sports clubs in Paris are the football club Paris Saint-Germain F.C. and the rugby union club Stade Français. Built for the 1998 football World Cup, the 80 000-seat Stade de France is located north of Paris in the commune of Saint-Denis. It hosts football, rugby union and athletics. It hosts the French national football team's friendlies and qualifying matches for major tournaments, hosts the French rugby team's annual home matches in the Six Nations Championship and hosts several important matches for the Stade Français rugby team. In addition to Paris Saint-Germain FC, the city is home to several other amateur football clubs: Paris FC, Red Star, RCF Paris and Stade Français Paris.

**Question 0**

How many seats are there in France?

**Question 1**

What was the French state built for?

**Question 2**

What is the most popular football club in Paris?

**Question 3**

What is the Paris Rugby Club?

**Text number 82**

Paris is a major rail, road and air hub. The region's transit network is controlled by the Syndicat de transports de Île-de-France (STIF), formerly the Syndicat des transports parisiens (STP). It coordinates public transport and concludes contracts with RATP (which operates 347 bus lines, the metro, eight tram lines and parts of the RER), SNCF (which operates suburban lines, one tram line and other parts of the RER) and Optile, a consortium of private operators which manages 1176 bus lines.

**Question 0**

Who controls the Paris transit network?

**Question 1**

What was the previous name of STIF?

**Question 2**

How many bus routes does the STIF control?

**Question 3**

How many bus routes does the Optile Consortium manage?

**Text number 83**

The Paris region is also served by a nine-line light rail network, the tram: Line T1 runs from Asnières-Gennevilliers to Noisy-le-Seci, line T2 runs from Pont de Bezons to Porte de Versailles, line T3a runs from Pont du Garigliano to Porte de Vincennes, line T3b runs from Porte de Vincennes to Porte de la Chapelle, line T5 runs from Saint-Denis to Garges-Sarcelles, line T6 from Châtillon to Velizy, line T7 from Villejuif to Athis-Mons, line T8 from Saint-Denis to Épinay-sur-Seine and Villetaneuse, all operated by Régie Autonome des Transports Parisiens, and line T4 from Bondy to RER:to Aulnay-sous-Bois, operated by the national railway company SNCF. Five new light rail lines are currently at various stages of development.

**Question 0**

Where does the T1 bus leave from?

**Question 1**

Where does line T2 run?

**Question 2**

How many lines are there on the rail network?

**Question 3**

where does T5 run?

**Question 4**

Who uses these lines?

**Text number 84**

Paris is a major international air transport hub, with the fourth busiest airport system in the world. The city is served by three commercial international airports, Paris-Charles de Gaulle, Paris-Orly and Beauvais-Tillé, with a combined passenger volume of 96.5 million in 2014. The city also has one general aviation airport, Paris-Le Bourget, historically the oldest airport in Paris and the closest to the city centre, which is now used only for private business flights and air shows.

**Question 0**

Where is the world's fourth busiest international air transport hub?

**Question 1**

How many passengers were in Paris in 2014?

**Question 2**

What is the oldest airport in Paris?

**Text number 85**

Located in the southern suburbs of Paris, Orly Airport replaced Le Bourget as Paris' main airport from the 1950s to the 1980s. Charles de Gaulle airport, on the edge of the northern suburbs of Paris, opened to commercial traffic in 1974 and became the busiest airport in Paris in 1993. Today it is the fourth busiest airport in the world in terms of international traffic and the hub of the country's flag carrier, Air France. Beauvais-Tillé airport, located 69 kilometres north of central Paris, is used by charter airlines and low-cost carriers such as Ryanair.

**Question 0**

Which airport does Ryanair use?

**Question 1**

Where is Air France hub?

**Question 2**

What is the busiest airport in Paris?

**Question 3**

Where is Orly Airport located?

**Text number 86**

In its early history, Paris only had water from the Seine and Bièvre rivers. From 1809, the Canal de l'Ourcq provided Paris with water from less polluted rivers to the north-east of the capital. From 1857, Eugène Belgrand, a civil engineer under Napoleon III, supervised the construction of several new aqueducts that brought water from different parts of the city to several reservoirs built on the highest points of the capital. From then on, the new cistern system became the main source of drinking water in Paris, and the remnants of the old system, pumped into the lower levels of the same cisterns, were henceforth used to clean the streets of Paris. This system remains an important part of the modern water supply network in Paris. Today, Paris has more than 2 400 km of underground passages for the disposal of liquid waste in Paris.

**Question 0**

When did the Canal de l'Ourcq start supplying water to Paris?

**Question 1**

Who was Eugene Belgrand under?

**Question 2**

How many kilometres of underground corridors are dedicated to the removal of Parisian waste water?

**Question 3**

Who created the Paris tank system?

**Text number 87**

Today, Paris has more than 421 municipal parks and gardens, covering more than 3 000 hectares and containing more than 250 000 trees. Two of the oldest and most famous gardens in Paris are the Tuileries Garden, created in 1564 for the Tuileries Palace and remodelled by André Le Nôtre between 1664 and 1672, and the Luxembourg Garden, created for the Luxembourg Palace built for Marie de' Medici in 1612 and now home to the French Senate. The Jardin des Plantes was the first botanical garden in Paris, created in 1626 by Louis XIII's physician Guy de La Brosse for the cultivation of medicinal plants.

**Question 0**

How many municipal parks and gardens are there in Paris?

**Question 1**

When was the Tuileries Garden founded?

**Question 2**

Who restored the Tuileries garden in 1664?

**Question 3**

Who was the Luxembourg Palace built for?

**Question 4**

Who created the Jarden des Plantes?

**Text number 88**

Between 1853 and 1870, Emperor Napoleon III and Jean-Charles Alphand, the city's first director of parks and gardens, created the Bois de Boulogne, Bois de Vincennes, Parc Montsouris and Parc des Buttes-Chaumont, which were located in four cardinal points around the city, as well as many smaller parks, squares and gardens in the Paris districts. Since 1977, the city has created 166 new parks, the most important of which are Parc de la Villette (1987), Parc André Citroën (1992) and Parc de Bercy (1997). One of the newest parks, the Promenade des Berges de la Seine (2013), built on the former highway on the left bank of the Seine between Pont de l'Alma and the Musée d'Orsay, features floating gardens with views of the city's landmarks.

**Question 0**

Who was the first director of parks and gardens in Paris?

**Question 1**

How many new parks have been created in Paris since 1977?

**Question 2**

When was Villette Park established?

**Question 3**

Which park has floating gardens?

**Question 4**

When was the Promenade des Berges de la Seine built?

**Text number 89**

In the Roman era in Paris, its main cemetery was located on the outskirts of the left bank, but this changed with the rise of Catholicism, when almost every church in the city centre had its own cemetery for its parishes. With the growth of Paris, many of these cemeteries, especially the city's largest, les Innocents, filled to capacity, creating rather unhygienic conditions in the capital. When burials within the city were banned from 1786 onwards, the contents of all the Paris parish cemeteries were moved to a renovated section of the Paris quarries outside the Porte d'Enfer, now Place Denfert-Rochereau in the 14th arrondissement. The bones were moved from the Cimetière des Innocents cemetery to the catacombs between 1786 and 1814; part of the tunnel network and the remains can be visited today on an official tour of the catacombs.

**Question 0**

What is the largest cemetery in Paris?

**Question 1**

When were intra-urban burials banned?

**Question 2**

In which years were the bones transferred from the Cimetiere des Innocents to the catacombs?

**Question 3**

Where can you see the network of tunnels leading to the catacombs?

**Text number 90**

After the initial establishment of several smaller suburban cemeteries, Napoleon Bonaparte's prefect Nicholas Frochot offered a more definitive solution by establishing three massive Parisian cemeteries outside the city limits. Open since 1804, the cemeteries of Père Lachaise, Montmartre, Montparnasse and later Passy became once again internal to the city when, in 1860, Paris annexed all the neighbouring municipalities within a much larger suburban ring of fortifications. New suburban cemeteries were created in the early 20th century: the largest of these are the Cimetière parisien de Saint-Ouen, the Cimetière parisien de Pantin (also known as the Cimetière parisien de Pantin-Bobigny, the Cimetière parisien d'Ivry and the Cimetière parisien de Bagneux). Some of the world's most famous people are buried in Paris cemeteries.

**Question 0**

Who was Prefect Nicholas Frochot under?

**Question 1**

When were the three new cemeteries opened?

**Question 2**

Which is the largest of the cemeteries established in the 20th century?

**Text number 91**

Health care and emergency services in the city and suburbs of Paris are provided by Assistance publique - Hôpitaux de Paris (AP-HP), a public hospital system employing over 90 000 people (including doctors, support staff and administrative staff) in 44 hospitals. It is the largest hospital system in Europe. It provides health care, teaching, research, prevention, education and emergency services in 52 medical fields. More than 5.8 million patients visit the hospitals each year.

**Question 0**

Who provides emergency care in Paris?

**Question 1**

How many employees does AP-HP have?

**Question 2**

How many hospitals are there in Paris?

**Question 3**

How many patients visit hospitals each year?

**Text number 92**

In and around Paris, numerous newspapers, magazines and publications are published, including Le Monde, Le Figaro, Libération, Le Nouvel Observateur, Le Canard enchaîné, La Croix, Pariscope, Le Parisien (in Saint-Ouen), Les Échos, Paris Match (Neuilly-sur-Seine), Réseaux & Télécoms, Reuters France and L'Officiel des Spectacles. Le Monde and Le Figaro, two of France's most prestigious newspapers, are the hub of the Paris publishing industry. Agence France-Presse is the oldest news agency in France and one of the oldest continuously operating news agencies in the world. AFP is headquartered in Paris, as it has been since 1835. France 24 is a news channel owned and operated by the French government and based in Paris. The other news agency is France Diplomatie, owned and operated by the Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs, which deals exclusively with diplomatic news and events.

**Question 0**

What are the two most respected newspapers in France?

**Question 1**

What is the oldest operating news agency in France?

**Question 2**

When did Agence open in Paris?

**Question 3**

What is a French government-run television station?

**Text number 93**

France's most watched TV channel TF1 is located near Boulogne-Billancourt; France 2, France 3, Canal+, France 5, M6 (Neuilly-sur-Seine), Arte, D8, W9, NT1, NRJ 12, La Chaîne parlementaire, France 4, BFM TV and Gulli are other stations located in and around the capital. Radio France, the French public broadcaster, and its various channels are located in the 16th arrondissement of Paris. Radio France Internationale, another public broadcaster, is also located in the city. Paris is also home to the headquarters of La Poste, the French national postal service.

**Question 0**

What is the most watched TV network in France?

**Question 1**

Where is TF1 located?

**Question 2**

What is the French public broadcaster?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the French national postal service?

**Document number 310**

**Text number 0**

Apollo (Attic, Ionic and Homeric Greek: Ἀπόλλων, Apollōn (GEN Ἀπόλλωνος); Dorian: Ἀπέλλων, Apellōn; Archaic Cypriot: Ἀπείλων, Apeilōn; Aeol: Ἄπλουν, Aploun; Lat. Apollō) is one of the most important and complex Olympic deities in classical Greek and Roman religion and Greek and Roman mythology. Apollo was variously regarded as the god of music, truth and prophecy, healing, sun and light, plagues, poetry, and was the ideal of the kouros (beardless, athletic youth). Apollo is the son of Zeus and Leto, and has a twin sister, the chaste huntress Artemis. Apollo is known in Greek-inspired Etruscan mythology as Apulu.

**Question 0**

What's the word for a beardless, athletic young man?

**Question 1**

What is one of the most important and complex Olympic gods in classical Greek and Roman religion?

**Question 2**

Who are Apollo's parents?

**Question 3**

Who is Apollo's twin sister?

**Question 4**

What is Apollo known as in Etruscan mythology?

**Text number 1**

Protector of Delphi (Apollo of Pythia) Apollo was the Oracle god - the prophetic deity of the Oracle of Delphi. Apollo is associated with medicine and healing, either through the god himself or through his son Asclepius, but Apollo was also seen as a god who could bring disease and deadly plagues. Apollo was associated with the god's protectors, and was also associated with the management of settlers and the protection of herds and flocks. As leader of the Musegetes (Apollo's Musegetes) and leader of their choir, Apollo was the patron of music and poetry. Hermes created the lyre for him, and the musical instrument became a common attribute of Apollo. Hymns sung to Apollo were called paeans.

**Question 0**

Who was described as the prophetic deity of the Delphic Oracle?

**Question 1**

What is the name of Apollo's son?

**Question 2**

Who created the lyric for Apollo?

**Question 3**

What was the name of the hymns sung to Apollo?

**Text number 2**

In Hellenistic times, especially in the 3rd century BC, under the name Apollo Helios, he was identified by the Greeks with Helios, the Titan sun goddess, and his sister Artemis was equated with Selene, the Titan moon goddess. In Latin texts, on the other hand, Joseph Fontenrose reported that he could find no association between Apollo and Sol among the Augustinian poets of the 1st century, not even in the Aeneas and Latinus spells in Aeneid XII (161-215). Apollo and Helios/Sol remained separate beings in literary and mythological texts until the 3rd century AD.

**Question 0**

Who was the Titan moon goddess?

**Question 1**

By what name did the Greeks identify Apollo Helios in Hellenistic times?

**Question 2**

What was the name of Apollo's sister?

**Text number 3**

The etymology of the name is uncertain. The spelling Ἀπόλλων (pronounced [a.pól.lɔːn] in classical Attic) had almost supplanted all other forms by the beginning of the Common Era, but the Doric form Apellon (Ἀπέλλων) is more archaic, derived from the earlier \*Ἀπέλjων. It is probably related to the Dorian kk Apellaios (Ἀπελλαῖος) and the offerings Apellaia (ἀπελλαῖα), which were given at the initiation of young men during the family feast Apellai (ἀπέλλαι). According to some scholars, the words derive from the Doric word apella (ἀπέλλα), which originally meant 'wall', 'animal enclosure' and later 'assembly within the boundaries of a square'. Apella (Ἀπέλλα) is the name of the Spartan assembly, equivalent to ecclesia (ἐκκλησία). R. S. P. Beekes rejected the connection of the theonym with the noun apellai and proposed the pre-Greek proto-form \*Apalyun.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the Sparta Assembly?

**Question 1**

Apellon is derived from which Dorian kk?

**Question 2**

What is on offer at the wedding of young men during the familly festival apellai?

**Question 3**

Which Doric word originally meant a wall or fence for animals?

**Text number 4**

There is ample evidence of a vernacular etymology from ancient writers. Thus, the Greeks most often associated the name Apollo with the Greek verb ἀπόλλυμι (apollymi), "to destroy". In Cratylus, Plato associates the name with ἀπόλυσις (apolysis), 'redemption', ἀπόλουσις (apolousis), 'purification', and ἁπλοῦν ([h]aploun), 'simple', specifically referring to the Thessalian form of the name Ἄπλουν, and finally Ἀειβάλλων (aeiballon), 'always shooting'. Hesychius connects the name Apollo with the Dorian ἀπέλλα (apella), meaning 'assembly', so Apollo would be the god of political life, and he also gives the explanation σηκός (sekos), 'folding', so Apollo would be the god of flocks and herds. In ancient Macedonian, πέλλα (pella) means 'stone', and from this word some toponyms can be derived: Πέλλα (Pella, capital of ancient Macedonia) and Πελλήνη (Pellēnē/Pallene).

**Question 0**

Which Dorian word means a meeting?

**Question 1**

What is the ancient Macedonian word for stone?

**Question 2**

What is the Greek word for "destroy"?

**Text number 5**

Several non-Greek etymologies have been proposed for the name, the Hittite form Apaliunas (dx-ap-pa-li-u-na-aš) is attested in the Manapa-Tarhunta letter, possibly related to the Hurrian (and certainly Etruscan) Aplus, plague god, which in turn is probably derived from the Akkadian Aplu Enlil, meaning simply "son of Enlil", a name given to the god Nergal, who was associated with the Babylonian sun god Shamash. Apollo's role as plague god is made clear by the fact that Apollo Smintheus ('Apollo the mouse') is summoned by the Trojan priest Apollo Kryses to send a plague against the Greeks (the transformation of the plague god into a healer is of course apotropaic, meaning that the plague-causing god must be appeased in order to remove the plague).

**Question 0**

Who is the plague god?

**Question 1**

What is the significance of Akkadia Apllu Enlil?

**Question 2**

What title was given to the god of Nergal?

**Question 3**

Who was the priest of Apollo in Troy?

**Text number 6**

As a sun god and god of light, Apollo was also known by the epithets Aegletes (/əˈɡliːtiːz/ ə-GLEE-teez; Αἰγλήτης, Aiglētēs, from αἴγλη, "sunlight"), Helius (/ˈhiːliəs/ HEE-lee-əs; Ἥλιος, Helios, literally "sun"), Phanaeus (/fəˈniːəs/ fə-NEE-əs; Φαναῖος, Phanaios, literally "light-giving or light-bringing") and Lykeios (/laɪˈsiːəs/ ly-SEE-əs; Λύκειος, Lykeios, Proto-Greek \*λύκη, "light"). The meaning of the epithet 'Lykeus' was later associated with the mother of Apollo, Leto, who was the patron goddess of Lycia (Λυκία) and was identified with the wolf (λύκος), giving her the epithets Lycegenes (/laɪˈsɛdʒəniːz/ ly-SEJ-ə-neez; Λυκηγενής, Lukēgenēs, literally "born of a wolf" or "born of Lycia") and Lycoctonus (/laɪˈkɒktənəs/ ly-KOK-tə-nəs; Λυκοκτόνος, Lykoktonos, from λύκος, "wolf", and κτείνειν, "to kill"). As god of the sun, the Romans called Apollo Soli (/ˈsɒl/ SOL, literally "sun" in Latin).

**Question 0**

Who was the god of light?

**Question 1**

Who was the patron goddess of Lycia?

**Question 2**

What word literally means "born of a wolf"?

**Question 3**

Since Apollo was known as the sun god, what was Apollo's middle name?

**Text number 7**

Apollo was worshipped as Actiacus (/ækˈtaɪ.əkəs/ ak-TY-ə-kəs; Ἄκτιακός, Aktiakos, literally "Aktian"), Delfinios (/dɛlˈfɪniəs/ del-FIN-ee-əs; Δελφίνιος, Delphinios, literally "Delphian") and Pythius (/ˈpɪθiəs/ PITH-ee-əs; Πύθιος, Puthios, from Πυθώ, Pythō, the area around Delphi), after Actium (Ἄκτιον) and Delphi (Δελφοί) respectively, which were his two main places of worship. The aetiology in Homer's hymns associated the epithet 'Delphinius' with dolphins. He was worshipped as Akraephios (/əˈkriːfiəs/ ə-KREE-fee-əs; Ἀκραιφιος,[clarification needed] Akraiphios, literally "Akraephian") or Akraephiaeus (/əˌkriːfiˈiːəs/ ə-KREE-fee-EE-əs; Ἀκραιφιαίος, Akraiphiaios, literally "Akraefian") in the Boeotian city of Akraefia (Ἀκραιφία), which was reportedly founded by his son Akraefios; and Smintheus (/ˈsmɪnθjuːs/ SMIN-thews; Σμινθεύς, Smintheus, "Sminthian" - i.e. "of the city of Sminthos or Sminthe") near the city of Hamaxitus in Troad. The epithet 'Smintheus' is historically confused with σμίνθος, 'mouse', in connection with Apollo's role as god of disease. For this reason he was also known as Parnopius (/pɑːrˈnoʊpiəs/ par-NOH-pee-əs; Παρνόπιος, Parnopios, from πάρνοψ, "grasshopper") and to the Romans as Culicarius (/ˌkjuːlᵻˈkæriəs/ KEW-li-KARR-ee-əs; Latin culicārius, "dwarf").

**Question 0**

The epithet Delphinius is related to which animal?

**Question 1**

Which epithet has historically been confused with the word "mouse"?

**Text number 8**

In the role of Apollo's healer, his names were Acesius (/əˈsiːʒəs/ ə-SEE-zhəs; Ἀκέσιος, Akesios, from ἄκεσις, "healing"), Acestor (/əˈsɛstər/ ə-SES-tər; Ἀκέστωρ, Akestōr, literally "healer"), Paean (/ˈpiːən/ PEE-ən; Παιάν, Paiān, from παίειν, "to touch"),[citation needed] and Iatrus (/aɪˈætrəs/ eye-AT-rəs; Ἰατρός, Iātros, literally "physician"). Acesius was an epithet of Apollo, worshipped in Elis, where he had a temple on the agora. The Romans referred to Apollo in this context as Medicus (/ˈmɛdᵻkəs/ MED-i-kəs; Latin literally 'doctor'). There was a temple dedicated to Apollo Medicus in Rome, probably next to the temple of Bellona.

**Question 0**

What is the literal word latrus?

**Question 1**

Where did Apollo have a temple on the agora?

**Question 2**

Where was the temple dedicated to Apollo Medici?

**Question 3**

What is the literal meaning of "healer"?

**Text number 9**

The patron and founder of Apollo was the epithets Aleksiakos (/əˌlɛksᵻˈkeɪkəs/ ə-LEK-si-KAY-kəs; Ἀλεξίκακος, Aleksiakos, literally "one who fights evil"), Apotropaeus (/əˌpɒtrəˈpiːəs/ ə-POT-rə-PEE-əs; Ἀποτρόπαιος, Apotropaios, from ἀποτρέπειν, "to fight") and Epikurios (/ˌɛpᵻˈkjʊriəs/ EP-i-KEWR-ee-əs; Ἐπικούριος, Epikourios, from ἐπικουρέειν, "to help") and Arkegetes (/ɑːrˈkɛdʒətiːz/ ar-KEJ-ə-teez; Ἀρχηγέτης, Arkhēgetēs, literally "founder"), Clarius (/ˈklæriəs/ KLARR-ee-əs; Κλάριος, Klārios, from Dorian κλάρος, "divided lot") and Genetor (/ˈdʒɛnᵻtər/ JEN-i-tər; Γενέτωρ, Genetōr, literally "ancestor"). To the Romans he was known in this capacity as Averruncus (/ˌævəˈrʌŋkəs/ AV-ər-RUNG-kəs; Latin āverruncare, 'to reject'). He was also called Agyieus (/əˈdʒaɪ.ᵻjuːs/ ə-GWEE-ews; Ἀγυιεύς, Aguīeus, from ἄγυια, "street") for his role in protecting roads and homes; and Nomius (/ˈnoʊmiəs/ NOH-mee-əs; Νόμιος, Nomios, literally "shepherd") and Nymphegetes (/nɪmˈfɛdʒᵻtiːz/ nim-FEJ-i-teez; Nυμφηγέτης, Numphēgetēs, from Nύμφη, "nymfi", and ἡγέτης, "leader") for their role as protectors of shepherds and pastoral life.

**Question 0**

What word literally means "to ward off evil"?

**Question 1**

What in the world literally means "founder"?

**Question 2**

What word literally mens "ancestor"?

**Question 3**

What does the word "reject" mean?

**Text number 10**

Apollo, as god of prophecy and truth, had the epithets Mantikus (/ˈmæntᵻkəs/ MAN-ti-kəs; Μαντικός, Mantikos, literally "prophetic"), Leschenorius (/ˌlɛskᵻˈnɔəriəs/ LES-ki-NOHR-ee-əs; Λεσχηνόριος, Leskhēnorios, from λεσχήνωρ, "debater") and Loxias (/ˈlɒksiəs/ LOK-see-əs; Λοξίας, Loxias, from λέγειν, "to say"). The epithet "Loxias" is historically associated with λοξός, "ambiguous". In this respect, the Romans called him Coelispex (/ˈsɛsɛlᵻspɛks/ SEL-i-speks; from the Latin coelum, 'sky', and specere, 'to look'). The epithet Iatromantis (/aɪˌætrəˈmæntɪs/ eye-AT-rə-MAN-tis; Ἰατρομάντις, Iātromantis, from ἰατρός, "physician", and μάντις, "prophet") refers both to his function as a god of healing and as a prophet. As god of music and the arts, Apollo had the epithet Musagetes (/mjuːˈsædʒᵻtiːz/ mew-SAJ-i-teez; Doric Μουσαγέτας, Mousāgetās) or Musegetes (/mjuːˈsɛdʒᵻtiːz/ mew-SEJ-i-teez; Μουσηγέτης, Mousēgetēs, from Μούσα, "muse", and ἡγέτης, "leader").

**Question 0**

Which epithet has historically been associated with ambiguity?

**Question 1**

What name was given to Apollo as the god of music and art?

**Question 2**

What was Apollo's nickname as the god of prophecy and truth?

**Question 3**

What was Apollo's nickname as a god of healing and divination?

**Text number 11**

As a god of archery, Apollo was known as Aphetor (/əˈfiːtər/ ə-FEE-tər; Ἀφήτωρ, Aphētōr, from ἀφίημι, "to let loose") or Aphetorus (/əˈfɛtərəs/ ə-FET-ər-əs; Ἀφητόρος, Aphētoros, same origin), Argyrotoxus (/ˌɑːrdʒᵻrəˈtɒksəs/ AR-ji-rə-TOK-səs; Ἀργυρότοξος, Argyrotoxos, literally "silver spring"), Hecaërgus (/ˌhɛkiˈɜːrɡəs/ HEK-ee-UR-gəs; Ἑκάεργος, Hekaergos, literally 'shooting far') and Hecebolos (/hᵻˈsɛbələs/ hi-SEB-ə-ləs; Ἑκηβόλος, Hekēbolos, literally 'shooting far'). The Romans referred to Apollo as Articenens (/ɑːrˈtɪsᵻnənz/ ar-TISS-i-nənz; "bow-bearer"). Apollo was called Ismenios (/ɪzˈmiːniəs/ iz-MEE-nee-əs; Ἰσμηνιός, Ismēnios, literally "Ismenus") after Ismenus, son of Amphion and Niobe, whom he struck with an arrow.

**Question 0**

By what name was Apollo known as the god of archery?

**Question 1**

What does the name literally mean "shooting from afar"?

**Question 2**

Who was the son of Amphion and Niobe?

**Question 3**

Who hit their parents with an arrow?

**Text number 12**

The cult sites of Apollo in Greece, Delphi and Delos, date back to the 8th century BC. The sanctuary of Delos was primarily dedicated to Artemis, the twin sister of Apollo. At Delphi, Apollo was honoured as the slayer of Python. For the Greeks, Apollo was all the gods in one, and over the centuries he was given different roles, which may have come from different gods. In archaic Greece, he was a prophet, an oracle god who in ancient times was associated with 'healing'. In classical Greece he was the god of light and music, but in popular religion he had a strong role in keeping evil at bay. Walter Burkert distinguished three components in the prehistory of Apollo worship, which he called the 'Doric-Northwest Greek component, the Cretan-Minoan component and the Syro-Hittite component'.

**Question 0**

Who was Apollo's twin sister?

**Question 1**

To whom was the sanctuary of Delos dedicated?

**Question 2**

Who identified the three elements of Apollo worship in prehistory?

**Text number 13**

Apollo brought with him from his eastern origins the art of examining "symbols and omina" (σημεία и τέρατα : semeia kai terata) and observing the omens of the days. The oracular culture of inspiration probably originated in Anatolia. The ritual belonged from the beginning to Apollo. The Greeks created the rule of law, the control of the orders of the gods and the requirement of moderation and harmony. Apollo became the god of brilliant youth, the patron of music, spiritual life, moderation and perceptible order. The improvement of the ancient Anatolian god and his elevation to an intellectual level can be considered a Greek achievement.

**Question 0**

Who brought the art of checking "symbols and omens"?

**Question 1**

The inspiration for the oracle cult was probably introduced from where?

**Question 2**

Which group created legalism, the control of the commandments of the gods and the demand for moderation and harmony?

**Text number 14**

Apollo's role as "healer" is linked to Paean (Παιών-Παιήων), the physician to the gods in the Iliad, who seems to have come from a more primitive religion. Paeοn is probably related to the Mycenaean pa-ja-wo-ne (linear B: 𐀞𐀊𐀍𐀚), but this is not certain. He did not have a separate cult, but he was the embodiment of a sacred magic song chanted by magicians, which was supposed to cure diseases. Later Greeks knew the original meaning of this song as 'παιάν' (παιάν). The magicians were also called 'seer-doctors' (ἰατρομάντεις), and they used the ecstatic prophetic art that the god Apollo used precisely in the oracle.

**Question 0**

What were the magicians called?

**Question 1**

Who is the doctor of the gods in the Iliad?

**Text number 15**

Common epithets for Apollo as healer are "paion" (παιών, literally "healer" or "helper"), "epikourios" (ἐπικουρώ, "help"), "oulios" (οὐλή, "healed wound", also "scar" ) and "loimios" (λοιμός, "plague"). In classical times, his strong role in popular religion was to ward off evil, and he was therefore called 'apotropaios' (ἀποτρέπω, 'to mislead', 'to frighten', 'to ward off') and 'aleksikakos' (v. ἀλέξω + n. κακόν, 'to defend against evil'). In later writers the word, usually spelled "Paea", becomes a mere epithet of Apollo in his capacity as god of healing.

**Question 0**

What is the usual name for Apollo as a healer?

**Question 1**

What was Apollo's strong role in popular religion in classical times?

**Question 2**

What is the word for "defend against evil"?

**Text number 16**

Homer described the god Paeon and the song as a song of apotropaic praise as well as triumph. Such songs were originally addressed to Apollo and later to other gods: Dionysus, Apollo's Helios and Apollo's son Asclepius, the healer. Around the 4th century BC, the paean became a form of praise only; its purpose was either to invoke protection against illness and misfortune or to express thanks after protection had been granted. In this way, Apollo was recognised as the god of music. Apollo's role as the slayer of Python led to his being associated with battle and victory, and it therefore became customary for the Romans to sing the paean when the army marched and before going into battle, when the fleet left port and also after victory.

**Question 0**

Who was the son of Apollo?

**Question 1**

Around the 4th century BC, what became a mere admiration formula?

**Question 2**

Around the 4th century BC, what was the target of the paean?

**Text number 17**

The connection with the Dorians and their Apellai festival is confirmed by the Apellaios month in north-west Greek calendars, but it can only explain the Doric type of the name, which is related to the ancient Macedonian word "pella" (Pella), stone. Stones played an important role in the cult of the gods, especially in the oracle shrine of Delphi (Omphalos). "The 'Hymn of Homer' depicts Apollo as an intruder from the north. His arrival must have taken place during the 'Dark Ages' following the destruction of Mycenaean civilisation, and his conflict with Gaia (Mother Earth) was described by the legend that he killed her daughter, the serpent Python.

**Question 0**

What does the word Pella mean?

**Question 1**

What represents Apollo as an intruder from the north?

**Question 2**

What was an important part of the cult of the god?

**Text number 18**

The earth god had power over the ghost world, and is believed to be the deity behind the oracle. In older stories, two dragons were mentioned, perhaps deliberately confused with each other. A female dragon called Delphyne (δελφύς, 'womb'), apparently associated with Delphoi and Apollo Delphinios, and a male serpent called Typhon (τύφειν, 'to smoke'), Zeus' opponent in Titanomachia, who was confused with Python by the narrators. Python was the good daimon (ἀγαθὸς δαίμων) of the temple in Minoan religion, but he was represented as a dragon, as is often the case in both northern European and eastern folklore.

**Question 0**

Who was Zeus' opponent in the battle of the titans?

**Question 1**

Who did the narrator confuse with Phyton?

**Question 2**

Who was portrayed as the dragon?

**Text number 19**

Apollo and his sister Artemis can bring death with their arrows. The notion that illness and death come from invisible shots sent by supernatural beings or magicians is common in Germanic and Norse mythology. In Greek mythology, Artemis was the leader of the nymphs (ἡγεμών, 'hegemon'), who had similar functions to the Norse elves. Originally, the 'elf shot' referred to illness or death associated with elves, but later it was proved to refer to the stone arrowheads used by witches to harm people and also in healing rituals.

**Question 0**

Who is Apollo's sister?

**Question 1**

It was believed that this woman could bring death with her arrows.

**Question 2**

Who was the leader of the nymphs in Greek mythology?

**Text number 20**

It seems that there was already an oracle cult in Delphi during the Mycenaean era. In historical times, the priests of Delphoi were called Labryades, 'double carpenters', suggesting a Minoan origin. The double axe, labrys, was the sacred symbol of the Cretan labyrinth. Homer's hymn adds that Apollo appeared as a dolphin and took the Cretan priests to Delphi, where they apparently transferred their religious practices. Apollo Delphinios was a sea god worshipped especially in Crete and the islands, and his name indicates his connection with Delphi and the sacred serpent Delphyne ('womb'). Apollo's sister Artemis, the Greek goddess of the hunt, is identified with the Minoan 'animal mistress' Britomartis (Diktynna). In the earliest depictions she is accompanied by the 'lord of animals', a male god of the hunt, whose attribute was the bow. His original name is not known, but it seems that he merged with the more popular Apollo, who stood beside the virgin 'Mistress of the Animals' and became her brother.

**Question 0**

What was the name of the "twin axe men"?

**Question 1**

What is another name for the double axle?

**Question 2**

Who was the Minoan "Lord of the Animals"?

**Question 3**

Who was Apollo's sister?

**Text number 21**

The old oracles at Delphi seem to be related to the local priestly tradition, and there is no clear evidence that the temple had any kind of inspiration. This led some scholars to conclude that Pythia continued to perform the rituals in a consistent manner for several centuries in accordance with local tradition. In this respect, the mythical seeress Sibyl, with her ecstatic art, of Anatolian origin, seems to be detached from the oracle itself. However, Greek tradition suggests the existence of vapours and the chewing of laurel leaves, which seems to be confirmed by recent research.

**Question 0**

Who did the researchers believe performed the rituals consistently?

**Question 1**

Who is the mythical seeress of Anatolian origin?

**Question 2**

Which Greek tradition does recent research seem to confirm?

**Text number 22**

Plato describes the priestesses of Delphi and Dodona as furious women possessed by "mania" (μανία, "madness"), a Greek word he associated with mantis (μάντις, "prophet"). Frenzied women like the Sibyls, from whose lips the god speaks, are recorded in the Middle East as Maris in the second millennium BC. Although Crete had links with Mar from 2000 BC onwards, there is no evidence that ecstatic prophethood existed during the Minoan and Mycenaean periods. It is more likely that this art was later imported from Anatolia and revived the existing cult of the Oracle, which was local to Delphi and dormant in several regions of Greece.

**Question 0**

Who describes Delphi and Dodona as fierce women?

**Question 1**

Which two women were said to be obsessed with "mania"?

**Question 2**

Which Greek word is related to almonds?

**Text number 23**

Apollo's non-Greek origin has long been assumed by scholars. Apollo's mother Leto's name is of Lydian origin and she was worshipped on the coasts of Asia Minor. The inspiration for the cult of the oracle was probably brought to Greece from Anatolia, where the Sibyl originated and where some of the oldest oracle shrines were found. Omens, symbols, purifications and exorcisms appear in ancient Assyro-Babylonian texts, and these rituals spread to the Hittite empire. One Hittite text mentions that the king summoned a Babylonian priestess for a specific 'purification'.

**Question 0**

Where was Leto from?

**Question 1**

Where was Leto worshipped?

**Question 2**

Where does Sibyl come from?

**Text number 24**

Plutarkhos mentions a similar story. He writes that the Cretan seer Epimenides cleansed Athens after the pollution caused by the Alcmeonids, and that the seer's expertise in sacrifice and reforming burial customs was of great help to Solon in his reform of the Athenian state. The story shows that Epimenides was probably the heir of the Asian shamanic religions, and, together with Homer's hymn, proves that Crete had an antagonistic religion until historical times. It seems that these rituals were dormant in Greece, and were reinforced when the Greeks migrated to Anatolia.

**Question 0**

Who is the Cretan seer who cleaned up Athens after the Alcmeonid pollution?

**Question 1**

Who told the story of the Cretan seer Epimenides?

**Question 2**

Which group was probably the heir to the Semitic religions of Asia?

**Text number 25**

Homer depicts Apollo fighting on the side of the Trojans against the Achaeans during the Trojan War. He is portrayed as a terrible god, whom the Greeks did not trust as much as other gods. The god seems to be related to Appaliunas, the patron god of Wilusa (Troy) in Asia Minor, but the word is not perfect. The stones found by Homer in front of the gates of Troy were symbols of Apollo. The Greeks gave him the name ἀγυιεύς agyieus as the patron god of public places and houses to ward off evil, and his symbol was a conical stone or pillar. Although Greek festivals were usually celebrated on the full moon, all Apollo's festivals were celebrated on the seventh day of the month, and the emphasis on that day (sibutu) suggests a Babylonian origin.

**Question 0**

Who was the patron god of Wilusa?

**Question 1**

When were Greek festivals celebrated?

**Question 2**

When was the Feast of Apollo celebrated?

**Text number 26**

The late Bronze Age (1700-1200 BC) Hittite and Hurrian Aplu was a plague god invoked in plague years. This is an apotropaic situation, where the god who originally caused the plague was invoked to stop the plague. Aplu, meaning son, was the name given to the god Nergal, who was related to the Babylonian sun god Shamash. Homer interprets Apollo as a terrible god (δεινὸς θεός) who brings death and disease with his arrows, but who can also heal, as he has magical powers that distinguish him from the other Greek gods. In the Iliad, his priest prays to Apollo Smintheus, the mouse god, who still has a more ancient agricultural role as protector of the field slaves. All these functions, including the healer god Paean, who seems to be of Mycenaean origin, merge into the cult of Apollo.

**Question 0**

Which era lasted from 1700 to 1200 BC?

**Question 1**

Who was the plague god?

**Question 2**

What word means "boy"?

**Question 3**

Who is the God of the mouse?

**Text number 27**

Exceptionally among the Olympian deities, Apollo had two cult sites with wide influence: Delos and Delphi. Apollo of Delos and Apollo of Pythia (Apollo of Delphi) were so different in cult practices that both could have shrines in the same place. The cult of Apollo was already fully established by the time the written sources begin, around 650 BC. Apollo became a very important oracle deity for the Greek world during the Archaic period, and his popularity is reflected in the prevalence of theophoric names such as Apollodoros or Apollonios, and the cities named Apollonia. Oracular shrines to Apollo were also founded in other places. In the 2nd and 3rd centuries AD, so-called 'theological oracles' were recited in the shrines of Didymas and Clarus, in which Apollo affirmed that all deities are aspects or servants of the all-encompassing, supreme deity. "In the 3rd century Apollo was silent. Julian the Apostatic (359-61) tried to revive the Delphic oracle, but failed."

**Question 0**

Which two cult places had a wide influence?

**Question 1**

Who tried to revive the dolphin oracle?

**Question 2**

In what way did Apollo affirm that all deities are aspects of the servants of the all-encompassing supreme deity?

**Text number 28**

In Greece and the Greek colonies, many temples dedicated to Apollo were built, showing the spread of the cult of Apollo and the development of Greek architecture, which was mostly based on the correctness of form and mathematical relationships. Some of the earliest temples, especially in Crete, do not belong to any Greek order. It seems that the first peripteral temples were rectangular wooden structures. The various wooden elements were considered divine, and their forms were preserved in the marble or stone elements of the temples of the Doric order. The Greeks used standard forms because they believed that the world of objects was a series of typical shapes that could be represented in many different ways. Temples should be canonical, and architects strove to achieve aesthetic perfection. From the earliest times, rectangular peripteral and prostyle buildings strictly followed certain rules. The first buildings were narrow to accommodate the roof, and as dimensions changed, certain mathematical ratios became necessary to preserve the original shapes. This probably influenced Pythagoras' theory of numbers, as he believed that there was a constant mathematical principle behind the appearance of things.

**Question 0**

Which buildings were originally rectangular wooden structures?

**Question 1**

Why did mathematical relationships become necessary?

**Question 2**

Why were the first buildings narrow?

**Question 3**

Who believed that there was a permanent mathematical principle behind the appearance of things?

**Text number 29**

It is also said that Hera kidnapped the goddess of childbirth, Eileithyia, to prevent Leto from giving birth. The other gods tricked Hera into releasing her by offering her a necklace made of amber, nine metres long. Mythographers agree that Artemis was born first and then assisted in the birth of Apollo, or that Artemis was born the day before Apollo's birth on the island of Ortygia and that he helped Leto cross the sea to Delos the next day to give birth to Apollo. Apollo was born on the seventh day of the month of Thargelion (ἑβδομαγενής, hebdomagenes) according to Delian tradition, or on the seventh day of the month of Byzantium according to Delphic tradition. The seventh and twentieth days, the days of the new moon and the full moon, were always thereafter kept holy to him.

**Question 0**

Who kidnapped Eileithyia?

**Question 1**

Who was the goddess of childbirth?

**Question 2**

How long was the necklace offered to Hera?

**Question 3**

What was the necklace made of?

**Question 4**

What was the day of the new moon?

**Text number 30**

Four days after his birth, Apollo killed the Cthonian dragon Pyton, who lived in Delphi next to the source of Castalia. This was the source of the vapours that caused the Delphic oracle to issue his prophecies. Hera sent the serpent to hunt Leto to his death around the world. To protect his mother, Apollo begged Hephaestus for a bow and arrows. After receiving them, Apollo cornered Python in the sacred cave of Delphi. Apollo killed Python, but he had to be punished for it because Python was a child of Gaia.

**Question 0**

What was the name of the ctonic dragon?

**Question 1**

What was the source of the vapours that caused the Delphic oracle to give prophecies?

**Question 2**

Who was Apollo's mother?

**Question 3**

Where did Apollo kill Python?

**Question 4**

Who was Python's parent?

**Text number 31**

When Zeus struck Apollo's son Asclepius, who had raised Hippolytus from the dead (he had broken the rules of Themis by stealing Hades' subjects), Apollo killed the Cyclopes, who had prepared the lightning strike for Zeus, in revenge. Apollo would have been banished forever to Tartarus for this, but instead, thanks to the intercession of his mother Leto, he was sentenced to one year of hard labour. During this time, he served as a shepherd for Admetus, king of Pherae in Thessaly. Admetus treated Apollo well, and in return the god gave him great benefits.

**Question 0**

Who is the son of Apollo?

**Question 1**

Why did Zeus strike down Asclepius with lightning?

**Question 2**

How long was Apollo sentenced for killing the Cyclops?

**Text number 32**

Daphne was a nymph, daughter of the river god Peneus, who had despised Apollo. The myth explains Apollo's connection with δάφνη (daphnē), the laurel bush whose leaves were used by his priestess at Delphi. In Ovid's Metamorphoses Phoebus, Apollo rebukes Cupid for playing with a weapon more suited to a man, whereupon Cupid wounds him with a golden arrow; at the same time, however, Cupid shoots a lead arrow at Daphne, whereupon Apollo repels him. After Apollo's frantic pursuit, Daphne prays to her father Peneus for help, and he turns her into a sacred laurel tree for Apollo.

**Question 0**

Who was Peneus' daughter?

**Question 1**

Who is Daphne's father?

**Question 2**

Who shot Daphne with lead salt?

**Text number 33**

Leucothea was the daughter of Orchamus and sister of Clytia. She fell in love with Apollo, who disguised herself as Leukothea's mother to gain access to her chambers. Clytia, jealous of her sister because she wanted Apollo for herself, told Orchamus the truth and betrayed her sister's trust. Enraged, Orchamus ordered Leucothea to be buried alive. Apollo refused to forgive Clytia for betraying her lover, and a grieving Clytia slowly withered and died. Apollo transformed her into an incense plant, either a heliotrope or a sunflower, which follows the sun every day.

**Question 0**

Who was Leukothea's mother?

**Question 1**

Who is Leukothea's sister?

**Question 2**

Who did Leucothea fall in love with?

**Question 3**

Who ordered Leukothea to be buried alive?

**Text number 34**

Koronis was the daughter of Phlegyas, king of the Lapites. Pregnant with Asclepius, Coronis fell in love with Ischys, son of Elatus. Crow informed Apollo of the affair. When Apollo first found out, he did not believe Crow and turned all the crows black (when they were previously white) as punishment for spreading lies. When he found out the truth, he sent his sister Artemis to kill Coronis (in other stories, Apollo himself had killed Coronis). As a result, he also made the crows sacred and tasked them with reporting important deaths. Apollo rescued the chick and gave it to the centaur Chiron to raise. Phlegyas, angered by the death of his daughter, burned down the temple of Apollo at Delphi. Apollo then killed him for his actions.

**Question 0**

Who was Phlegyas' daughter?

**Question 1**

Who was the king of Lapith?

**Question 2**

How was Apollo informed of the relationship between Coronis and Ischys?

**Question 3**

Who was the son of Elatus?

**Text number 35**

Hyacinthus or Hyacinthus was one of Apollo's male lovers. He was a Spartan prince, beautiful and athletic. The pair were practising throwing the discus when a disc thrown by Apollo was knocked off course by the jealous Zephyrus and hit Hyacinthus on the head, killing him instantly. Apollo is said to have been filled with grief: from Hyacinthus' blood, Apollo created a flower named after him to commemorate his death, and his tears coloured the petals of the flower with the punctuation αἰαῖ, which means unfortunately. The feast of Hyacinthus was the feast of Sparta.

**Question 0**

Who was one of Apollo's male lovers?

**Question 1**

What hit Hyacinthus on the head and killed him?

**Question 2**

Who shot the puck off the track and killed Hyacinthus?

**Question 3**

Which object did Apollo create and name after his lover?

**Text number 36**

Apollo and the Furies argue over the justification of matricide; Apollo argues that the marriage bond is sacred and that Orestes avenged his father, while the Furies say that the blood bond between mother and son is more significant than the marriage bond. They invade his temple, and he says that the matter must be brought before Athena. Apollo promises to protect Orestes, for Orestes has become Apollo's supplicant. Apollo defends him at the trial, and in the end Athena passes judgment in his favour.

**Question 0**

Who was arguing about whether matricide was justified?

**Question 1**

Who says that the blood bond between mother and son is more meaningful than the bond of marriage?

**Question 2**

Who considers the marriage bond sacred?

**Question 3**

Who was charged with matricide?

**Text number 37**

Once, Pan dared to compare his music to that of Apollo and challenge Apollo, the god of kithara, to a test of skill. Tmolos, the god of the mountains, was chosen as the judge. Pan blew his whistle and with his rustic melody gave great satisfaction to himself and his faithful follower Midas, who happened to be present. Then Apollo struck the strings of his lyre. Tmolos immediately conceded victory to Apollo, and all but Midas agreed with the verdict. Midas disagreed and questioned the fairness of the verdict. Apollo was no longer willing to tolerate such mutilated ears, and caused them to become the ears of an ass.

**Question 0**

Who challenged Apollo to a skills test?

**Question 1**

Who was Pan's loyal follower?

**Question 2**

Who was the god of the mountains?

**Question 3**

Who was chosen to judge the skills test?

**Text number 38**

After each performance, both were considered equal until Apollo ordered them to play and sing together. Since Apollo played the lyre, this was easy to do. Marsyas could not do this, as he could only play the flute and could not sing at the same time. Apollo was declared the winner because of this. Apollo skinned Marsyas alive in a cave near Celaenae in Phrygia because he had the audacity to challenge the god. He then nailed Marsyas' hairy hide to a nearby pine tree. Marsyas' blood turned into the Marsyas River.

**Question 0**

What instrument did Apolo play?

**Question 1**

What instrument could Marsyas play?

**Question 2**

Who couldn't sing at the same time as he played the flute?

**Question 3**

What is said to have become the River Marsyas?

**Text number 39**

The first temple of Apollo in Rome was founded in 430 BC during the plague in the fields of Flaminia, replacing an older cult site there known as the "Apollinare". During the Second Red War in 212 BC, the Ludi Apollinares ('Apollonian Games') were founded in his honour, following the instructions of a prophecy given to Marcius. Under Augustus, who considered himself under the special protection of Apollo and was even said to be his son, his worship developed and he became one of the chief gods of Rome.

**Question 0**

Where was the first temple of Apollo in Rome founded?

**Question 1**

When was the Second Punic War fought?

**Question 2**

What is Ludi Apollinares' middle name?

**Text number 40**

As the god of colonisation, Apollo gave oracular instructions to the colonies, especially during the peak years of colonisation 750-550 BC. According to Greek tradition, he helped Cretan or Arcadian colonists to find the city of Troy. However, this story may reflect a cultural influence that was the opposite: the Hittite cuneiform texts mention a god of Asia Minor named Appaliunas or Apalunas, associated with the city of Wilusa attested in Hittite inscriptions, which most scholars today generally consider to be identical to the Greek Ilion. In this interpretation, Apollo's name Lykegenes can be read simply as "born in Lycia", effectively severing the god's supposed connection with wolves (possibly a popular etymology).

**Question 0**

Who was the god of colonisation?

**Question 1**

When was the peak of colonisation?

**Question 2**

What does Lykegenes mean?

**Text number 41**

In literary contexts, Apollo represents harmony, order and reason - qualities that contrast with Dionysus, the god of wine, who represents ecstasy and disorder. The juxtaposition of the roles of these gods is reflected in the adjectives Apollonian and Dionysian. However, the Greeks thought that these two attributes complemented each other: the two gods are brothers, and when Apollo left for Hyperborea in winter, he left the oracle of Delphi to Dionysus. This juxtaposition seems to appear on both sides of the Borghese vase.

**Question 0**

Who was the god of wine?

**Question 1**

Who represents harmony, order and reason in the literary context?

**Question 2**

Where did Apollo go in the winter?

**Text number 42**

The evolution of Greek sculpture can be seen in his depictions of the early Archaic period from the almost static formal Kouros type to the representation of late Archaic movement as a relatively harmonious whole. In Classical Greece, the emphasis is not on the illusory reality represented by ideal forms, but on the analogies of the method created by Polykleitos and the interaction of the members in the whole. Finally, Praxiteles seems to have freed himself from all artistic and religious conformity, and his masterpieces are a mixture of naturalism and stylization.

**Question 0**

Whose masterpieces are a mixture of naturalism and stylisation?

**Question 1**

Whose images show the evolution of Greek sculpture?

**Question 2**

Who seems to be exempt from all artistic and religious requirements?

**Text number 43**

In classical Greece, Anaxagoras argued that divine reason (mind) gave order to the seeds of the universe, and Plato extended the Greek belief in ideal forms to his metaphysical theory of form (ideai, "ideas"). Terrestrial forms are imperfect copies of intellectual celestial ideas. The Greek words oida (οἶδα, "(I) know") and eidos (εἶδος, "kind") have the same root as the word idea (ἰδέα), showing how the Greek mind moved from the gifts of the senses to extra-sensory principles. The artists of Plato's time distanced themselves from his theories, and art tends to be a mixture of naturalism and stylization. Greek sculptors preferred the senses, and proportions were used to connect the senses with the intellect.

**Question 0**

Who claimed that divine reason gave order to the seeds of the universe?

**Question 1**

Who extended the Greek beilef of idea-forms to his metaphysical theory of form?

**Question 2**

What is one Greek word that has the same root as the word idea?

**Text number 44**

Kouros (male youth) is a modern term given to depictions of standing male youths, which first appeared in the Greek Archaic period. This type served certain religious needs and was first proposed as the Apollo depictions, which were previously considered to be the Apollo depictions. The first statues are certainly immobile and formal. The formality of their pose seems to be related to Egyptian precedent, but it was adopted for good reason. The sculptors had a clear idea of what a young man was like, and embodied the archaic smile of good manners, the firm and springy step, the balance of the body, the dignity and youthful happiness. When they tried to depict the most enduring qualities of men, it was because men had common roots with the immutable gods. The adoption of a recognisable standard type over a long period of time was probably due to nature's preference for a type that had long been accepted by climatic conditions for survival, and also to the general belief among the Greeks that nature expressed itself in ideal forms that could be imagined and represented. These forms expressed immortality. Apollo was the immortal god of ideal balance and order. In his sanctuary at Delphi, which he shared with Dionysius in winter, were the inscriptions γνῶθι σεαυτόν (gnōthi seautón = 'know thyself') and μηδὲν ἄγαν (mēdén ágan, 'nothing excessive') and ἐγγύα πάρα δ'ἄτη (eggýa pára d'atē, 'make a promise, and disaster is near').

**Question 0**

What is the modern term given to the stnding descriptions of young males who first appear in the archaic period in Greece?

**Question 1**

What's another word for male youth?

**Question 2**

Who was the immortal god of ideal balance?

**Text number 45**

In the first large-scale depictions of the early Archaic period (640-580 BC), artists sought to draw attention to the interior of the face and body, which were not presented as inanimate masses but as full of life. The Greeks retained until the latest phase of their civilisation the almost animistic idea that statues were in some sense alive. This reflects the belief that the image was in some way a god or man himself. A fine example is the statue of Kouros of the Holy Gate, found in the cemetery of Dipylon Kouros in Athens. The statue is a 'thing in itself', and its slender face with its deep eyes expresses intellectual eternity. According to Greek tradition, Dipylon's master was called Daedalus, and in his statues the limbs were detached from the body, giving the impression that the statues could move. He is also credited with creating the Kouros of New York, the oldest fully preserved Kouros statue, which appears to be the embodiment of the god himself.

**Question 0**

What is the period 640-580 BC called?

**Question 1**

What was the name of the Dipylon Master?

**Question 2**

Who created the New York Crane?

**Text number 46**

The animistic idea as a representation of imaginative reality is sanctified in Homer's poems and Greek myths, in the stories of the god Hephaestus (Faistos) and the mythical Daedalus (the labyrinth builder), who made images that moved of their own volition. This kind of art dates back to the Minoan period, when its main theme was the representation of movement in a given moment. These free-standing statues were usually made of marble, but also of limestone, bronze, ivory and terracotta.

**Question 0**

Who is said to be the builder of the labyrinth?

**Question 1**

In which period was the main theme of art the representation of movement in a particular movement?

**Question 2**

These free-standing statues were sometimes made of immestone, bronze, ivory and terracotta, but usually they were made of what material?

**Text number 47**

The earliest examples of statues of Apollo are perhaps two figures from the Ionic sanctuary on the island of Delos. Such statues were found all over the Greek-speaking world, and most of them were found in shrines to Apollo, with over a hundred from the sanctuary of Apollo Ptoios in Boeotia alone. The final stage in the development of the Kouros type is the Late Archaic period (520-485 BC), when Greek sculpture achieved a complete knowledge of human anatomy and used it to create a relatively harmonious whole. Among the very few bronze sculptures that have survived, the masterly bronze Apollo of Piraeus stands out. It was found in the port of Athens, in Piraeus. Originally, the statue held a bow in its left hand and a cup in its right hand, into which a libation was poured. It probably comes from the north-eastern Peloponnese. The emphasis is on anatomy, and it is one of the first attempts to represent a kind of movement and beauty in relation to proportions, which are mostly found in post-archaic art. The statue sheds some light on the artistic centre, which, with its independently developed harder, simpler and heavier style, limits the Ionian influence in Athens. Ultimately, this is the initial impetus from which Polykleitos' art grew two or three generations later.

**Question 0**

Which period lasted from 520 to 485 BC?

**Question 1**

What was the port of Athens?

**Question 2**

What was the Apollo of Piraeus holding in his left hand?

**Question 3**

What was the Apollo of Piraeus holding in his right hand?

**Text number 48**

In the next century, at the beginning of the classical period, it was considered that beauty in visible things, as in everything else, consisted of symmetry and proportion. Artists also attempted to represent movement in a given moment (Myron), which can be seen as a resurgence of the dormant Minotaur element. Anatomy and geometry merge, each doing something to the other. The Greek sculptors tried to clarify it by looking for mathematical proportions, just as they looked for some kind of reality behind appearances. In his canon, Polycleitus wrote that beauty is not in the proportions of elements (materials) but in the proportions of parts, that is, in the relationship of parts to each other and to the whole. He seems to have been influenced by Pythagoras' theories. The famous Apollo of Mantua and its variations are early forms of the Apollo Citharoedus statue type, in which the god holds a cithara in his left hand. The type is represented by late 1st- or early 2nd-century Neo-Attic imperial-Roman copies modelled on a supposed Greek bronze original of the second quarter of the 5th century BC, similar in style to the works of Polykleitos, but more archaic. Apollo held the kythara in his outstretched left hand, of which the Louvre specimen shows a fragment of a single twisted horn against the biceps.

**Question 0**

Who wrote that beauty consists of a relationship, not a relationship of elements?

**Question 1**

In what kind of art does a god hold a sithara in his left hand?

**Question 2**

Which work of art is modelled on a supposed Greek bronze original from the second quarter of the 5th century BC?

**Text number 49**

Although proportions were always important in Greek art, the charm of Greek sculpture cannot be explained by proportions alone. Statues of Apollo were believed to embody his living presence, and these representations of an illusory, imaginative reality had deep roots in the Minoan period and in the beliefs of the first Greek-speaking people who arrived in the region in the Bronze Age. Just as the Greeks saw mountains, forests, seas and rivers as inhabited by concrete creatures, so too nature in all its manifestations has a distinct form and a form of artwork. Spiritual life is contained in matter when it is given artistic form. Just as in art the Greeks sought some reality behind appearances, so in mathematics they sought permanent principles that could be applied wherever conditions were the same. Artists and sculptors tried to find this ideal order in relation to mathematics, but they believed that this ideal order was revealed not so much to the dispassionate intellect as to the whole sentient self. Things as we see them and as they really are are one, each emphasizing the nature of the other as a whole.

**Question 0**

Whose statues were believed to embody his living presence?

**Question 1**

Representations of illusory imaginary reality had deep roots in which era?

**Question 2**

Which people saw mountains, forests, seas and rivers as inhabited by concrete creatures?

**Text number 50**

These presentations are based on the fact that the scenes are presented directly to the eye for their own visibility. They pay attention to the schematic arrangement of bodies in space, but only as part of a larger whole. Although each scene has its own character and integrity, it must fit into the overall order to which it belongs. In these archaic podiums, the sculptors use empty spaces to suggest walking on a busy battlefield. Artists seem to have been dominated by geometric patterns and order, and this improved as classical art brought with it greater freedom and economy.

**Question 0**

Who seemed to be dominated by geometric patterns and order?

**Question 1**

What confidence do you have that the scenes are presented directly to the eye for their own visibility?

**Question 2**

Although each scene has its own character and integrity, it must fit into what?

**Text number 51**

Apollo is a handsome, beardless young man, often depicted with a kithara (Apollo Citharoedus) or a bow in his hand or resting on a tree (Apollo Lykeios and Apollo Sauroctonos). Apollo Belvedere is a marble sculpture rediscovered in the late 15th century. For centuries it represented the ideals of classical antiquity to Europeans from the Renaissance to the 19th century. The marble is a Hellenistic or Roman copy of a bronze original by the Greek sculptor Leochares, made between 350 and 325 BC.

**Question 0**

Who is often depicted with a kithara or bow in hand?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the marble sculpture that was rediscovered in the late 15th century?

**Question 2**

Who made Apollo Belvedere?

**Question 3**

When did Leochares produce the Apollo Belvedere?

**Document number 311**

**Text number 0**

Bush's margin of victory in the referendum was the smallest ever for a re-elected incumbent president, but it was the first time since his father's victory 16 years earlier that a candidate won a majority of the popular vote. The electoral map closely resembled the 2000 electoral map, with only three states switching sides: New Mexico and Iowa voted Republican in 2004 after having voted Democrat in 2000, and New Hampshire voted Democrat in 2004 after having previously voted Republican. In the Electoral College, Bush received 286 votes to Kerry's 252.

**Question 0**

Which candidate received the majority of votes in the 2004 elections?

**Question 1**

How many countries gave up the political party of their choice?

**Question 2**

Which state switched sides and sided with the Democratic Party after previously voting for the Republican Party?

**Question 3**

How many votes did Kerry get in the constituency?

**Question 4**

How big was the difference between the Bush and Kerry votes?

**Question 5**

In which two states did George Bush campaign hardest?

**Question 6**

What was the first state Bush's father campaigned in?

**Question 7**

What was Bush's father's margin of victory in 2004?

**Question 8**

How many votes did Bush senior get 16 years earlier in the election?

**Question 9**

Which state was John Kerry originally from?

**Text number 1**

Just eight months into his presidency, the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001 suddenly made Bush a wartime president. Bush's approval ratings soared to almost 90 per cent. Within a month, US-led coalition forces invaded Afghanistan, where Osama bin Laden, the suspected mastermind of the 11 September attacks, had been holed up. By December, the Taliban had been ousted from Kabul, but a long and continuous reconstruction process followed, seriously hampered by internal unrest and violence.

**Question 0**

What even happened during Bush's presidency that made him a wartime president?

**Question 1**

How long during the Bush presidency did a tragedy occur on US soil?

**Question 2**

Did Bush become unpopular during the 9/11 attacks?

**Question 3**

How long did it take for the US military to respond by infiltrating Afghanistan?

**Question 4**

By what month was the Taliban no longer in control of Kabul?

**Question 5**

How long had Osama Bin Laden been planning the September 11 attack?

**Question 6**

How well did the coalition succeed in its mission in Afghanistan?

**Question 7**

How long did it take to capture Osama Bin Laden?

**Question 8**

What city was Osama Bin Laden ruling?

**Question 9**

What happened in New York after the 11 September terrorist attack?

**Text number 2**

The Bush administration then turned its attention to Iraq, claiming that the need to oust Saddam Hussein had become urgent. The reasons given included the fact that Saddam's regime had attempted to acquire nuclear material and had not properly accounted for the biological and chemical material it was known to have previously possessed and was believed to still retain. Both the possession of these weapons of mass destruction and Saddam's failure to account for them would violate UN sanctions. From the outset, the Bush administration was vehement in its claims of WMD, but other major powers, including China, France, Germany and Russia, were not convinced that Iraq was a threat and refused to accept the UN Security Council resolution authorising the use of force. In November 2002, Iraq allowed UN weapons inspectors to continue their work to assess allegations of weapons of mass destruction, when the Bush administration decided to continue the war without UN authorisation and ordered the inspectors to leave the country. The US invaded Iraq on 20 March 2003, together with a 'coalition of the willing', consisting of additional forces from the UK and, to a lesser extent, Australia and Poland. Within about three weeks, the invasion collapsed both the Iraqi government and its armed forces, but the US and its allies failed to find a single weapon of mass destruction in Iraq. Traces of previous materials and weapons laboratories were reportedly found, but no 'smoking guns'. Nevertheless, on 1 May, George W. Bush landed on the aircraft carrier USS Abraham Lincoln in a Lockheed S-3 Viking, where he made a speech announcing the end of the "major combat operations" of the Iraq war. According to a CNN-USA Today-Gallup poll, Bush's approval rating in May was 66 percent. However, Bush's high approval ratings did not last. First, while the war itself was popular in the United States, the reconstruction of Iraq and the 'democratisation' efforts lost some support as the months passed and the casualty figures increased, with no reduction in violence and no progress towards stability or reconstruction. Secondly, the researchers did not find the predicted stockpiles of weapons of mass destruction when they scoured the country, leading to a debate about the justification for war.

**Question 0**

Who did Bush think it was important to remove from power after he had removed the Taliban from Kabul?

**Question 1**

What does WMD stand for?

**Question 2**

When did Iraq agree to allow UN inspectors into the country to check for weapons of mass destruction?

**Question 3**

Did Bush have the support of the UN when he decided to invade Iraq on 20 March 2003?

**Question 4**

After the Iraqi government and its forces were defeated, were the investigators able to find the weapons of mass destruction?

**Question 5**

What did Saddam Hussein believe the Bush administration had acquired?

**Question 6**

What had Russia failed to take properly into account in 2002?

**Question 7**

What narrative has Russia been pushing from the start that China owns?

**Question 8**

What did the United States refuse to accept in the use of force against China?

**Question 9**

When did France invade Germany in search of weapons of mass destruction?

**Text number 3**

On 10 March 2004, Bush formally achieved the number of delegates needed to be nominated as a candidate for the 2004 Republican National Convention in New York. Bush accepted the nomination on September 2, 2004, and chose Vice President Dick Cheney as his running mate. (In New York, the ticket was also on the ballot as a candidate for the New York State Conservative Party.) Bush focused on two themes during the convention and throughout the campaign: defending America against terrorism and building a property-owning society. Ownership included allowing people to invest part of their Social Security in the stock market, increasing home and stock ownership, and encouraging more people to buy their own health insurance.

**Question 0**

When did Bush get the required number of votes to become the Republican candidate in 2004?

**Question 1**

When did Bush accept the Republican nomination?

**Question 2**

Who did Bush want as his running mate?

**Question 3**

On which two issues did Bush remain stable during his campaign?

**Question 4**

Which party's candidate was the Bush/Cheney duo in New York State?

**Question 5**

When did Dick Cheney get enough delegates to be nominated at the RNC?

**Question 6**

When did Cheney accept the nomination?

**Question 7**

In which city was Cheney nominated for the RNC in 2004?

**Question 8**

Which two themes did Cheney often talk about during his campaign?

**Question 9**

What was one idea that Cheney advocated in his 2004 speech?

**Text number 4**

By the summer of 2003, Howard Dean had become the Democratic nominee, performing strongly in most polls and leading the pack with the largest campaign fund. Dean's strength as a fundraiser was largely due to his use of the Internet in his campaigning. Most of his donations came from individual supporters, known as Deans or more commonly Deaniacs. During his time as governor, Dean was generally regarded as a pragmatic centrist, but during his presidential campaign Dean emerged as a left-wing populist who denounced the Bush administration's policies (particularly the 2003 invasion of Iraq) and other Democrats who he felt did not strongly oppose them. Senator Lieberman, a liberal on domestic policy issues but a hawk on the war on terror, failed to gain traction among liberal Democratic voters.

**Question 0**

Who became the Democratic candidate in mid-2003?

**Question 1**

Dean's admiration for internet campaigning showed his strength in what?

**Question 2**

What was the name of Dean's supporters?

**Question 3**

What government position has Howard Dean previously held?

**Question 4**

Which Bush policy did Dean criticise most?

**Question 5**

What was Senator Lieberman's position in 2003?

**Question 6**

How well did Senator Lieberman do in the polls in 2003?

**Question 7**

What did Senator Lieberman have that helped him in his campaign?

**Question 8**

What was Senator Lieberman's method of fundraising?

**Question 9**

Where did most of Senator Lieberman's donations come from?

**Text number 5**

In September 2003, retired four-star General Wesley Clark announced his intention to run in the Democratic Party's presidential primary. His campaign focused on themes of leadership and patriotism, and early campaign ads relied heavily on biographies. The late start left him with relatively few detailed policy proposals. This weakness was reflected in his first debates, although he soon put forward a range of positions, including a major tax relief plan. Despite this, Democrats did not turn out in droves to support his campaign.

**Question 0**

Which Democratic candidate announced in the autumn of 2003 that he would run for president?

**Question 1**

What were Wesley Clark's first campaign ads based on?

**Question 2**

What were Wesley Clarks' key questions?

**Question 3**

What was the flaw in Wesley Clark from the start?

**Question 4**

Did Wesley Clark have any influence in rallying Democratic support?

**Question 5**

In what year did Wesley Clark retire?

**Question 6**

What title was given to Wesley Clark in September 2003?

**Question 7**

Which two topics were used in the biography published by the DNC in 2003?

**Question 8**

What was the DNC missing to get more support from donors?

**Question 9**

What is the one thing the DNC did not want to comment on?

**Text number 6**

Kerry had fewer supporters than Howard Dean, who was far ahead in the superdelegate race going into the Iowa caucuses in January 2004, although Kerry was leading the race for supporters in Iowa, New Hampshire, Arizona, South Carolina, New Mexico and Nevada. Kerry's biggest perceived weakness was in his neighboring state of New Hampshire and in nearly every national poll. Most other states did not have updated poll numbers that would have given Kerry's campaign an accurate ranking ahead of Iowa. Kerry's campaign was largely considered in trouble in the run-up to the primary, especially after he fired campaign manager Jim Jordan. Key factors that enabled it to survive were the appointment of Mary Beth Cahill as campaign manager by Massachusetts Senator Ted Kennedy, and the fact that Kerry mortgaged his own home to borrow money for his campaign (although his wife was a billionaire, campaign finance rules prohibited the use of personal assets). He also took on the "magical" Michael Whouley, who can be credited with helping to win Iowa in the same way he did in New Hampshire for Al Gore in 2000 against Bill Bradley.

**Question 0**

Between Kerry and Dean, who had the fewest supporters?

**Question 1**

In which state was Kerry expected to get the least support before Iowa?

**Question 2**

What act indicated that Kerry's fight for the White House was in trouble?

**Question 3**

Who replaced Jim Jordon when he was sacked?

**Question 4**

What regulation did Kerry fail to follow in trying to save his campaign?

**Question 5**

What did Ted Kennedy have less of than Kerry in 2004?

**Question 6**

What was Ted Kennedy's position in the 2004 superdelegate race?

**Question 7**

In which states did Ted Kennedy lead in 2004?

**Question 8**

In what area was Kennedy considered to be weak?

**Question 9**

What position was Jim Jordan in when Bill Bradley fired him?

**Text number 7**

In the race for individual donations, economist Lyndon LaRouche dominated the race before the primaries. According to Federal Election Commission statistics, LaRouche received more individual donors to his 2004 presidential campaign than any other candidate until John Kerry overtook him in the last quarter of the primary season. As of the April 15 announcement, LaRouche had 7,834 individual donors with a cumulative total of $200 or more, while John Kerry had 6,257, John Edwards 5,582, Howard Dean 4,090 and Gephardt 2,744.

**Question 0**

Who had the most individual campaign contributors at the beginning of the primaries?

**Question 1**

Who had the most individual campaign contributors in the last quarter of the primaries?

**Question 2**

Who received the fewest individual payments on the 15 April registration day?

**Question 3**

Which agency provided statistics on individual donors to presidential candidates?

**Question 4**

What did Gephardt have more than any other candidate in 2004?

**Question 5**

When did John Edwards overtake Gephardt's campaign in the number of individual donors?

**Question 6**

What was Gephardt's occupation before 2004?

**Question 7**

When did the FEC start collecting statistics on the financing of presidential campaigns?

**Question 8**

What is the minimum amount an individual donor can give to a campaign under the FEC?

**Text number 8**

By the time of the Iowa caucuses in January 2004, the field had been reduced to nine candidates, as Bob Graham had dropped out of the race. Howard Dean was the strong front-runner. However, the Iowa caucuses produced an unexpectedly strong showing for the Democratic candidates John Kerry, who won 38% of the state delegates, and John Edwards, who won 32% of the delegates. Former frontrunner Howard Dean dropped to 18% and third place, while Richard Gephardt came in fourth (11%). In the days leading up to the Iowa vote, there was a lot of negative campaigning between the Dean and Gephardt camps.

**Question 0**

How many candidates were left at the end of the Iowa caucus in January 2004?

**Question 1**

Which two candidates received surprising results, even though Howard Dean was the strong favourite?

**Question 2**

Which candidate dropped to third place after the Iowa caucuses?

**Question 3**

Which candidates used the naysaying tactics of the Iowa caucuses before the Iowa caucuses in their campaigning?

**Question 4**

Which candidate dropped out of the race, leaving only nine candidates?

**Question 5**

What percentage of state delegates had Bob Graham taken as the front-runner?

**Question 6**

What were Graham and Kerry involved in before the Iowa vote?

**Question 7**

How many ads did Graham run in Iowa before the vote?

**Question 8**

How many votes did Bob Graham get in Iowa after the election?

**Question 9**

When was Bob Graham at his best in the race?

**Text number 9**

The dismal results led Gephardt to drop out of the election and later support Kerry. Carol Moseley Braun also dropped out of the election to support Howard Dean. In addition to coming in third, Dean was also hurt by a speech he made at a post-convention event. Dean shouted over the cheers of his enthusiastic audience, but the audience's voices were filtered out by his one-way microphone, so that only his full-throated exhortations could be heard by the television viewers. To those sitting at home, he seemed to be raising his voice out of sheer emotion. The constant repetition of "Dean's shout" by the press became a debate about whether Dean was a victim of media bias. Cable and broadcast news channels aired the screaming scene some 633 times in the four days after the event alone, not including talk shows and local news broadcasts. However, those who were in the audience that day claim they were unaware of the infamous "scream" until they returned to their hotel rooms and saw it on television.

**Question 0**

Which candidate continued to support Kerry after he withdrew his candidacy?

**Question 1**

Which troubled candidate did Carol Moseley Braun finally support when she withdrew her candidacy?

**Question 2**

What controversy was generated by the media's continued coverage of Dean's post-rally speech?

**Question 3**

What tag did the media associate with Dean's post-rally speech?

**Question 4**

Did those who attended Dean's speech know about "Dean's shout"?

**Question 5**

Where did Carol Moseley Braun give the speech that damaged her campaign?

**Question 6**

What did the media think Braun was a victim of?

**Question 7**

How many times did their news stories focus on negative events in the Braun campaign?

**Question 8**

Where was Braun in the race?

**Question 9**

What was filtering the crowd noise when Braun was making his speech?

**Text number 10**

The following week, John Edwards won the South Carolina primary and finished a strong second to Clark in Oklahoma. Lieberman withdrew from the campaign the next day. Kerry dominated throughout February, and his support snowballed rapidly as he defeated election and primary candidates and took multiple victories in Michigan, Washington, Maine, Tennessee, Washington, Nevada, Wisconsin, Utah, Hawaii and Idaho. Clark and Dean dropped out during this period, leaving Edwards as the only real threat to Kerry. Kucinich and Sharpton continued as candidates despite poor polling.

**Question 0**

Which candidate won the South Carolina primary?

**Question 1**

Which candidate won the Oklahoma primary?

**Question 2**

Which candidate dropped out of the race after losing the Oklahoma primary?

**Question 3**

Which candidate gained a lot of support after winning elections and primaries in many states?

**Question 4**

After Clark and Dean withdrew, which candidate was considered the only real contender against Kerry?

**Question 5**

Which primary did Sharpton win?

**Question 6**

What did Sharpton do the next day after losing in Nevada?

**Question 7**

How long was Sharpton heavily involved in the race?

**Question 8**

What caused Sharpton's support among voters to grow?

**Question 9**

Which other candidate was the only threat to Sharpton's campaign?

**Text number 11**

In the March Super Tuesday, Kerry decisively won the primaries in California, Connecticut, Georgia, Maryland, Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, Rhode Island and Minnesota. Dean won his home state of Vermont, despite withdrawing from the race two weeks earlier. Edwards narrowly trailed Kerry in Georgia, but since he did not win any state other than South Carolina, he decided to withdraw from the presidential race. Sharpton followed suit a couple of weeks later. Kuninch did not officially drop out of the race until July.

**Question 0**

Which candidate was the frontrunner after winning the primaries and Minnesota caucuses?

**Question 1**

Which candidate won his state's primary after dropping out of the race?

**Question 2**

Which candidate came second in the Georgian primaries?

**Question 3**

In which state other than Georgia did Edwards win the primary?

**Question 4**

Which candidate dropped out after Edwards?

**Question 5**

What is Sharpton's home state?

**Question 6**

Which is the only state taken by Sharpton?

**Question 7**

In what month did Kerry officially leave the race?

**Question 8**

When did Kuninch win in California, Connecticut and Georgia?

**Question 9**

In which elections did Kuninch also win on Super Tuesday?

**Text number 12**

John Kerry chose John Edwards as his running mate on 6 July, shortly before the 2004 Democratic National Convention in Boston later that month. A few days before Kerry announced Edwards as his nominee, Kerry issued a short list of three candidates: John Edwards, Dick Gephardt and Tom Vilsack. As the convention got underway, the Kerry-Edwards ticket unveiled their new slogan - a pledge to make America "stronger at home and more respected in the world." "Kerry made his Vietnam War experience the central theme of the meeting. In accepting the nomination, he began his speech with the words, "I'm John Kerry and I'm reporting for duty." He said: "I'm John Kerry and I'm reporting for duty". Later, in perhaps the most memorable line of his speech, he said that 'the future does not belong to fear, it belongs to freedom', a quote that later appeared in a Kerry and Edwards television advertisement.

**Question 0**

Who did John Kerry choose to run alongside him as a possible vice-president?

**Question 1**

How many candidates did John Kerry nominate as his potential running mates?

**Question 2**

What was Kerry and Edward's slogan released before the Boston convention?

**Question 3**

Where in Kerry's speech in Boston was reference made to his military experience?

**Question 4**

Which famous line from Kerry's speech later appeared in one of his later television advertising campaigns?

**Question 5**

On what day did Tom Vilsack choose John Edwards as his running mate?

**Question 6**

In which city did Tom Vilsack speak at the DNC?

**Question 7**

Which two other candidates were on Tom Vilsack's list as possible candidates?

**Question 8**

What was the Vilsack/Edwards slogan at the DNC?

**Question 9**

Where did Vilsack mention the future in his famous quote?

**Text number 13**

Bush focused his campaign on national security, presenting himself as a decisive leader and contrasting himself with Kerry in a "false light". This strategy was designed to convey to American voters the idea that Bush could be trusted to be tough on terrorism, while Kerry would be "insecure in the face of danger". Bush (just as his father did with Dukakis in the 1988 election) also sought to portray Kerry as a "Massachusetts liberal" out of touch with mainstream Americans. One of Kerry's slogans was "Stronger at home, respected in the world". This promoted the idea that Kerry would pay more attention to domestic concerns; it also crystallised Kerry's claim that Bush had alienated American allies with his foreign policy.

**Question 0**

What was the main focus of the Bush campaign?

**Question 1**

How did Bush try to communicate that he was the stronger and tougher candidate?

**Question 2**

Which sentence was Kerry using to express that he was more concerned about America?

**Question 3**

What does Kerry think Bush has failed the American people?

**Question 4**

Bush's strategy against Kerry was compared to what other similar strategy in the past?

**Question 5**

What did Dukakis focus on in his campaign?

**Question 6**

What kind of leader did Dukakis want to be seen as?

**Question 7**

How was Bush described compared to Dukakis?

**Question 8**

How did Dukakis deal with terrorism?

**Question 9**

What perception made Bush look weaker than Dukakis?

**Text number 14**

In August and September 2004, there was a strong focus on the events of the late 1960s and early 1970s. Bush was accused of failing to complete his required service in the Texas Air National Guard. However, attention quickly shifted to CBS News after it aired an episode of 60 Minutes on Wednesday presenting the so-called Killian documents. Serious doubts about the authenticity of the documents quickly arose, prompting CBS to appoint a review panel, which ultimately led to the news producer's dismissal and other significant staff changes.

**Question 0**

Who was accused of not doing military service in autumn 2004?

**Question 1**

What diverted attention from the Bush controversy over his required service?

**Question 2**

Which news agency came under criticism, leading to the sacking of its producer?

**Question 3**

Which period came under the spotlight in autumn 2004?

**Question 4**

What was the name of the documents presented during the 60 Minutes programme?

**Question 5**

What was Killian accused of in 2004?

**Question 6**

What was the focus of the Texas Air National Guard in September 2004?

**Question 7**

Which news agency made a staff change in 1970?

**Question 8**

When was a news producer hired by CBS?

**Question 9**

Who was fired after working for Bush in the 1970s?

**Text number 15**

The first debate took place on 30 September at the University of Miami and was moderated by PBS's Jim Lehrer. During the debate, which focused on foreign policy, Kerry accused Bush of failing to get international support for the 2003 invasion of Iraq, and said the only countries that helped the US during the invasion were the UK and Australia. Bush responded by saying: 'Well, actually he forgot about Poland'. Later, a consensus emerged among mainstream pollsters and pundits that Kerry won the debate decisively, reinforcing a campaign perceived as weak and problematic. In the days that followed, news coverage focused on Bush's apparent irritation with Kerry, as well as on the numerous glares and negative expressions.

**Question 0**

Where was the first debate between Kerry and Bush held?

**Question 1**

Who was considered the winner of the debate?

**Question 2**

Who was the moderator of the first debate between Kerry and Bush?

**Question 3**

What was considered the main focus of the debate?

**Question 4**

How did your opinion of Kerry change after he was declared the winner of the debate?

**Question 5**

Where did Lehrer and Kerry have their first debate?

**Question 6**

What did Lehrer accuse Kerry of in 2003?

**Question 7**

What was Lehrer's response to Kerry in the debate?

**Question 8**

What was the decisive opinion on Lehrer's presentation in the debate?

**Question 9**

What did the media broadcast to show that Lehrer was annoyed with Kerry?

**Text number 16**

The second presidential debate took place at Washington University in St. Louis, Missouri, on October 8, and was moderated by ABC's Charles Gibson. The debate took the form of a town hall meeting, which was not as formal as the first presidential debate, and Bush and Kerry answered questions from the local audience on various topics. Bush attempted to deflect criticism of what was described as his sombre behaviour during the first debate by joking at one point about a remark Kerry made: 'That answer made me gloomy'.

**Question 0**

Where was the second debate on the Presidency held?

**Question 1**

Was the second debate rigid and formal?

**Question 2**

Was the focus of the second debate on a particular topic?

**Question 3**

Who was the moderator of the second debate at the University of Washington?

**Question 4**

How did Bush try to belittle himself after being ridiculed for his behaviour in the first debate?

**Question 5**

When was Charles Gibson first hired by ABC?

**Question 6**

What style did Charles Gibson usually use when he hosted news programmes?

**Question 7**

Who usually watches Charles Gibson when he's on ABC News?

**Question 8**

What kind of comments does Charles Gibson use in a difficult interview?

**Question 9**

What was Charles Gibson's comment on Bush's answer to his first question?

**Text number 17**

Bush and Kerry faced off in the third and final debate at Arizona State University on 13 October. The debate was watched by 51 million viewers and moderated by CBS News' Bob Schieffer. At the time of the ASU debate, however, 15.2 million viewers were simultaneously watching the Major League Baseball playoffs. After Kerry had answered a question about gay rights and reminded the audience that Vice President Cheney's daughter was a lesbian, Cheney responded with a statement calling himself "a pretty angry father" because Kerry had used Cheney's daughter's sexual orientation for his political purposes.

**Question 0**

How many debates were there between Kerry and Bush in total?

**Question 1**

Where was the last debate between Kerry and Bush held?

**Question 2**

After the debate, what was the next biggest competitor for TV viewers?

**Question 3**

Who did Kerry announce as a lesbian when discussing gay rights some time after the debate?

**Question 4**

What name did Cheney call him after hearing Kerry's comments about his daughter?

**Question 5**

How many people in the US support gay rights?

**Question 6**

What did Cheney reproach Bob Schieffer for using for political advancement?

**Question 7**

When did Cheney's daughter come out as a lesbian?

**Question 8**

Which university did Cheney's daughter graduate from?

**Question 9**

What name did Bob Schieffer call himself when his children were featured on a CBS news story?

**Text number 18**

A voter in Minnesota handed in a ballot paper for the presidential election with "John Ewards" [sic] written on it. Electoral College officials certified this ballot as John Edwards for President. The remaining nine electors cast their votes for John Kerry. All ten electors in the state voted for John Edwards for Vice President (John Edwards' name was spelled correctly on all the ballots for Vice President). This was the first time in US history that an elector had voted for both President and Vice-President for the same person; another infidel elector had voted twice for Aaron Burr in the 1800 election, but under that electoral system, votes were only cast for President, and the second-place finisher in the Electoral College became Vice-President (and the second vote for Burr was rejected and given to Thomas Jefferson anyway, because it was against the Electoral College rules).

**Question 0**

Who received a certified ballot paper from the Electoral Commission even though his name was misspelled on the ballot paper?

**Question 1**

Had there ever been a case where a voter had voted for the same candidate for both president and vice-president?

**Question 2**

Which candidate won the unanimous vote for vice-president?

**Question 3**

What is the difference between the electoral system of 1800 and the system in place in 2004?

**Question 4**

Why did Thomas Jefferson get a second vote in the 1800 election?

**Question 5**

What did the Electoral Commission do when John Kerry's name was on the wrong ballot paper?

**Question 6**

How many states voted for John Edwards for President in the election?

**Question 7**

How many times had Aaron Burr previously stood for election?

**Question 8**

Who voted for John Edwards' presidential nomination and whose vote was rejected because it was against the rules?

**Question 9**

What state was Aaron Burr originally from?

**Text number 19**

The morning after the election, the major candidates were ahead. It was clear that in Ohio and the two other states that had not yet declared (New Mexico and Iowa), the result would decide the winner. Mr Bush had achieved a lead of around 130 000 votes, but the Democrats were referring to the provisional ballots yet to be counted, which had initially been reported as high as 200 000. Bush was provisionally leading with less than 5% of the vote in only four states, but if Iowa, Nevada and New Mexico had eventually gone to Kerry, Bush's win in Ohio would have resulted in a 269-269 victory in the electoral college. A tie in the electoral college would result in the election being decided in the House of Representatives with each state casting one vote regardless of population. Such a scenario would almost certainly have resulted in a Bush victory, since the Republicans controlled more delegations in the House of Representatives. Thus, the outcome of the election depended solely on the result in Ohio, regardless of the final outcome elsewhere. In the afternoon, Ohio Secretary of State Ken Blackwell announced that it was statistically impossible for the Democrats to get enough qualified votes in the primaries to win. At the time, the number of provisional ballots was reported to be 140,000 (and later estimated to be only 135,000). Following this announcement, John Kerry conceded defeat. If Kerry had won Ohio, he would have won the election even though he would have lost the national vote by more than 3 million votes, a complete reversal of the 2000 election, when Bush won the presidency even though he lost the vote to Al Gore by more than 500,000 votes.

**Question 0**

Why was the day after the elections tense?

**Question 1**

Despite Bush's apparent lead in the early stages, what was considered worrying?

**Question 2**

How would it be determined who would win in the event of a tie?

**Question 3**

Which state became the most important to ensure Bush's presidential election?

**Question 4**

Who did Bush lose the popular vote to in the 2000 presidential election?

**Question 5**

What was Kerry's leadership to begin with?

**Question 6**

What was Ken Blackwell waiting for that had not yet been counted?

**Question 7**

What were Kerry's initial leads in the four states?

**Question 8**

Which state became the most important for Al Gore's election victory?

**Question 9**

What did Al Gore announce that the Democrats could not do to win in 2000?

**Text number 20**

At the official vote count on January 6, a motion was presented to deny Ohio's votes. Because the motion was supported by at least one member of both the House and the Senate, the Election Code required both houses to withdraw to debate and vote on the motion. In the House of Representatives, 31 Democrats supported the motion. It was opposed by 178 Republicans, 88 Democrats and one independent. 52 Republicans and 80 Democrats abstained. Four of the four elected to the House had not yet taken office, and one seat was open. In the Senate, only the sponsor, Senator Boxer, supported the bill, while 74 senators opposed it and 25 did not vote. During the debate, no senator argued that the election result should be changed either by legal challenge or by a re-vote. Senator Boxer claimed that he made the motion not to challenge the election result but "to shed light on these abuses".

**Question 0**

Was there a debate in Ohio about the voting process?

**Question 1**

What was the decision on the recount proposal after both parliaments had finished their debates?

**Question 2**

Who was the only supporter of the Senate bill?

**Question 3**

Why did Senator Boxer say he voted the way he did?

**Question 4**

How many members of the House of Representatives did not vote?

**Question 5**

When was Boxer elected to office?

**Question 6**

Why did the Republicans say they made a motion to challenge Boxer?

**Question 7**

What did the four House officials who had not yet taken office say about the elections?

**Question 8**

What happened before four senators took office in Ohio?

**Question 9**

Why did the 31 Democrats in the House say they had not tabled a motion?

**Text number 21**

Kerry later stated that "because of widespread irregularities, it is impossible to know for sure that the [Ohio] result would reflect the will of the voters". In the same article, Democratic National Committee Chairman Howard Dean said: "I'm not sure that Ohio's election was fairly decided...". We know there was considerable voter suppression, and the machines were not reliable. It should come as no surprise that Republicans are willing to do unethical things to manipulate elections. That's what we suspect happened."

**Question 0**

What did Kerry say contributed to our ability to know whether the Ohio vote was non-partisan?

**Question 1**

Which Democratic official supported Kerry's theory about Ohio votes?

**Question 2**

What did they say about the equipment used to collect votes in Ohio?

**Question 3**

Who was the victim of election fraud in Ohio?

**Question 4**

What did Kerry think was the state of the voting machines?

**Question 5**

Who thinks Kerry was unethical in the election?

**Question 6**

What did the DNC say it was not possible to know for sure?

**Question 7**

What kind of repression was there in Ohio, according to Kerry?

**Question 8**

What did the DNC say Kerry did in the election?

**Text number 22**

The Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) sent a team of observers to monitor the 2004 presidential elections at the invitation of the US government. This was the first time that the OSCE had sent observers to the US presidential election, although they had been invited before. In September 2004, the OSCE published a report on the electoral process in the United States and a final report on the elections. The report states that "The November 2, 2004 elections in the United States largely fulfilled the OSCE's commitments under the 1990 Copenhagen Document. They took place in an environment reflecting a long-standing democratic tradition of institutions based on the rule of law, a free and generally professional media, and a civil society that was closely involved in the electoral process. The public showed exceptional interest in the two leading presidential candidates and the issues raised by their campaigns, as well as in the electoral process itself."

**Question 0**

Who was invited to oversee the 2004 presidential elections?

**Question 1**

Was this the only time the OSCE was invited to chair a presidential election?

**Question 2**

What were the findings of the OSCE team?

**Question 3**

What values did the OSCE say were upheld during the election process?

**Question 4**

Which group was invited to the US by the public in 1990?

**Question 5**

Why did the OSCE come to the United States in 1990?

**Question 6**

Who did the OSCE send to the United States in 1990?

**Question 7**

How many times had the OSCE visited the United States before 1990?

**Question 8**

What did the OSCE say about the 1990 elections?

**Text number 23**

The 2004 election was the first to be affected by campaign finance reforms under the Bipartisan Campaign Reform Act of 2002 (also known as the McCain-Feingold Bill, because it was sponsored by the US Senate). The restrictions on candidate and party fundraising imposed by the Act gave rise to a large number of so-called 527 groups. These groups, named after a section of the Internal Revenue Code, were able to raise large amounts of money for various political purposes, as long as they did not coordinate with political campaigns. Examples of 527 groups include Swift Boat Veterans for Truth, MoveOn.org, Media Fund and America Coming Together. Many of these groups were active throughout the campaign period (there was some similar activity, albeit on a much smaller scale, during the 2000 campaign).

**Question 0**

Which finance law influenced the 2004 elections?

**Question 1**

Where did the name McCain-Feingold Bill come from?

**Question 2**

How did the 527 groups come up with their names?

**Question 3**

What conditions gave the 527 groups the opportunity to campaign for funds?

**Question 4**

What is one of the 527 groups nominated in the 2004 elections?

**Question 5**

Which law was passed during the 2000 campaign?

**Question 6**

What reforms were made during the 2000 campaign?

**Question 7**

How many campaign finance groups were there in 2000?

**Question 8**

What year did McCain run for President of the United States?

**Question 9**

Which group supported McCain in the 2000 election?

**Text number 24**

In order to distinguish official from independent campaigning, political advertisements on television had to include a verbal disclaimer indicating the organisation responsible for the advertisement. Advertisements produced by political campaigns usually included the statement: 'I am [name of candidate] and I agree with this message'. Advertisements produced by independent organisations usually included the statement '[name of organisation] is responsible for the content of this advertisement' and, from 3 September (60 days before the general election), advertisements by such organisations were not allowed to mention any candidate by name. Previously, television advertisements only required a written advertisement "paid for".

**Question 0**

How were viewers able to determine who supported the political campaign ads they saw in the ads???

**Question 1**

What advertising was not allowed in the two months before the parliamentary elections?

**Question 2**

The official advertisements usually contained which sentence?

**Question 3**

The stand-alone adverts usually contained which sentence?

**Question 4**

What was previously the required slogan?

**Question 5**

What did the candidates need to identify when speaking at a supporter event?

**Question 6**

What were supporters supposed to point to 60 days before the election?

**Question 7**

What will help the public to distinguish between the candidates if their names are not mentioned before the elections?

**Question 8**

What method was used to declare candidate funding when a candidate made a speech earlier?

**Question 9**

What was required to be included, who was involved in selecting the candidate for the post?

**Text number 25**

Colorado's ballot initiative, known as Amendment 36, would have changed the way the state allocates electoral votes. Instead of giving all nine states' electoral votes to the candidate who received a majority of the vote, the amendment would have allocated Colorado's presidential electoral votes in proportion to the state's electoral votes, a unique system (in Nebraska and Maine, electoral votes are allocated based on the number of votes in each congressional district). Opponents argued that this allocation would reduce Colorado's influence in the Electoral College, and the amendment was ultimately defeated, receiving only 34% of the vote.

**Question 0**

What action proposed by the state would have affected the outcome of the vote count?

**Question 1**

What unique change did Colorado propose to make to the election voting process?

**Question 2**

Which two states designated votes based on their constituencies?

**Question 3**

Does everyone agree that Amendment 36 was a good idea?

**Question 4**

Did we accept amendment 36?

**Question 5**

What was the name of the amendment passed in Nebraska?

**Question 6**

What did Amendment 36 change in Nebraska?

**Question 7**

How was Amendment 36 described when it was on the Nebraska ballot?

**Question 8**

Where would Nebraska's influence be diminished by the 36th Amendment?

**Question 9**

How much of Nebraska's population did not like the amendment?

**Document number 312**

**Text number 0**

The current liberal party generally supports economic liberalism (see New Right). Historically, the party has been more in favour of economic protectionism and interventionism than in recent decades. However, since its inception, the party has considered itself anti-socialist. Strong opposition to socialism and communism in Australia and abroad was one of its founding principles. Robert Menzies, the party's founder and longest-serving leader, thought that the Australian middle class would form the party's main constituency.

**Question 0**

Which economic liberalism is also sometimes referred to?

**Question 1**

Does the Australian Liberal Party consider itself socialist or anti-socialist?

**Question 2**

Who was the longest serving leader of the Liberal Party of Australia?

**Question 3**

Who founded the Australian Liberal Party?

**Question 4**

What communism is also referred to?

**Question 5**

Does the Australian Liberal Party consider itself liberal or anti-socialist?

**Question 6**

Who was the longest-serving socialist in the Australian Liberal Party?

**Question 7**

Who founded communism in Australia?

**Question 8**

Which is now more supported by the Australian middle class?

**Text number 1**

Throughout its history, the Liberals have largely been an electorally relevant party for the middle class (whom Menzies called "the forgotten people" at the party's inception), although such class-based voting patterns are no longer as evident as they once were. The 1970s saw the emergence of a left-wing middle class that no longer voted Liberal. One effect in the 1970s was the success of the Australian Democrats breakaway party founded in 1977 by former Liberal minister Don Chipp and members of smaller Liberal parties; others in the left-wing section of the middle class switched to Labor.[On the other hand, the Liberals have been increasingly successful in recent years among socially conservative working-class voters. however, the Liberal Party's main base of support remains the upper middle class; 16 of the 20 richest federal electorates are held by the Liberals, and most of these are safe seats. In rural areas, they either compete or truce with the Nationals, depending on various factors.

**Question 0**

Who are the "forgotten people"?

**Question 1**

In what year were the Australian Democrats founded?

**Question 2**

Which former Liberal founded the Australian Democrats in 1977?

**Question 3**

Who are called voters?

**Question 4**

In what year was the Liberal Party founded?

**Question 5**

Which former Liberal founded the Liberal Party in 1977?

**Question 6**

Who holds 16 out of 20 middle-class voters?

**Question 7**

When did the left-wing federal electorate emerge that no longer voted Liberal?

**Text number 2**

Domestically, Menzies ran a fairly regulated economy, with public utilities in public ownership and commercial activity highly regulated by centralised wage regulation and high tariffs. Liberal leaders from Menzies to Malcolm Fraser generally maintained Australia's high tariff levels. At the time, the Liberal coalition partner, the Country Party, the older of the two parties in the coalition (now known as the National Party), had considerable influence over government economic policy. It was only in the late 1970s and 1980s, when the party was out of federal power, that the party began to be influenced by the so-called 'new right', a conservative liberal group that advocated deregulation of markets, privatisation of public institutions, reduction in the size of government programmes and tax cuts.

**Question 0**

Did Mezies and Malcom Fraser raise, maintain or lower tariff levels?

**Question 1**

Which group is currently known as the "National Party"?

**Question 2**

What is the "new right"?

**Question 3**

Were utilities in the Menzies' economy publicly or privately owned?

**Question 4**

Did Mezies and Malcom Fraser raise, maintain or lower the market level?

**Question 5**

Which group is currently known as the Australian Party?

**Question 6**

Were customs duties publicly or privately owned in the Menzies' economy?

**Question 7**

When did Malcolm Fraser start to be influenced by the New Right?

**Question 8**

Where did Fraser run a reasonably regulated economy?

**Text number 3**

The immediate predecessor of the Liberals was the United Australia Party (UAP). More broadly, the ideological heritage of the Liberal Party extended to the anti-labour factions of the first Commonwealth parliaments. The Commonwealth Liberal Party was the 1909 merger of the Free Trade Party and the Protectionist Party by the second Prime Minister Alfred Deakin in response to the growing electoral weight of the Labor Party. The Commonwealth Liberal Party merged with several Labor dissidents (including Billy Hughes) to form the Australian National Party in 1917, which in turn merged with Labor dissidents to form the UAP in 1931.

**Question 0**

Which group was the forerunner of the Liberals?

**Question 1**

Where did the Liberal ideology come from?

**Question 2**

Where did the Commonwealth Liberal Party merge?

**Question 3**

In what year was the Australian National Party founded?

**Question 4**

Which group was the forerunner of the Free Trade Party?

**Question 5**

What was the reason for the Liberals' visibility?

**Question 6**

Where did the UAP merge?

**Question 7**

In what year was the Prime Minister's Party founded?

**Question 8**

When did Billy Hughes merge the Free Trade Party and the Protectionist Party?

**Text number 4**

The UAP had been formed as a new conservative alliance in 1931, led by the Labor defector Joseph Lyons, whose position and that of other Labor rebels against the more radical proposals of the labor movement to deal with the Great Depression had won the support of prominent Australian conservatives. With Australia still suffering the effects of the Great Depression, the newly formed party won a landslide victory in the 1931 election, and Lyons' government won three consecutive elections. It largely eschewed Keynesian pump-priming and pursued a more conservative fiscal policy based on debt reduction and a balanced budget to help Australia survive the recession. After Lyons' death in 1939, Robert Menzies took over as Prime Minister on the eve of war. Menzies served as Prime Minister from 1939 to 1941, but resigned as leader of the minority government of World War II when the parliamentary majority fell short. The UAP, led by Billy Hughes, collapsed after suffering a heavy defeat in the 1943 elections.

**Question 0**

Which economic event influenced the 1931 elections?

**Question 1**

How many consecutive elections did the Lyon government win?

**Question 2**

What event led Robert Menzies to become Prime Minister?

**Question 3**

How many years did Robert Menzies serve as Prime Minister?

**Question 4**

Which economic event influenced the 1943 elections?

**Question 5**

How many Conservative elections did Robert Menzies win?

**Question 6**

What event led to Billy Hughes becoming Prime Minister?

**Question 7**

How many years did Billy Hughes serve as Prime Minister?

**Question 8**

What brought the UAP out of recession?

**Text number 5**

Menzies convened a conference of conservative parties and other groups opposed to the Australian Labor Party, which met in Canberra on 13 October 1944 and again in Albury, New South Wales in December 1944. Since 1942, Menzies had maintained his public profile with a series of 'The Forgotten People' radio speeches, reminiscent of Franklin D. Roosevelt's 'fireside chats' in the 1930s, in which he referred to the middle class as the 'backbone of Australia', but which the political parties had taken for granted.

**Question 0**

How does Menzies' "Forgotten People" radio speeches compare?

**Question 1**

How did Roosevelt refer to the middle class?

**Question 2**

Was the meeting in Canberra a pro- or anti-Australian Labor group?

**Question 3**

Where was the second anti-labour party organised in 1944?

**Question 4**

What are the political parties of Menzies' "forgotten people" compared to?

**Question 5**

Was the Canberra meeting a pro-Franklin D. Roosevelt or anti-Franklin D. Roosevelt group?

**Question 6**

Where was the second campfire debate held in 1944?

**Question 7**

How did Roosevelt refer to political parties?

**Question 8**

Since when did Roosevelt maintain his public profile with the "forgotten people"?

**Text number 6**

The party was officially announced at Sydney Town Hall on 31 August 1945. It took the name "Liberal" in honour of the old Commonwealth Liberal Party. The new party was dominated by remnants of the old UAP; with a few exceptions, the UAP party room became the Liberal party room. The Australian Women's National League, a powerful conservative women's organisation, also merged into the new party. Young Nationalists, a conservative youth group founded by Menzies, also merged into the new party. It became the nucleus of the Liberal Party's youth wing, the Young Liberals. By September 1945 there were over 90 000 members, many of whom had not previously belonged to any political party.

**Question 0**

Where was the Liberal Party officially announced?

**Question 1**

Where does the name "liberal" come from?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the youth section of the Liberal Party?

**Question 3**

How many members were there in the Young Liberals in September 1945?

**Question 4**

Where was the creation of the UAP party officially announced?

**Question 5**

Where does the name "Young Nationalists" come from?

**Question 6**

What was the name of the conservative section of the Liberal Party?

**Question 7**

How many members did the UAP have by September 1945?

**Question 8**

What was an influential liberal women's organisation?

**Text number 7**

After defeating Labour in the 1946 election, Menzies led the Liberals to victory in the 1949 election, and the party remained in government for a record 23 years - still the longest continuous period of government at federal level. During the post-war boom period of the Menzies government (1949-1966), Australia experienced sustained economic growth, and Menzies fulfilled his 1949 election promises to end rationing of butter, tea and petrol, and a five shilling donation to first-born children and others. Despite being unabashedly Anglophile himself, the Menzies government concluded a number of important defence and trade agreements that allowed Australia to get out of Britain's sphere of influence after the war, opened Australia to multinational immigration and initiated major legislative reforms for Aboriginal people.

**Question 0**

How many years were the Liberals in power after the 1949 elections?

**Question 1**

What promises did Menzies make in the 1949 elections?

**Question 2**

Over what period of time did the Australian economy grow in the long term?

**Question 3**

How many years were the Liberals in power after the 1966 elections?

**Question 4**

What promises did Menzies make in the 1966 elections?

**Question 5**

During what period of time were legal reforms for long-term children introduced in Australia?

**Question 6**

Who was the shameful Anglophile?

**Question 7**

Who fulfilled their promise in the 1966 elections?

**Text number 8**

Menzies came to power in the same year that the Communist Party of Australia led a coal strike to improve working conditions for miners. That same year, Joseph Stalin's Soviet Union exploded its first atomic bomb and Mao Zedong led the Chinese Communist Party to power in China; a year later, communist North Korea invaded South Korea. Anti-communism was a key political issue in the 1950s and 1960s. Menzies was staunchly anti-communist; he sent troops to the Korean War and tried to ban the Australian Communist Party in a referendum that failed during the war. The Labor Party broke up because of concerns about the Communist Party's influence in the trade union movement, leading to the formation of a breakaway Democratic Labor Party with support from the Liberal Party and the Country Party.

**Question 0**

What was the central political issue in the 1950s and 1960s?

**Question 1**

What actions demonstrated Menzies' anti-communist views?

**Question 2**

What divided the Labour Party?

**Question 3**

What was the central political theme of the Democratic Labour Party?

**Question 4**

Which actions demonstrated Stalin's anti-communist convictions?

**Question 5**

What was the Soviet Union divided into?

**Question 6**

Who sent troops to the communist war?

**Question 7**

Why did the Soviet Union lead the coal strike?

**Text number 9**

In 1951, at the beginning of the Cold War, Menzies spoke of the possibility of a looming third world war. The Menzies government formed Australia's first formal military alliance outside the British Commonwealth when the ANZUS treaty between Australia, New Zealand and the United States was signed in San Francisco in 1951. Foreign Minister Percy Spender had put forward a proposal for the alliance to operate along the lines of NATO. The treaty stated that any attack against any of the three parties in the Pacific would be considered a threat to each party and that the common danger would be met in accordance with the constitutional procedures of each country. In 1954, the Menzies government signed the Southeast Asia Joint Defence Treaty (SEATO) as a Southeast Asian counterpart to NATO. In the same year, Soviet diplomat Vladimir Petrov and his wife defected from the Soviet Embassy in Canberra, revealing evidence of Russian espionage activities; Menzies called in a Royal Commission to investigate.

**Question 0**

Which treaty was Australia's first military alliance outside the British Commonwealth?

**Question 1**

Which regions were involved in the ANZUS agreement?

**Question 2**

Where was the ANZUS Treaty signed in 1951?

**Question 3**

What does SEATO stand for?

**Question 4**

Which group is NATO's opponent?

**Question 5**

Which treaty was Austria's first military alliance outside NATO?

**Question 6**

Which regions were involved in the NATO agreement?

**Question 7**

Where was the NATO Treaty signed in 1951?

**Question 8**

What acronym did Percy Spender sign?

**Question 9**

Which group is the counterpart of foreign affairs?

**Text number 10**

Menzies continued the expanded immigration program established under Chifley and took significant steps towards dismantling the White Australia policy. In the early 1950s, Foreign Minister Percy Spender helped to establish the Colombo Program to provide economic assistance to underdeveloped countries in the Australian region. Under this programme, many future Asian leaders studied in Australia. In 1958, the government replaced the arbitrary European language proficiency test in the Immigration Act with an entry permit system based on economic and skills criteria. In 1962, the Menzies Commonwealth Electoral Act provided that all Indigenous Australians should have the right to register and vote in federal elections (prior to this, Indigenous Australians in Queensland and Western Australia and some Indigenous Australians in the Northern Territory had been excluded from voting unless they were ex-servicemen). In 1949, the Liberals appointed Dame Enid Lyons as the first woman in the Australian Cabinet. Menzies remained firmly in favour of links with the monarchy and the British Commonwealth, but formalised the alliance with the United States and concluded the Australia-Japan trade agreement signed in July 1957, which launched post-war trade with Japan and began a surge in Australian exports of coal, iron ore and mineral resources that grew steadily until Japan became Australia's largest trading partner.

**Question 0**

What did the Immigration Act's entry permit system contain?

**Question 1**

Which ruling gave Indigenous Australians the right to vote?

**Question 2**

Who was the first woman in the Australian Cabinet?

**Text number 11**

Holt increased Australia's involvement in the growing war in Vietnam, which attracted some public opposition. His government oversaw the transition to the decimal system. Holt confronted Britain's withdrawal from Asia by visiting and hosting many Asian leaders and expanding relations with the United States, and he hosted the US president, his friend Lyndon B. Johnson, the first visit to Australia. The Holt government introduced the Immigration Act 1966, which effectively dismantled the White Australia policy and increased access for non-European immigrants, including refugees fleeing the Vietnam War. Holt also organised a 1967 referendum to remove a discriminatory clause in the Australian Constitution that prevented Indigenous Australians from being counted in the census. The referendum was one of the few that was overwhelmingly supported by the Australian electorate (over 90% voted 'yes'). By the end of 1967, the Liberals' initially popular support for the Vietnam War was causing growing public protest.

**Question 0**

Under whose government was the changeover to the decimal currency made?

**Question 1**

Which of Holt's positions attracted some public opposition?

**Question 2**

Which referendum allowed Indigenous Australians to be counted in the census?

**Question 3**

How many Australians voted in favour of the 1967 referendum?

**Question 4**

Under whose authority did the government experience the transition to a referendum?

**Question 5**

Which of Holt's positions were supported?

**Question 6**

Which referendum allowed Vietnam to be counted in the census?

**Question 7**

How many Aboriginal women in Australia voted in favour of the 1967 referendum?

**Question 8**

What did the 1966 Immigration Act extend?

**Text number 12**

The Gorton government increased funding for the arts and established the Arts Council of Australia, the Australian Film Development Corporation and the National Film and Television Training School. The Gorton government passed laws providing for equal pay for men and women, increased pensions, allowances and education grants, and provided free health care for 250 000 of the country's poor (but not universal health care). The Gorton government kept Australia involved in the Vietnam War, but stopped replacing troops at the end of 1970.

**Question 0**

Which government emphasised support for the arts?

**Question 1**

Which government established equal pay for men and women?

**Question 2**

In what year did the Gorton government stop replacing troops in Vietnam?

**Question 3**

Which government emphasised support for free cinema?

**Question 4**

Which government set up an equal school for men and women?

**Question 5**

In what year did the Gorton government stop replacing troops in Australia?

**Question 6**

Who increased business financing?

**Question 7**

How many of the nation's poor received education grants?

**Text number 13**

Gorton maintained good relations with the United States and the United Kingdom, but sought closer ties with Asia. The Gorton government's popularity declined in the 1969 elections. Liberal leaders in the states considered his policies too centrist, while other liberals disliked his personal conduct. In 1971, Defence Minister Malcolm Fraser resigned, saying that Gorton was "not fit for the great office of Prime Minister". In the Liberal leadership vote, the party was split 50/50, and although this was not enough to remove Gorton as leader, Gorton felt that even this support was not enough and he resigned.

**Question 0**

Which continent did Gorton want to establish closer relations with?

**Question 1**

Who commented that Gorton is not fit to be Prime Minister?

**Question 2**

Did Gorton get impeached, voted out or resign?

**Question 3**

Which countries did Gorton have close relations with?

**Question 4**

With which continent did the country's liberal leaders want to intensify their relations?

**Question 5**

Who commented that Gorton is not worthy of voter support?

**Question 6**

With which countries did Fraser maintain close relations?

**Question 7**

When did the Fraser government's approval ratings fall?

**Question 8**

Who thought Fraser's policies were too centralised?

**Text number 14**

During McMahon's tenure, Neville Bonner joined the Senate and became the first Indigenous representative in the Australian Parliament. Elected by the Liberal Party to fill the Senate seat vacated in 1971, Bonner celebrated her maiden speech with a boomerang toss on the lawns of Parliament. Bonner won the 1972 election and served as a Liberal Senator for 12 years. He worked on indigenous issues and social welfare and proved himself to be an independent senator who often dissented from the votes in the House.

**Question 0**

Who became the first Australian Member of Parliament?

**Question 1**

How long did Bonner serve as a Liberal senator?

**Question 2**

How was Bonner appointed to his post?

**Question 3**

Who became the first native-born Liberal in Parliament?

**Question 4**

How long was Bonner independent?

**Question 5**

How was McMahon appointed?

**Question 6**

What year did McMahon win the election?

**Question 7**

Where did McMahon give a boomerang throwing demonstration?

**Text number 15**

After the 1974-75 loan issue, the Liberal-Labour coalition led by Malcolm Fraser claimed the Whitlam government was incompetent and delayed the approval of the government's money loans in the Senate until the government promised a new election. Whitlam refused, Fraser insisted, leading to the 1975 Australian constitutional crisis. The stalemate ended when Governor-General Sir John Kerr dismissed the Whitlam government on 11 November 1975 and Fraser was appointed interim Prime Minister pending an election. Fraser won the 1975 election in a landslide.

**Question 0**

On what day did the deadlock over the 1975 constitutional crisis end?

**Question 1**

How did the deadlock between Whitlam and Fraser end?

**Question 2**

Who won the 1975 election by a landslide?

**Question 3**

At what point did Kerr claim that Whitlam had delayed the approval of the money bonds?

**Question 4**

Who won the 1974 elections by a landslide?

**Question 5**

What did Kerr claim?

**Question 6**

When was Kerr appointed interim Prime Minister?

**Question 7**

When did Whitlam win the election?

**Text number 16**

Fraser retained some of the social reforms of the Whitlam era while pursuing tighter fiscal restraint. His government included the first federal Aboriginal MP, Neville Bonner, and in 1976 Parliament passed the Aboriginal Land Rights Act 1976, which applied only to the Northern Territory but established 'inalienable' title to some traditional lands. Fraser founded the multicultural broadcaster SBS, took in Vietnamese refugees, opposed white minority rule under apartheid regimes in South Africa and Rhodesia, and opposed Soviet expansion. However, no significant economic reform programme was implemented. By 1983, the Australian economy was suffering from the recession of the early 1980s and the effects of a severe drought. Fraser had promoted 'states' rights' and his government refused to use Commonwealth powers to block the construction of the Franklin Dam in Tasmania in 1982. Liberal Minister Don Chipp resigned from the party and formed a new social liberal party, the Australian Democrats, in 1977. Fraser won substantial majorities in the 1977 and 1980 elections, but then lost to the Bob Hawke-led Australian Labor Party in the 1983 election.

**Question 0**

Which document gave indigenous peoples the right to certain traditional lands?

**Question 1**

What was the environmental impact on the Australian economy by 1983?

**Question 2**

Which party did Don Chipp resign to form in 1977?

**Question 3**

Who did Frazer finally lose to in 1983?

**Question 4**

Which document gave Indigenous people the right to Tasmania?

**Question 5**

What was the environmental impact on the Australian economy by 1976?

**Question 6**

Which party did Neville Bonner resign to form in 1977?

**Question 7**

Who did Frazer finally lose to in 1976?

**Question 8**

Who opposed Aboriginal rule under apartheid in South Africa and Rhodesia?

**Text number 17**

Howard differed from his Labor predecessor Paul Keating in his support for traditional Australian institutions such as the Australian monarchy, the celebration of ANZAC Day and the design of the Australian flag, but like Keating he continued to privatise public utilities and introduce a broad consumption tax (although Keating had abandoned support for the GST by the time of his 1993 election victory). Howard's premiership coincided with the 11 September attacks on the US by Al Qaeda. The Howard government invoked the ANZUS treaty in response to the attacks and supported the US campaigns in Afghanistan and Iraq.

**Question 0**

How did Howard get rid of Paul Keating?

**Question 1**

In what ways did Howard resemble Paul Keating?

**Question 2**

Which government supported the US war in Afghanistan and Iraq?

**Question 3**

What agreement did the Australian government use to support the United States?

**Question 4**

How did Howard leave the ANZUS programme?

**Question 5**

In what way was Howard like ANZUS?

**Question 6**

Which government supported Australia's war against Afghanistan and Iraq?

**Question 7**

Under what agreement did ANZAC support the US?

**Question 8**

When was Keating's premiership?

**Text number 18**

In 2010, the party improved its vote share in state elections in Tasmania and South Australia and won state government status in Victoria. In March 2011, the New South Wales Liberal-National Coalition, led by Barry O'Farrell, won the largest electoral victory in Australia's post-war history in a state government election. In Queensland, the Liberal and National parties merged in 2008 to form the new Queensland Liberal National Party (registered as the Queensland branch of the Australian Liberal Party). In March 2012, the new party entered government with a historic landslide victory, led by former Brisbane Mayor Campbell Newman.

**Question 0**

Which parties merged in Queensland in 2008 to form the new Queensland National Liberal Party?

**Question 1**

Which party won a historic landslide victory in March 2012?

**Question 2**

Who led the new Queensland Liberal Party in the March 2012 election?

**Question 3**

Which parties merged in Queensland in 2008 to form the New South Wales Liberal-National Coalition?

**Question 4**

Which party won a historic landslide victory in March 2011?

**Question 5**

Who led the new Queensland Liberal Party in the March 2010 election?

**Question 6**

Which parties merged in 2011?

**Question 7**

Who led the Liberal-National coalition in New South Wales?

**Text number 19**

After the 2007 federal election, the parliamentary Liberal Party elected Dr Brendan Nelson as party leader. On 16 September 2008, Mr Nelson lost the leadership to Malcolm Turnbull in the second election, which was held after a dissenting motion. In the leadership election held on 1 December 2009, Mr Turnbull lost to Tony Abbott by 42 votes to 41 in the second ballot. Mr Abbott led the party into the 2010 federal election, which saw the Liberal Party's vote increase and led to the first deadlock since the 1940 election.

**Question 0**

How close was the competition between Turnbull and Abbott in 2009?

**Question 1**

Who was elected to the parliamentary Liberal Party after the 2007 federal elections?

**Question 2**

Who did Nelson lose the party to in 2008?

**Question 3**

How close was the race between Turnbull and Abbott in 2008?

**Question 4**

Who was elected to the parliamentary Liberal Party after the 1940 federal elections?

**Question 5**

Who did Abbott lose the party to in 2008?

**Question 6**

In which elections did the number of votes in Parliament increase?

**Question 7**

When did Nelson lose leadership to Tony Abbott?

**Text number 20**

Malcolm Turnbull is the party leader and Julie Bishop the vice-president. The duo were elected to their positions in the September 2015 Liberal leadership election, with Bishop as acting deputy leader and Turnbull replacing Tony Abbott, whom he subsequently succeeded as Australia's prime minister. Now Turnbull's government, the party had been elected in the 2013 federal election to replace Abbott's government, which took office on 18 September 2013. Colin Barnett has been Premier of Western Australia since 2008, Will Hodgman Premier of Tasmania since 2014 and Mike Baird Premier of New South Wales since 2014. Adam Giles is also Premier of the Northern Territory and has led the Liberal minority government since 2015. The party is in opposition in Victoria, Queensland, South Australia and the Australian Capital Territory.

**Question 0**

Who is the leader of the Australian Liberal Party?

**Question 1**

Who is the deputy leader of the Australian party?

**Question 2**

Who was Turnbull elected to replace?

**Question 3**

What was the former name of the Turnbull government?

**Question 4**

Who is the leader of the Abbott Party?

**Question 5**

Who is the deputy leader of Abbott's party?

**Question 6**

Who was Giles chosen to replace?

**Question 7**

What was the former name of Western Australia?

**Question 8**

Who is the Prime Minister of the Liberal Party?

**Text number 21**

Although freedom and the freedom of enterprise are at the heart of the party's convictions, sections of the party have wavered between so-called "small l liberalism" and social conservatism. Historically, Liberal governments have been responsible for a number of significant 'socially liberal' reforms, including the opening of Australia to multinational immigration under Menzies and Harold Holt, Holt's 1967 referendum on Aboriginal rights, Sir John Gorton's support for film and the arts, the election of the first Aboriginal Senator, Neville Bonner, in 1971, and Malcolm Fraser's 1976 Aboriginal Land Rights Act. Western Australian Liberal Ken Wyatt became the first Indigenous Australian elected to the House of Representatives in 2010.

**Question 0**

Who was the first Indigenous Australian elected to the House of Representatives?

**Question 1**

What year was the first Indigenous Australian elected to the House of Representatives?

**Question 2**

What year was the first Aboriginal Senator elected?

**Question 3**

Who was the first indigenous liberal elected to the House of Representatives?

**Question 4**

What year was the first Indigenous Liberal elected to the House of Representatives?

**Question 5**

What year was the first Liberal Senator elected?

**Question 6**

Who supported Neville Bonner and art?

**Question 7**

Who was the West Australian artist?

**Text number 22**

The Liberal Party's organisation is dominated by six state divisions, reflecting the party's original commitment to federal government (all Liberal governments held firmly to this commitment until 1983, but the Howard government, showing strong centralising tendencies, largely abandoned it). Menzies deliberately created a weak national party apparatus and a strong interstate split. Party policy is decided almost exclusively by parliamentary groups, not by party rank and file members, although Liberal Party members do have some influence on party policy.

**Question 0**

How many state chambers are there in the Liberal Party organisation?

**Question 1**

Which politician deliberately created strong state divisions for a weaker national party?

**Question 2**

Who makes party policy?

**Question 3**

How many state departments are there in the Howard Governments organisation?

**Question 4**

Which politician deliberately created strong state lines and a stronger national party?

**Question 5**

Who makes the party divisions?

**Question 6**

When did all Liberal governments maintain a parliamentary government?

**Question 7**

What is dominated by party political differences?

**Text number 23**

Menzies strongly opposed Labor's plans to nationalise Australia's banking system, and after winning the 1949 election he secured a by-election in April 1951 after the Labor-dominated Senate refused to pass his banking legislation. The Liberal-Labour coalition regained control of the Senate. Government returned again in the 1954 election; the formation of the anti-communist Democratic Labour Party (DLP) and the subsequent split in the Australian Labour Party in early 1955 helped the Liberals to another victory in December 1955. John McEwen replaced Arthur Fadden as leader of the Country Party in March 1958, and the Menzies-McEwen coalition returned again in the November 1958 election - their third victory against Labor's H. V. Evatt. The Coalition won a narrow victory against Labour's Arthur Calwell in the December 1961 election, held in the midst of the credit crunch. Menzies stood for the last time in the November 1963 election, where he again defeated Calwell, and the Coalition won back its defeat in the House of Representatives. Menzies resigned from parliament on 26 January 1966.

**Question 0**

Did Menzies support or oppose the nationalisation of the banking system in Australia?

**Question 1**

What helped the Liberals to victory in December 1955?

**Question 2**

When did Menzies resign from Parliament?

**Question 3**

Was Evatt for or against the nationalisation of the banking system in Australia?

**Question 4**

What helped the Liberals to victory in December 1958?

**Question 5**

When did Evatt resign from Parliament?

**Question 6**

Who replaced Arthur Fadden as leader of the Senate?

**Question 7**

Who refused to accept labour legislation?

**Text number 24**

The Liberals were then divided, with former finance minister John Howard and former foreign secretary Andrew Peacock vying for the leadership. The Australian economy was in recession in the early 1990s. Unemployment was 11.4% in 1992. In November 1991, under the leadership of Dr John Hewson, the Opposition launched the 650-page Fightback! policy document, a radical collection of 'dry' economic liberal measures including the introduction of a goods and services tax, various changes to Medicare, including the removal of bulk billing for non-union contract holders, a nine-month limit on unemployment benefits and various changes to industrial relations, including the abolition of commission income, a $13 billion income tax cut for middle and high income earners, $10 billion in cuts to government spending, the abolition of state payroll taxes and the privatisation of a number of state-owned enterprises - the beginning of a very different future from the Keynesian economic conservatism of previous Liberal and National Coalition governments. At the heart of the policy document was a 15% GST tax. Labour Prime Minister Paul Keating campaigned throughout 1992 against the Fightback package and in particular the GST, which he described as an attack on the working class because it shifted the tax burden from direct taxation of the rich to indirect taxation as a broad-based consumption tax. Pressure groups and public opinion were relentless, leading Hewson to exempt food from the proposed GST - leading to questions about the complexity of which foods were and were not to be exempt from the GST. Hewson's difficulty in explaining this to voters was demonstrated by the infamous birthday cake interview, which some consider a turning point in the election campaign. Keating won a record fifth consecutive Labour term in the 1993 election. Several of the proposals were later passed into law in some form, to a lesser extent under Keating's Labor government and to a greater extent under Howard's Liberal government (the most famous being the GST), while the Abbott Liberal government revisited unemployment benefits and the mass bill for a time.

**Question 0**

Who were the two title holders who fought for political power in the early 1990s?

**Question 1**

What was the unemployment rate in Australia in 1992?

**Question 2**

Which debate gave an example of how difficult it is to explain which foods are covered and which are not covered by the goods and services tax?

**Question 3**

Which two title holders fought for political power in the GST?

**Question 4**

What was the unemployment rate in Australia in 1993?

**Question 5**

What the debate showed was an example of how difficult it is to explain which governments are and are not covered by the taxation of goods and services.

**Question 6**

When did John Hewson start the campaign against the Fightback package?

**Question 7**

When did Paul Keating publish the Fightback! policy document?

**Text number 25**

In South Australia, the Liberal and Country League (LCL), originally part of the Liberal and Country Party and led mainly by South Australian Prime Minister Tom Playford, was in power from the 1933 election to the 1965 election, albeit with the help of the gerrymander known as Playmander. LCL's Steele Hall ruled for one term from the 1968 election to the 1970 election, during which time he initiated the dismantling of Playmander. David Tonkin, as leader of the South Australian branch of the Liberal Party of Australia, became Prime Minister for one term at the 1979 election and lost his position at the 1982 election. The Liberals returned to power at the 1993 election and were led by Prime Ministers Dean Brown, John Olsen and Rob Kerin for two terms until they were defeated at the 2002 election. Since then they have remained in opposition under a record five opposition leaders.

**Question 0**

How long was Tom Playford in political power?

**Question 1**

How many consecutive defeats has the Liberal Party suffered since the 2002 elections?

**Question 2**

In what years did the demolition of Playmander begin?

**Question 3**

How long was Dean Brown in power?

**Question 4**

How many consecutive defeats has David Tonkin suffered since the 2002 elections?

**Question 5**

In what years did the dismantling of the LCL begin?

**Question 6**

Which prime ministers led the Liberals after the 1970 election?

**Question 7**

Who did the opposition leaders lead?

**Document number 313**

**Text number 0**

In Japanese they are usually called bushi (武士?, [bu.ɕi]) or buke (武家?). According to translator William Scott Wilson: "In Chinese, the character 侍 was originally a verb meaning "to serve" or "to follow persons" in the upper ranks of society, and this is also true of the original Japanese term saburau. In both countries, the terms were named to mean "those who serve in the close company of nobles", and the Japanese pronunciation was changed to saburau. According to Wilson, an early reference to the word 'samurai' appears in Kok's Wakashū (905-914), the first imperial poetic anthology, completed in the early 10th century.

**Question 0**

What was William Scott Wilson's occupation?

**Question 1**

What are samurai usually called in Japan?

**Question 2**

Where was the word "samurai" first used?

**Question 3**

When was the word "samurai" first used?

**Text number 1**

By the end of the 13th century, samurai became almost entirely synonymous with bush, and the word became closely associated with the middle and upper classes of the warrior class. Samurai were generally associated with their clan and their lord, trained as officers in military tactics and grand strategy, and adhered to rules that later became known as bushidō. Although the samurai made up less than 10% of the Japanese population at the time, their teachings can still be found in everyday life and in modern Japanese martial arts.

**Question 0**

What samurai meant almost the same thing?

**Question 1**

What did the Samurai join?

**Question 2**

How much of Japan was Samurai?

**Question 3**

Where do the teachings of the samurai live?

**Question 4**

Which class did the samurai belong to?

**Text number 2**

In 663 AD. After the Battle of Hakusukinoe against Tang China and Silla, which led to the Japanese withdrawal from Korea, Japan underwent major reforms. One of the most important was the Taika reform, issued by Prince Naka no Ōe (Emperor Tenji) in 646 AD. This edict enabled the Japanese aristocracy to adopt the political structure, bureaucracy, culture, religion and philosophy of the Tang dynasty. The Taihō Code of 702 AD and the later Yōrō Code required the population to register regularly for a census, a precursor to national conscription. Knowing how the population was divided, Emperor Mommu introduced a law that every fourth or four of four adult males would be called up for the national army. These soldiers had to buy their own weapons, and in return they were exempt from customs duties and taxes. This was one of the first attempts by the imperial government to form an organised army on the model of the Chinese system. Later historians called it the "Gundan-Sei" (軍団制), and it is believed to have been short-lived.

**Question 0**

When was the battle of Hakusukinoe fought?

**Question 1**

Who was the battle of Hakusukinoe against?

**Question 2**

What was the impact of the battle of Hakusukinoe?

**Question 3**

Who led the Taika reform?

**Question 4**

When was the Taika reform implemented?

**Text number 3**

In the early Heian period, in the late 800s and early 900s, Emperor Kammu sought to consolidate and expand his rule in northern Honshū, but the armies he sent to conquer the rebellious Emish tribes lacked motivation and discipline and failed in their mission. Emperor Kammu adopted the title of sei'i-taishōgun (征夷大将軍) or shogun and began to rely on powerful regional clans to conquer the Emish. These clan warriors, skilled in cavalry fighting and archery (kyūdō), became the emperor's primary tool for defeating rebellions. Although this is the first known use of the title 'shogun', it was a temporary title and did not carry any political power until the 1200s. At that time (7th-9th century), they were regarded by the officials of the imperial court as merely a military unit under the control of the imperial court.

**Question 0**

During which period did Emperor Kammu rule?

**Question 1**

When was Heian's time?

**Question 2**

Who did Kammu fail to conquer?

**Question 3**

What was Shogun's full name?

**Question 4**

Who introduced the Shogun concept?

**Text number 4**

After the Genpei War in the late 1200s, the clan leader Minamoto no Yoritomo was given the right to appoint shugo and jito, and was allowed to organise soldiers and policemen and collect a certain amount of tax. Initially their responsibilities were limited to arresting rebels and collecting the necessary military supplies, and they were forbidden to interfere with the Kokushi governors, but their responsibilities gradually expanded, and the samurai class emerged as the political rulers of Japan. Minamoto no Yoritomo opened the Kamakura Bakufu shogunate in 1192.

**Question 0**

When was the Genpe war?

**Question 1**

Who was given the right to appoint a shugo?

**Question 2**

What was Minamoto's position?

**Question 3**

Who opened the Kamakura Bakufu shogunate?

**Question 4**

When was the Kamakura Bakufu Saunaat opened?

**Text number 5**

Originally, the emperor and the non-military elite hired these warriors. Over time, they amassed enough manpower, resources and political support through alliances with each other to establish the first samurai-ruled government. As the power of these regional clans grew, their chief was usually a distant relative of the emperor and a lesser member of the Fujiwara, Minamoto or Taira clans. Although originally sent to the provincial regions for a four-year term as magistrates, the Toryos refused to return to the capital at the end of their term, and their sons inherited their positions and continued to lead the clans in putting down rebellions across Japan in the middle and late Heian period. With their growing military and economic power, the warriors eventually became a new force in court politics. Their involvement in Hōgen at the end of the Heian period consolidated their power, and eventually the rival Minamoto and Taira clans came face to face in the Heiji Rebellion of 1160.

**Question 0**

What rebellion took place in 1160?

**Question 1**

Who fought in the Heiji rebellion?

**Question 2**

How long were the Tory terms of office supposed to be?

**Question 3**

Which clan were the heads of most of the regional clans also members of?

**Text number 6**

The winner, Taira no Kiyomori, became an imperial advisor and was the first warrior to achieve such a position. Eventually, he seized power from the central government, established the first government ruled by samurai, and ousted the emperor as head of state. However, the Taira clan was still very conservative compared to its later successor, the Minamoto, and instead of expanding or strengthening its military power, the clan married its women to emperors and exercised power through the emperor.

**Question 0**

Who was the first warrior to become an imperial adviser?

**Question 1**

Who set up the first samurai-led administration?

**Question 2**

What role did the emperor play in the government ruled by the samurai?

**Question 3**

Who succeeded the Taira clan?

**Question 4**

How did the Taira clan expand its power?

**Text number 7**

Taira and Minamoto clashed again in 1180, starting the Gempe War, which ended in 1185. The Samurai fought the Dan-no-ura naval battle on the Shimonoseki Strait, which separates Honshu and Kyushu, in 1185. The victorious Minamoto no Yoritomo confirmed the samurai's superiority over the aristocracy. In 1190 he visited Kyoto, and in 1192 he became Sei'i-taishōgun, establishing the Kamakura shogunate, Kamakura Bakufu. Instead of ruling from Kyoto, he established a shogunate in Kamakura, close to his seat of power. "Bakufu" means "tent government", derived from the camps inhabited by soldiers, which corresponds to Bakufu's status as a military government.

**Question 0**

When did the Gempe War start?

**Question 1**

When did the Gempe War end?

**Question 2**

Which clans fought in the Gempe War?

**Question 3**

What does the Shimonoseki salt share?

**Question 4**

When was the Kamakura Shogunate founded?

**Text number 8**

In 1274, China's Yuan Dynasty, founded by the Mongols, sent a force of some 40 000 men and 900 ships to invade Japan in the northern Kyūshū region. Japan had only 10 000 samurai to meet this threat. The invading army was plagued throughout the attack by powerful thunderstorms, which helped the defenders by inflicting heavy casualties. Yuan's army was eventually recalled and the attack was called off. The Mongol invaders used small bombs in what was probably the first appearance of bombs and gunpowder in Japan.

**Question 0**

Which Chinese dynasty was founded by the Mongols?

**Question 1**

How many soldiers did Yuan send to invade Japan?

**Question 2**

How many ships did the Yuan send to invade Japan?

**Question 3**

Where did the Yuan invade Japan?

**Question 4**

How many samurai did Japan use to defeat the Yuan invasion?

**Text number 9**

The Japanese defenders recognised the possibility of a new invasion and in 1276 began to build a large stone wall around Hakata Bay. Completed in 1277, the wall stretched for 20 kilometres around the edge of the bay. It later served as a strong defence against the Mongols. The Mongols tried to settle matters diplomatically between 1275 and 1279, but every envoy sent to Japan was executed. This set the stage for one of the most famous battles in Japanese history.

**Question 0**

What was built around Hakata Bay?

**Question 1**

When did Japan start building the Hakata Bay dam?

**Question 2**

When did Japan complete the construction of the Hakata Bay dam?

**Question 3**

How long was the Hakata Bay barrier?

**Question 4**

What happened to the diplomatic envoys sent by Mongolia to Japan?

**Text number 10**

In 1592 and again in 1597, Toyotomi Hideyoshi, intending to invade Korea (唐入り) through Korea, mobilized an army of 160,000 peasants and samurai and sent it to Korea. (See Hideyoshi's invasions of Korea, Chōsen-seibatsu (朝鮮征伐?). The Japanese samurai armies took advantage of their mastery of the bow and arrow and their extensive war experience from the Sengoku period to achieve significant victories in most of Korea. Kato Kiyomasa advanced northeast into the Orangka region (now Manchuria) bordering Korea and crossed the border into Manchuria, but withdrew after counterattacks by the Yurchen in the area, as it was clear that he had outflanked the other Japanese invasion forces. Some of the most famous samurai generals of this war were Katō Kiyomasa, Konishi Yukinaga and Shimazu Yoshihiro. Shimazu Yoshihiro led some 7,000 samurai and defeated an allied force of Ming and Korean troops at the Battle of Sacheon in 1598, near the end of the campaigns, despite being heavily outnumbered. Yoshihiro was feared as Oni-Shimazu ('the giant of Shimazu'), and his nickname spread not only to Korea but also to Ming Dynasty China. Despite the superiority of Japanese ground forces, both campaigns ultimately failed (although they did destroy Korean territory), due in part to the superiority of the Korean navy (led by Admiral Yi Sun-shin, who constantly disrupted Japanese supply lines throughout the war), which led to a shortage of supplies on land), the commitment of substantial Ming forces to Korea, Korean guerrilla operations, underestimated resistance by Japanese commanders (in the first campaign in 1592, the Korean defenders were caught unprepared, under-equipped and under-equipped; they were quickly overrun, with only a few successful battles against the more experienced and battle-hardened Japanese forces - in the second campaign of 1597, the Koreans and Ming forces proved a much more difficult challenge, and, aided by continued Korean naval superiority, the Japanese limited their victories to parts of southeast Korea), and Japanese commitment to the campaigns faltered as the wars dragged on. The final death blow to the Japanese Korean campaigns came with the death of Hideyoshi in late 1598 and the recall of all Japanese troops in Korea by the Council of Five Elders (established by Hideyoshi to oversee the transition from his rule to that of his son Hideyor).

**Question 0**

When did Toyotomi Hideyoshi first send an army to Korea?

**Question 1**

When did Toyotomi Hideyoshi send the army to Korea for the second time?

**Question 2**

How many soldiers did Toyotomi Hideyoshi send to Korea?

**Question 3**

When was the Battle of Sacheon fought?

**Question 4**

When did Toyotomi Hideyoshi die?

**Text number 11**

It is worth noting that many of the samurai troops that were active throughout this period were not sent to Korea; most importantly, daimyo Tokugawa Ieyasu carefully kept his command out of the Korean campaigns, and other samurai chiefs who opposed Hideyoshi's domination of Japan either considered Hideyoshi's call to invade Korea or participated with a small token force. Most commanders who opposed or otherwise opposed/opposed Hideyoshi ended up as part of the so-called Eastern Army, while commanders loyal to Hideyoshi and his son (a notable exception to this trend was Katō Kiyomasa, who served with Tokugawa and the Eastern Army) largely committed themselves to the Western Army; These two opposing sides (named after the relative geographical locations of their commanders' kingdoms) later clashed, notably at the Battle of Sekigahara, which Tokugawa Ieyasu and the eastern forces won, paving the way for the establishment of the Tokugawa shogunate.

**Question 0**

Which military leader avoided sending his troops to Korea?

**Question 1**

To which group did most of the commanders who opposed the Korean invasion belong?

**Question 2**

Who was the commander loyal to Hideyoshi in the Eastern Army?

**Question 3**

Where did the armies of the East and West fight?

**Question 4**

Which army won the battle of Sekigahara?

**Text number 12**

Oda Nobunaga made innovations in organisation and military tactics, made extensive use of crossbows, developed trade and industry and fostered innovation. Thanks to his successive victories, he was able to bring about the end of the Ashikaga Bakufu and the disarmament of the Buddhist monks, who had for centuries fuelled unnecessary struggles among the people. The monks attacking the 'shrines' of the Buddhist temples were a constant headache for all the warlords and even the emperor who tried to control their activities. He died in 1582 when one of his generals, Akechi Mitsuhide, turned against him with his army.

**Question 0**

Who used arquebus a lot?

**Question 1**

What did Oda Nobunaga value?

**Question 2**

Who disarmed the Buddhist monks of Japan?

**Question 3**

When did Oda Nobunaga die?

**Question 4**

Who caused Oda Nobunaga's death?

**Text number 13**

Under the Tokugawa shogunate, samurai increasingly became courtiers, bureaucrats and administrators rather than warriors. Since samurai did not wage war from the early 1600s onwards, they gradually lost their military role in the Tokugawa era (also called the Edo period). By the end of the Tokugawa period, samurai were aristocratic bureaucrats of the daimyo, and their daishoi, the long and short swords (cf. katana and wakizashi) of the samurai, became a symbolic symbol of power rather than a weapon used in everyday life. They still had the legal right to cut down any ordinary person who did not show proper respect to the kiri-sute gomen (斬り捨て御免?), but it is not known to what extent this right was exercised. When the central government forced the daimyo to reduce the size of their army, the unemployed rōnin became a social problem.

**Question 0**

When did the samurai become less warlike?

**Question 1**

When was the last time samurai were used in battle?

**Question 2**

What was the second name of the Tokugawa era?

**Question 3**

What was the name of the samurai long sword?

**Question 4**

What was the name of the samurai short sword?

**Text number 14**

The theoretical obligations between a samurai and his lord (usually daimyo) increased from the Genpei period to the Edo period. They were strongly emphasised in the teachings of Confucius and Mencius (c. 550 BC), which were compulsory reading for trained samurai. Bushido was formalised by several influential leaders and families before the Edo period. Bushido was an ideal, and remained fairly consistent from the 13th century to the 19th century - the ideals of Bushido transcended social class, time and geography of the warrior class.

**Question 0**

Who were the lords of most samurai?

**Question 1**

Whose teachings did all the samurai read?

**Question 2**

What did Bushido exceed?

**Question 3**

When was Bushido formalised?

**Question 4**

Who made Bushido official?

**Text number 15**

The relative peace of the Tokugawa era was shattered when Commodore Matthew Perry's massive US Navy steamers arrived in 1853. Perry used his superior firepower to force Japan to open its borders to trade. Before then, only a few port cities under the tight control of the shogunate were allowed to participate in Western trade, and even then it was largely based on the idea of playing against the Franciscans and Dominicans (in exchange for the crucial arquebus technology, which in turn contributed significantly to the demise of the classical samurai system).

**Question 0**

What force invaded Japan in 1853?

**Question 1**

Who led the US naval invasion of Japan?

**Question 2**

What was Perry's goal in Japan?

**Question 3**

What technology helped bring about the Samurai's downfall?

**Text number 16**

From 1854 onwards, the Samurai army and navy were modernised. A naval school was established in Nagasaki in 1855. Naval students were sent to study at Western naval schools for several years, beginning a tradition of foreign-trained future leaders such as Admiral Enomoto. French naval engineers were hired to build naval arsenals, such as those at Yokosuka and Nagasaki. By the end of the Tokugawa shogunate in 1867, the Japanese shogunate fleet already had eight Western steam warships around the flagship Kaiyō Maru, which were used against pro-imperial forces during the Boshin War under the command of Admiral Enomoto. The French military embassy in Japan (1867) was established to help modernise the Baku armies.

**Question 0**

When was the Samurai army modernised?

**Question 1**

Where was a military school opened in Japan in 1855?

**Question 2**

What kind of military school did Japan open in 1855?

**Question 3**

Which nationality of engineers did Japan hire to build the naval arsenals?

**Question 4**

How many steam warships did Japan have in 1867?

**Text number 17**

In 1873, Emperor Meiji abolished the right of the samurai to be the sole armed force and replaced it with a more modern, Western-style conscript army. Samurai became shizoku (士族), retaining part of their pay, but the right to use the katana in public was eventually abolished, as was the right to execute ordinary people who treated them disrespectfully. The samurai's status finally ended after they had enjoyed hundreds of years of status, power and the ability to shape Japan's government. But the rule of the military class was not yet over. In defining what a modern Japan should be, the Meiji government decided to follow in the footsteps of Britain and Germany and base the country on the concept of nobility. The samurai were not the political power in the new order. With Meiji's reforms in the late 19th century, the samurai class was abolished and a Western-style national army was established. Japan's imperial armies were conscripted, but many samurai volunteered as soldiers, and many progressed to officer training. Much of the officer class of the Imperial Army was of samurai background, and they were highly motivated, disciplined and excellently trained.

**Question 0**

Who established the Western army in Japan?

**Question 1**

When was the Western army established in Japan?

**Question 2**

What did the samurai become in 1873?

**Question 3**

Who had the samurai killed?

**Question 4**

In which century were the Meiji reforms carried out?

**Text number 18**

Samurai were many of the early exchange students, not directly because they were samurai, but because many samurai were literate and well-educated scholars. Some of these exchange students set up private schools for higher education, while many samurai took up pens instead of guns and became journalists and writers and set up newspaper companies, and others entered government service. Some samurai became businessmen. For example, Iwasaki Yatarō, a samurai great-granddaughter, founded Mitsubishi.

**Question 0**

Which group made up the majority of the first exchange students in Japan?

**Question 1**

Who founded Mitsubishi?

**Question 2**

What was Iwasaki's relationship with the samurai?

**Question 3**

What kind of schools did the samurai establish?

**Question 4**

Who did the samurai write to?

**Text number 19**

The philosophies of Buddhism and Zen, and to a lesser extent Confucianism and Shinto, influenced samurai culture. Zen meditation became an important teaching because it provided a method for calming the mind. The Buddhist concept of reincarnation and rebirth led samurai to abandon torture and unnecessary killing, and some samurai even renounced violence altogether and became Buddhist monks after realising how fruitless their killing was. Some were killed when they realised these insights on the battlefield. The most significant role of Confucianism in samurai philosophy was to emphasise the importance of the relationship between lord and ruler - the loyalty that a samurai had to show to his lord.

**Question 0**

What philosophies influenced the samurai?

**Question 1**

What kind of meditation did the Samurai practice?

**Question 2**

What made some samurai stop fighting?

**Question 3**

What was the meaning of Confucianism for the samurai?

**Text number 20**

In the 13th century, Hōjō Shigetoki (1198-1261 AD) wrote: "When serving officially or in the lord's court, he should not think of a hundred or a thousand people, but think only of the lord's importance. "Carl Steenstrup noted that the warrior writings (gunki) of the 13th and 14th centuries "depicted the Bush in their natural element, war, and extolled such virtues as reckless bravery, ardent family pride and selfless, sometimes irrational devotion to master and husband". Feudal lords such as Shiba Yoshimasa (1350-1410 AD) noted that a warrior awaited an honourable death in the service of a military leader or emperor: "It is unfortunate to let the moment of death pass by....A man whose profession is the use of arms should first think and then act not only for his own reputation but also for the reputation of his posterity. He should not disgrace his name forever by holding his only life too dear....His main purpose in throwing away his life is to do so for the great enterprise of either the Emperor or some military general. That is what will give his descendants a great reputation."

**Question 0**

When was Hojo Shigetoki born?

**Question 1**

When did Hojo Shigetoki die?

**Question 2**

What were the ganks?

**Question 3**

When was Shiba Yoshimasa born?

**Question 4**

When did Shiba Yoshimasa die?

**Text number 21**

"First, a samurai who does not like fighting and has not set his heart in its right place, though born into the house of a warrior, must not be counted among his own servants.....It is forbidden to forget the great debt of kindness which he owes to his master and his ancestors, and thus to belittle the virtues of loyalty and filial piety....It is forbidden that any one... should pay little attention to his duties to his master... It is of the first importance to distinguish loyalty from disloyalty and to set rewards and punishments.""

**Question 0**

What does a samurai with a heart in the wrong place not like?

**Question 1**

What debt should not be forgotten by the Samurai?

**Question 2**

What virtues should samurai not underestimate?

**Text number 22**

Katō Kiyomasa was one of the most influential and famous lords of the Sengoku period. He commanded most of Japan's major clans during the Korean invasion (1592-1598). In his manual, which he addressed to 'all samurai regardless of rank', he told his followers that a warrior's only duty in life was '...to take up the long and short sword and die'. He also ordered his followers to make a great effort to study the military classics, especially those relating to loyalty and filial piety. He is best known for his quote, "If a man does not study Bushido daily, it is difficult for him to die bravely and manly." He said: "If a man does not study Bushido daily, it is difficult for him to die bravely and manly. Therefore, it is important to engrave this warrior's thing well in one's mind."

**Question 0**

When was Kato Kiyomasa in power?

**Question 1**

When did Japan start attacking Korea?

**Question 2**

When did Japan stop invading Korea?

**Question 3**

What did Kato Kiyomasa think the samurai were supposed to do?

**Question 4**

Which concept does Kato Kiyomasa think you should study every day?

**Text number 23**

Torii Mototada (1539-1600) was a feudal lord in the service of Tokugawa Ieyasu. On the eve of the Battle of Sekigahara, he volunteered to stay at the doomed Fushimi Castle as his lord advanced eastward. Torii and Tokugawa agreed that the castle was indefensible. As a show of loyalty to his lord, Torii decided to stay and promised to fight to the end with his men. Torii vowed, as was his custom, that he would not be taken alive. In a dramatic final battle, the garrison of 2,000 men held out for ten days against Ishida Mitsunari's massive army of 40,000 warriors. In his last moving statement to his son Tadamasa, he wrote:

**Question 0**

Who did Torii Mototada serve?

**Question 1**

When was Torii Mototada born?

**Question 2**

When did Torii Mototada die?

**Question 3**

How many people were in Ishida Mitsunari's army?

**Question 4**

How many soldiers defended the last position of the Tor?

**Text number 24**

Takeda Shingen's (1521-1573) rival was Uesugi Kenshin (1530-1578), a legendary Sengoku warlord who was well versed in Chinese military classics and who advocated the "warrior's way to death". The Japanese historian Daisetz Teitaro Suzuki describes Uesugi's beliefs as follows: 'Those who are unwilling to give up their lives and accept death are not true warriors..... Go to the battlefield confident of victory, and you will come home without any wounds. Enter the battle with full determination to die and you will stay alive; hope to survive the battle and you will surely face death. When you leave the house with determination to never see it again, you will come home safely; when you have the idea of returning, you will not. You may not be wrong in thinking that the world is always subject to change, but a warrior must not engage in such thinking, for his fate is always determined."

**Question 0**

Who was Takeda's competitor?

**Question 1**

What did Uesugi encourage?

**Question 2**

What was Daisetz Teitaro Suzuki's occupation?

**Question 3**

When was Takeda born?

**Question 4**

When was Uesugi born?

**Text number 25**

Historian H. Paul Varley notes Jesuit leader Francis Xavier's (1506-1552) description of Japan: "There is no people in the world who fear death less." Xavier goes on to describe the honour and manners of the people: "I imagine there is no people in the world who are so careful of their honour as the Japanese, for they will not tolerate a single insult or even a word spoken in anger." Xavier spent the years 1549-1551 converting the Japanese to Christianity. He also noted, "The Japanese are much more courageous and warlike than the Chinese, Koreans, Ternate and all the other nations surrounding the Philippines."

**Question 0**

To which religious order did St Francis Xavier belong?

**Question 1**

When was Francis Xavier born?

**Question 2**

When did Francis Xavier die?

**Question 3**

When did Xavier try to convert Japan to Christianity?

**Question 4**

Who were the Japanese considered more courageous?

**Text number 26**

In December 1547, Francis was in Malacca (Malaysia) awaiting his return to Goa (India) when he met a lowly samurai named Anjiro (possibly spelled "Yajiro"). Anjiro was not an intellectual, but he impressed Xavier by taking careful notes of everything he said in church. Xavier made the decision to go to Japan partly because this lowly samurai convinced him, as a Portuguese, that the Japanese were well educated and eager to learn. They were hard workers and respected authority. Their laws and customs were guided by reason, and if the Christian faith convinced them of its truth, they would accept it in droves.

**Question 0**

Where was Malacca?

**Question 1**

Where was Goa?

**Question 2**

Who impressed Xavier by taking notes in church?

**Question 3**

What language did Anjiro speak to Xavier?

**Question 4**

How did Anjiro think the Japanese would accept Christianity?

**Text number 27**

In his book "Ideals of the Samurai", translator William Scott Wilson says: "Heike Monogatar's warriors served as models for the trained warriors of later generations, and the ideals they described were not supposed to be unattainable. Rather, these ideals were vigorously pursued in the upper echelons of warrior society and were recommended as the proper form of the Japanese warrior. With Heike Monogatar, the image of the Japanese warrior in literature reached its full maturity." Wilson then translates the writings of several warriors who cite Heike Monogatari as an example for their men.

**Question 0**

Who wrote "Samurai ideals"?

**Question 1**

Who were the role models for future generations of samurai?

**Question 2**

Where did the Japanese warriors reach literary maturity?

**Text number 28**

For centuries, the Samurai developed their own culture as aristocrats, which influenced Japanese culture as a whole. Warrior patrons adopted Samurai culture, including the tea ceremony, monochrome ink painting, rock gardens and poetry, between 1200 and 1600. These practices were derived from Chinese arts. They were brought to Japan by Zen monks and flourished thanks to the interest of powerful warrior elites. Musō Soseki (1275-1351) was a Zen monk who served as adviser to both Emperor Go-Daigo and General Ashikaga Takauji (1304-58). Like other monks, Musō served as a political and cultural diplomat between Japan and China. Musō was particularly known for his garden design. Another patron of Ashikaga art was Yoshimasa. His cultural adviser, the Zen monk Zeami, introduced him to the tea ceremony. In the past, tea had been used mainly to keep Buddhist monks awake during meditation.

**Question 0**

Whose culture was tea ceremonies part of?

**Question 1**

What kind of painting did the Samurai do?

**Question 2**

What influenced Japanese culture?

**Question 3**

Who brought Chinese arts to Japan?

**Question 4**

When was Muso Soseki born?

**Text number 29**

For example, Oda Nobunaga's full name would be "Oda Kazusanosuke Saburo Nobunaga" (織田上総介三郎信長), where "Oda" is a clan or surname, "Kazusanosuke" is the title of the deputy governor of Kazusa province, "Saburo" is the official nickname (yobina) and "Nobunaga" is the adult name (nanori) given at the genpuku, the coming of age ceremony. A man was addressed by his surname and title, or yobina if he had no title. Nanori, however, was a private name that could only be used by a few, including the emperor.

**Question 0**

What was Oda Nobunaga's full name?

**Question 1**

What did Oda mean?

**Question 2**

What did Kazusanosuke mean?

**Question 3**

What did Saburo mean?

**Question 4**

What did Nobunaga mean?

**Text number 30**

A samurai could take concubines, but the high-ranking samurai would check their background. In many cases, taking a concubine was the equivalent of marriage. Although concubine abduction was common in fiction, it would have been shameful, if not criminal. If the concubine was an ordinary man, a messenger was sent with an engagement money or tax exemption form to seek parental approval. Even if the woman did not become a legal wife, which was generally considered degrading, many wealthy merchants believed that being a samurai concubine was better than being the legal wife of an ordinary man. When a merchant's daughter married a samurai, her family's money paid off the samurai's debts, and the samurai's social status improved the status of the merchant's family. If a samurai's common concubine gave birth to a son, the son could inherit his father's social status.

**Question 0**

How did the samurai treat concubines?

**Question 1**

How did the Samurai react to the abduction of concubines?

**Question 2**

Who thought being a concubine was better than being a wife?

**Question 3**

Why did the merchants want their daughters not to marry samurai?

**Question 4**

What happened if a common concubine had a son?

**Text number 31**

A samurai could divorce his wife for a variety of reasons with the consent of his superior, but divorce was a rare occurrence, although it was not completely ruled out. If the wife did not have a son, it was grounds for divorce, but the adoption of a male heir was considered an acceptable alternative to divorce. A samurai could divorce for personal reasons if he simply did not like his wife, but this was generally avoided because it would have embarrassed the marriage planner. A woman could also arrange a divorce, but this was usually done by the samurai taking the divorce. After the divorce, the samurai had to return the betrothal money, which often prevented divorces.

**Question 0**

How common was divorce among samurai?

**Question 1**

What could a samurai do instead of divorce if his wife could not produce a son?

**Question 2**

Why did the samurai avoid divorce for reasons of resentment?

**Question 3**

What financial concern prevented the divorce?

**Text number 32**

The main task of samurai women was to maintain the household. This was particularly important in the early days of feudal Japan, when warrior men were often travelling abroad or taking part in clan battles. The wife, or okugatasama (meaning 'stay-at-home'), was left to take care of all the household chores, look after the children and perhaps even defend the home with violence. For this reason, many samurai women were trained in the use of the naginata, or all-purpose knife, in the art of tantojutsu (literally, the art of the knife), which they could use to protect their household, family and honour if necessary.

**Question 0**

Where did samurai wives spend most of their time?

**Question 1**

What did the okugataama mean?

**Question 2**

What were the samurai wives to do when their husbands were away?

**Question 3**

What was naginata?

**Question 4**

What was tantojutsu?

**Text number 33**

Samurai women were valued for their humility, obedience, self-control, strength and loyalty. Ideally, a samurai wife was skilled at managing property, keeping records, managing finances, educating children (and perhaps servants) and caring for elderly parents or in-laws who might live under her roof. Confucian law, which helped define personal relationships and the ethical code of the warrior class, required a woman to show submission to her husband, filial piety to her parents and care for her children. Too much love and affection was also said to spoil and corrupt the young. Consequently, a woman was also required to observe discipline.

**Question 0**

What qualities did the samurai want their wives to have?

**Question 1**

Who were the samurai wives supposed to teach?

**Question 2**

Who were the samurai wives supposed to look after?

**Question 3**

To whom was a woman supposed to be subordinate?

**Question 4**

What defined the samurai code?

**Text number 34**

This does not mean that the Samurai were always powerless. Powerful women used power both wisely and unwisely in different situations. After Ashikaga Yoshimasa, the eighth shoguna of the Muromachi shogunate, lost interest in politics, his wife Hino Tomiko largely ruled in his stead. Toyotomi Hideyoshi's wife Nene was sometimes known to overrule her husband's decisions, and her concubine Yodo-dono became the de facto master of Osaka Castle and the Toyotomi clan after Hideyoshi's death. Tachibana Ginchiyo was elected head of the Tachibana clan after the death of his father. Yamauchi Kazutoyo's wife Chiyo has long been regarded as the ideal samurai wife. Legend has it that she made her kimono from old pieces of cloth on a patchwork quilt and saved her pennies to buy her husband a magnificent horse, which he rode to many victories. That Chiyo (though better known as 'Yamauchi Kazutoyo's wife') is so highly regarded for her financial acumen is instructive in light of the fact that she never produced an heir and that the Yamauchi clan was inherited by Kazutoyo's younger brother. The source of women's power may have been that the samurai left their households to their wives.

**Question 0**

Who was Ashikaga Yoshimasa?

**Question 1**

Who was Ashikaga Yoshimasa's wife?

**Question 2**

Why did Ashikaga let his wife take over?

**Question 3**

Who was Nene?

**Question 4**

Whose concubine was Yodo-dono?

**Text number 35**

As the Tokugawa period progressed, education became increasingly valued, and women's education from a young age became important for families and society as a whole. Marriage criteria began to emphasise intelligence and education as desirable qualities in a wife, alongside physical attractiveness. Although many texts written for women during the Tokugawa period were concerned only with how to become a successful wife and housekeeper, there were also those that took up the challenge of learning to read and also dealt with the classics of philosophy and literature. Almost all women of the samurai class were literate by the end of the Tokugawa period.

**Question 0**

At what point did Japanese women start to become more educated?

**Question 1**

What was added to the marriage criteria during the Tokugawa period?

**Question 2**

What kind of sophisticated books did some Japanese women read?

**Question 3**

When did most samurai wives learn to read?

**Text number 36**

English sailor and adventurer William Adams (1564-1620) was the first Westerner to receive the title of samurai. Shogun Tokugawa Ieyasu presented him with two swords, representing the rank of samurai, and decreed that the sailor William Adams had died and that the samurai Anjin Miura (三浦按針) had been born. Adams was also given the title of hatamoto (bannerman), a high ranking position as a direct servant of the shogun's court. He received a generous income: 'For the services which I have done and do daily in the service of the Emperor, the Emperor has given me a living' (Letters). He was granted a fief in a place called Hemi (逸見), in what is now the city of Yokosuka, 'with eighty or ninety peasants who are my slaves or servants' (Letters). His property was worth 250 koku. Finally, he wrote: "God has provided for me after my great misery" (Letters), by which he meant the disaster-stricken journey that originally brought him to Japan.

**Question 0**

Who was the first Western samurai?

**Question 1**

Who made William Adams a samurai?

**Question 2**

What was William Adams' Japanese name?

**Question 3**

What did hatamoto mean?

**Question 4**

How many servants did William Adams have?

**Text number 37**

Jan Joosten van Lodensteijn (1556?-1623?), a Dutch colleague of Adams who was on Adams' ill-fated voyage to Japan on the ship De Liefde, also received similar privileges from Tokugawa Ieyasu. Joosten apparently became a samurai[citation needed] and was given residence at Ieyasu Castle in Edo. Today, this area at the eastern exit of Tokyo Station is known as Yaesu (八重洲), a variant of the Dutch Japanese name Yayousu (耶楊子). Like Adam, Joostens was given the Red Seal ship (朱印船), which allowed him to trade between Japan and Indochina. On his way back from Batavia, Joostens drowned when his ship ran aground.

**Question 0**

What nationality was Jan Joosten van Lodensteijn?

**Question 1**

When was Jan Joosten van Lodensteijn born?

**Question 2**

What was Jan Joosten van Lodensteijn's Japanese name?

**Question 3**

Under what authorisation was trade between Japan and Indochina allowed?

**Question 4**

How did Jan Joosten van Lodensteijn die?

**Text number 38**

In the same war, Edward Schnell, a Prussian, served in the Aizu Empire as a military instructor and arms supplier. He was given the Japanese name Hiramatsu Buhei (平松武兵衛), which translated the letters of the daimyo's name Matsudaira. Hiramatsu (Schnell) was given the right to use swords, as well as an apartment in the castle town of Wakamatsu, a Japanese wife and servants. In many contemporary references he is depicted in a Japanese kimono, overcoat and swords, and wearing western riding breeches and boots.

**Question 0**

What nationality was Edward Schnell?

**Question 1**

What were Edward Schnell's duties?

**Question 2**

Who did Edward Schnell work for?

**Question 3**

What was Edward Schnell's Japanese name?

**Question 4**

Where did Edward Schnell live?

**Text number 39**

As early as the seventh century, Japanese warriors wore a type of lamellar armour, which eventually evolved into the armour used by the samurai. The first types of Japanese armour identified as samurai armour were known as yoroi. This early samurai armour was made from small individual scales called kozane. Kozane were made of either iron or leather and were bound together in small strips, which were coated with a varnish to protect the kozane from water. Several strips of kozane were then bound together with silk or leather ribbon to form a complete breastplate (dou or dō).

**Question 0**

What kind of armour did the Japanese use in the 7th century?

**Question 1**

What was the name of the first samurai armour?

**Question 2**

What was the name given to the small scales?

**Question 3**

Where was the kozane made from?

**Question 4**

What was the name of the full chest armour?

**Text number 40**

In the 16th century, new types of armour began to become more common with the advent of firearms, new battle tactics and the need for additional protection. The kozane dou, made of individual scales, was replaced by plate armour. This new armour, which used iron-plated dou (dō), was called Tosei-gusoku or modern armour. The samurai's body was also protected by other parts of the armour. The helmet kabuto was an important part of the samurai armour. Samurai armour changed and evolved as the samurai's methods of warfare changed over the centuries. The last time samurai armour was reportedly worn was in 1877 during the Satsuma Rebellion. After the last samurai rebellion was crushed, Japan modernised its defence and moved to a national conscript army using uniforms.

**Question 0**

Why were armour modifications made in the 1500s?

**Question 1**

What kind of armour was replaced?

**Question 2**

What kind of new armour replaced the old one?

**Question 3**

What was the name of the new armour?

**Question 4**

When was the last time samurai armour was used?

**Text number 41**

The term samurai originally meant "those who serve the nobility", and was written in the Chinese character kanji, which had the same meaning. In Japanese, it was originally recorded in the Nara period as the verb \*samorapu ("to watch, keep watch, observe, be on guard; to serve, to care"), which is believed to be derived from the infinitive form of the verb moru (守らふ, "to watch, guard, be on guard; to keep, protect, care for, be in charge of, be warded") (\*morapu 守らふ). By the Heian period, this word had evolved into the verb saburahu (さぶらふ, "to serve, look after"), from which was later derived the deverbal noun saburahi (さぶらひ, "servant, caretaker"), which then became samurahi in the Edo period (さむらひ). In Japanese literature, samurai is mentioned early in Kokinshū (古今集, early 10th century):

**Question 0**

What did "samurai" initially mean?

**Question 1**

What does 'samorapu' mean?

**Question 2**

What does 'saburahu' mean?

**Question 3**

What does 'saburahi' mean?

**Question 4**

When was the word "samurai" used?

**Text number 42**

Bushi was the name given to ancient Japanese soldiers from traditional warrior families. The Bushi class developed mainly in the north of Japan. They formed powerful clans that in the 13th century opposed the noble families who grouped together to support the imperial family in Kyoto. Samurai was the word used by the kuge aristocratic class, while the warriors themselves preferred the word bushi. The term bushidō, 'warrior's way', is derived from this term, and the warrior's mansion was called a bukeyashiki.

**Question 0**

Who were the bushi class?

**Question 1**

Where did Bushi live?

**Question 2**

Where did the imperial family live?

**Question 3**

What is Bushido?

**Question 4**

What was bukeyashiki?

**Text number 43**

Most samurai were bound by a code of honour, and were expected to set an example to those below them. A significant part of their code was seppuku (切腹, seppuku?) or hara kiri, which allowed a disgraced samurai to regain his honour by passing into death, where samurai were still bound by social rules. Although there are many romanticised characterisations of samurai behaviour, such as the writing of Bushidō (武士道, Bushidō?) in 1905, studies of kobudō and traditional budō show that samurai were as practical on the battlefield as other warriors.

**Question 0**

What was the synonym for a blacksmith?

**Question 1**

What was the reason for the seppuku?

**Question 2**

How idealistic were the samurai?

**Question 3**

How were the samurai portrayed unrealistically?

**Text number 44**

Despite the romanticism of the 20th century, samurai could be disloyal and deceitful (e.g. Akechi Mitsuhide), cowardly, brave or overly loyal (e.g. Kusunoki Masashige). Samurai tended to be loyal to their immediate superiors, who in turn allied themselves with higher lords. These loyalties to the higher lords often varied; for example, loyal samurai served the high lords allied under Toyotomi Hideyoshi (豊臣秀吉), but feudal lords under their command might transfer their support to Tokugawa and take the samurai with them. However, there were also notable instances of samurai being disloyal to their lord or daimyo when loyalty to the emperor was considered paramount.

**Question 0**

Who was an example of a disloyal samurai?

**Question 1**

Who was an example of an overly loyal samurai?

**Question 2**

Some feudal lords moved from Toyotomi to whom?

**Question 3**

What once won the samurai's loyalty to the daimyo?

**Text number 45**

Jidaigeki (literally historical drama) has always been a staple of Japanese cinema and television. The programmes typically feature samurai. Samurai films and western films have many similarities and have influenced each other over the years. One of Japan's most famous directors, Akira Kurosawa, was a major influence on the samurai aspect of Western filmmaking. George Lucas' Star Wars series incorporated many aspects of the Seven Samurai. One example is that in the Japanese film, local farmers hire seven samurai warriors to protect their land from a bandit takeover; George Lucas' Star Wars: A New Hope has a similar situation. Kurosawa was inspired by the works of director John Ford, and Kurosawa's works have been remade into Westerns, such as The Magnificent Seven and A Fistful of Dollars by Yojimbo. The Seven Samurai has also been made into a 26-episode anime adaptation (Samurai 7). In addition to the film, literature with samurai influences has also been shown.

**Question 0**

What is Jidaigeki?

**Question 1**

Who is Akira Kurosawa?

**Question 2**

Who directed "The Seven Samurai"?

**Question 3**

Which Japanese film is "Star Wars: A New Hope" said to resemble?

**Question 4**

Which western film was inspired by the film The Seven Samurai?

**Text number 46**

The most common are historical works in which the protagonist is either a samurai or a former samurai (or some other rank or status) with considerable fighting skills. Eiji Yoshikawa is one of the best-known Japanese historical novelists. His retellings of popular works such as Taiko, Musashi and Heike Tale are popular with readers for their epic narratives and rich realism in depicting samurai and warrior culture. samurai have also appeared frequently in Japanese comics (manga) and animation (anime). Samurai-like characters are not limited to historical settings, and many works set in the present and even the future include characters who live, train and fight like samurai. Examples include Samurai Champloo, Requiem from the Darkness, Muramasa: The Demon Blade and Afro Samurai. Some of these works have found their way to the West, where they have grown in popularity in America.

**Question 0**

Who is Eiji Yoshikawa?

**Question 1**

Why are Eiji Yoshikawa's books popular?

**Question 2**

What are the names of Japanese comics?

**Question 3**

What is the name of a Japanese animation?

**Text number 47**

It is in the last two decades that samurai have become increasingly popular in America. "The overexposure of the samurai as a whole as a loyal group of master warriors creates international interest in certain characters because of admirable traits" (Moscardi, N.D. ). Producers and writers through various media have exploited the perception that Americans admire the samurai way of life. The Afro Samurai animated series became very popular in American popular culture thanks to its combination of hack-and-slash animation and dark urban music.

**Question 0**

Who said America is exaggerating about the Samurai?

**Question 1**

What kind of animation did Afro Samurai have?

**Question 2**

What kind of music did Afro Samurai play?

**Text number 48**

Afro Samurai, created by Takashi Okazaki, was originally a doujinshi or manga series that was made into an animated series by Studio Gonzo. In 2007, the animated series debuted on American cable television on Spike TV (Denison, 2010). The series was produced for American viewers, which "reflects a trend... in which hip-hop artists are compared to samurai fighters, and some rappers claim this image for themselves (Solomon, 2009). The plot remains in tune with the idea of a samurai seeking revenge against someone who has wronged him. In the voice of the well-known American actor Samuel L. Jackson, "Afro is the second strongest fighter in futuristic but still feudal Japan, seeking revenge on the gunman who killed his father" (King, 2008). Thanks to its popularity, Afro Samurai was made into a full-length animated film and also became a game for consoles such as PlayStation 3 and Xbox. Samurai culture has not only been adopted in animation and video games, but also in comic books.

**Question 0**

Who created Afro Samurai?

**Question 1**

Who made Afro Samurai into an animated series?

**Question 2**

When was Afro Samurai first shown?

**Question 3**

On which channel was Afro Samurai shown?

**Question 4**

Who was the voice actor for Afro Samurai?

**Text number 49**

American comic books have adopted the character in their own stories, such as Marvel Comics' mutant villain Silver Samurai. This character's appearance retains the samurai look; the villain is "dressed in traditional shiny samurai armour and wields an energy-charged katana" (Buxton, 2013). The Silver Samurai appears over 350 times in comic books, but the character is also playable in several video games, such as Marvel Vs. In 2013, the samurai was portrayed in James Mangold's film The Wolverine. Ten years before Wolverine premiered, another film helped pave the way for the samurai to be made famous in American cinema: The Last Samurai, a 2003 film starring Tom Cruise, was inspired by the samurai lifestyle. In the film, Cruise's character is immersed in the samurai culture. The film's character, "Nathan Algren, is a fictional creation designed to make 19th century Japanese history less alien to American audiences." (Ravina, 2010) After being captured by samurai rebels, Cruise begins to empathise with their struggle. Tom Cruise plays Nathan Algren, a US Army captain in the Meiji period who travels to Japan to train a fledgling army to fight samurai rebel groups. Algren becomes a product of his environment and joins a samurai clan in an attempt to rescue a captured samurai leader. 'By the end of the film, he has clearly adopted many of the characteristics of a samurai, including a zen-like control of the sword and a budding understanding of spirituality' (Manion, 2006).

**Question 0**

Which company's comics did Silver Samurai appear in?

**Question 1**

What is a Silver Samurai weapon?

**Question 2**

How many comics has Silver Samurai appeared in?

**Question 3**

Who starred in the movie The Last Samurai?

**Question 4**

Who did Tom Cruise play in The Last Samurai?

**Document number 314**

**Text number 0**

Since the number of possible tests for even simple software components is practically infinite, all software testing uses some strategy to select the most feasible tests for the time and resources available. As a result, software testing usually (but not exclusively) tries to run a program or application with the intention of finding software defects (bugs or other flaws). Testing is an iterative process, because when one bug is fixed, it can introduce other, deeper bugs or even create new bugs.

**Question 0**

What is the purpose of software testing?

**Question 1**

Why is it so difficult to debug software?

**Question 2**

What can happen when you fix one bug?

**Question 3**

What is the number of tests for complex software components?

**Question 4**

What is the strategy used for in firmware testing?

**Question 5**

Software testing tries to remove the program for what reason?

**Question 6**

What kind of progress is called a test job?

**Question 7**

What are the complications of not correcting errors?

**Text number 1**

Although testing can determine the correctness of the software based on certain assumptions (see the testing difficulty hierarchy below), it cannot identify all errors in the software. Instead, it produces a critique or comparison that compares the state and behaviour of the product with the oracle - the principles or mechanisms that would allow someone to identify a problem. Such oracles may include (but are not limited to) specifications, contracts, comparable products, previous versions of the same product, conclusions about intended or expected use, user or customer expectations, relevant standards, applicable laws, or other criteria.

**Question 0**

What can't be fully found by testing?

**Question 1**

What else can testing do when looking for faults?

**Question 2**

What will the software be compared against during testing?

**Question 3**

What forms the oracle during testing?

**Question 4**

Testing can identify all faults within which?

**Question 5**

What can testing not do when looking for a fault?

**Question 6**

What do oracles contain and what are they limited to?

**Question 7**

Where does the software stand out during testing?

**Text number 2**

The primary purpose of testing is to detect software errors so that bugs can be detected and fixed. Testing cannot prove that a product works correctly under all circumstances, but only that it does not work correctly under certain circumstances. Software testing often involves examining the code, running the code in different environments and conditions, and examining aspects of the code: whether it does what it is supposed to do and whether it does what it is supposed to do. In today's software development culture, the testing organization may be separate from the development team. Test team members have different roles. Information from software testing can be used to improve the process by which software is developed.

**Question 0**

What is the primary reason for testing the software?

**Question 1**

What can't the testing software fully and completely figure out?

**Question 2**

What is the scope of the software testing as well?

**Question 3**

What two categories do you usually distinguish between when writing and testing software?

**Question 4**

What is the secondary purpose of software testing?

**Question 5**

What is always involved in software testing?

**Question 6**

What two things were distinct in the previous culture of software development?

**Question 7**

What data from software testing can be used for modelling?

**Text number 3**

Software bugs are created through the following processes. The programmer makes a mistake, which results in a bug in the source code of the software. If this error is implemented, the system will produce incorrect results in certain situations, causing the bug. Not all errors necessarily lead to failure. For example, dead code errors never lead to bugs. A bug can turn into a failure when the environment is changed. Examples of such environment changes include running the software on a new computer hardware platform, changes in source data, or interaction with different software. A single failure can cause a wide range of failure symptoms.

**Question 0**

What is the first step that leads to a software failure?

**Question 1**

What is the result of a mistake made by a programmer?

**Question 2**

When can software bugs in dead code cause problems?

**Question 3**

What is the process by which software evolves?

**Question 4**

What are all the faults?

**Question 5**

What do dead code bugs always do?

**Question 6**

When you change the environment, where does failure always come from?

**Question 7**

What cannot be caused by a single fault?

**Text number 4**

The fundamental problem with software testing is that testing with all combinations of inputs and preconditions (initial state) is not possible, even for a simple product.17-18 This means that the number of errors in a software product can be very large, and infrequent errors are difficult to find in testing. More importantly, the non-functional dimensions of quality (what it should be and what it should do) - usability, scalability, performance, compatibility, reliability - can be highly subjective; what is valuable enough for one person may be intolerable for another.

**Question 0**

What is the primary problem in performing software testing?

**Question 1**

What kind of software bugs are difficult to find during testing?

**Question 2**

What other non-functional dimensions can cause software underperformance and other problems?

**Question 3**

What is the secondary problem in performing software testing?

**Question 4**

How easy is it to find common faults?

**Question 5**

What are examples of operational dimensions of quality?

**Question 6**

What is the problem of the functional dimensions of quality?

**Text number 5**

Software developers cannot test everything, but they can use combinatorial test design to determine the minimum number of tests needed to achieve the desired coverage. With combinatorial test design, users can achieve greater test coverage with fewer tests. Whether they want speed or depth of testing, they can use combinatorial test design methods to build structured variation into their test cases. Note that "coverage" as used here refers to combinatorial coverage, not claims coverage.

**Question 0**

While software developers can't test everything, what do they do to keep testing to a minimum?

**Question 1**

What do the combined tests involve?

**Question 2**

Which two types of testing are related to the combinatorial testing mentioned here?

**Question 3**

What test do firmware developers use to find out how to keep testing to a minimum?

**Question 4**

The design of composite tests does not allow users to get what?

**Question 5**

Where can unstructured variations be built?

**Question 6**

"Coverage" refers to combined coverage, but not of what?

**Text number 6**

It is generally believed that the earlier a fault is detected, the cheaper it is to fix. The following table shows the cost of repairing a fault according to the stage of detection. For example, if a problem in the requirements is discovered after publication, it will cost 10 to 100 times more to fix than if it had been discovered during the requirements review. With modern continuous deployment practices and cloud computing, the cost of re-deployment and maintenance may decrease over time.

**Question 0**

What determines the cost of correcting a mistake?

**Question 1**

How many times more would the cost be if the problem is discovered after the software is released?

**Question 2**

What could potentially reduce the cost of fixing faulty software?

**Question 3**

What is the unpopular belief about the cost of fixing a bug?

**Question 4**

What does the cost of repairing the fault not depend on?

**Question 5**

How much less would it cost to fix a problem that is discovered after the software has been released?

**Question 6**

Which modern sites may increase the cost of re-commissioning over time?

**Text number 7**

There are many approaches to software testing. Reviews, walkthroughs or checks are called static testing, while the actual execution of programmed code on a given set of test cases is called dynamic testing. Static testing is often implicit, such as proofreading, and when programming tools/text editors check the structure of source code or compilers (precompilers) check syntax and data flow as static program analysis. Dynamic testing takes place when the program itself is run. Dynamic testing can be started before the program is 100% complete to test specific parts of the code, and is applied to individual functions or modules. Typical techniques for this are either the use of stubs/drivers or execution from within the debugger environment.

**Question 0**

Name three approaches that software testers use when testing their software?

**Question 1**

What term is used to describe the execution of programmed code using a particular set of tests?

**Question 2**

When can dynamic testing take place?

**Question 3**

What techniques are commonly used in dynamic testing?

**Question 4**

What type of testing has few approaches?

**Question 5**

Examples of static testing include preview, walkthrough and what else?

**Question 6**

Dynamic testing means executing predefined code with which?

**Question 7**

When is dynamic testing not done?

**Question 8**

What is static testing all about?

**Text number 8**

White box testing (also known as clear box testing, glass box testing, transparent box testing and structural testing) tests the internal structures or functions of a program instead of the functionality that is exposed to the end user. In white box testing, the test cases are designed using an internal system perspective and programming skills. The tester selects inputs to exercise paths through the code and determine the appropriate outputs. This is analogous to testing the nodes of a circuit, such as in-circuit testing (ICT).

**Question 0**

What is another term used for white-box testing?

**Question 1**

What is involved in white-box testing?

**Question 2**

Which two procedures are used to design test cases for white-box testing?

**Question 3**

What are the other names for white-box data testing?

**Question 4**

The external perspective used in white-box testing and what else is used to develop test cases?

**Question 5**

What does the tester choose to achieve the results?

**Question 6**

What is in-circulus testing?

**Text number 9**

Black-box testing treats the software as a "black box", where functionality is examined without knowledge of the internal implementation and without seeing the source code. Testers are only aware of what the software is supposed to do, but not how it does it. Black box testing methods include: equivalence partitioning, threshold analysis, all-pairs testing, state transition tables, decision table testing, fuzz testing, model-based testing, use case testing, exploratory testing, and specification-based testing.

**Question 0**

What is the main difference between black box testing and white box testing?

**Question 1**

What are software testers aware of?

**Question 2**

What are the first three methods mentioned that make up black box testing??

**Question 3**

What does black box testing do with the data?

**Question 4**

What are testers always aware of?

**Question 5**

What are the first three white-box testing methods?

**Question 6**

Black box testing shows what type of code?

**Text number 10**

Specification-based testing aims to test the functionality of the software according to the applicable requirements. This level of testing usually requires the submission of thorough test cases to the tester, who can then simply check that, for a given input, the output value (or behaviour) either "is" or "is not" the same as the expected value specified in the test case. Test cases are built around specifications and requirements, i.e. what the application is supposed to do. External descriptions of the software, such as specifications, requirements and plans, are used to derive test cases. Tests can be functional or non-functional, but are usually functional.

**Question 0**

What term is used to test the functionality of software according to application requirements?

**Question 1**

What are the test cases built around?

**Question 2**

Which method is used to draw up test cases and which is more common than the other?

**Question 3**

What does specialisation-based testing aim to test?

**Question 4**

Test cases are built around specialisations and what else?

**Question 5**

Which of the two test case construction methods, non-functional and non-functional, is more common?

**Question 6**

What firmware descriptions are used in test cases?

**Text number 11**

One of the advantages of black box technology is that it requires no programming skills. Despite programmers' biases, the tester is likely to have different biases and may emphasise different aspects of functionality. On the other hand, black box testing has been said to be "like walking in a dark labyrinth without a torch". "Because the source code is not examined, there are situations where the tester writes many test cases to check something that could have been tested with only one test case, or leaves some parts of the program untested.

**Question 0**

What is the huge advantage of the black-box method?

**Question 1**

What black box testing can sometimes be referred to when the code cannot be seen?

**Question 2**

What is a good reason to keep testers and developers separate?

**Question 3**

What information is required for black box technology?

**Question 4**

Black-box coding has been compared to what?

**Question 5**

Some parts of the programme may remain untested because what law is not being tested?

**Question 6**

Why are testers and developers kept together?

**Text number 12**

Gray-box testing requires knowledge of the internal data structures and algorithms to design the tests, while the tests are performed at the user, or black-box, level. The tester is not required to have full access to the source code of the software [not cited] Input data manipulation and output formatting are not gray-box testing because the inputs and outputs are clearly outside the "black box" that we call the system under test. This distinction is particularly important when integration testing is done between two code modules written by different developers, where only the interfaces are testable.

**Question 0**

What does grey box testing involve?

**Question 1**

What does a grey box tester not need to complete the test?

**Question 2**

What is not grey box testing?

**Question 3**

Grey box testing requires knowledge of external data structures and what else?

**Question 4**

What information must the tester have full access to?

**Question 5**

What are data processing and input formatting not?

**Question 6**

When is it not important to distinguish between the black and grey boxes?

**Text number 13**

Once a tester knows the basic concepts of how software works, he or she can make better informed testing choices when testing software from the outside. Typically, a grey-box tester is allowed to set up an isolated testing environment with, for example, database seeding. The tester can observe the state of the product under test after performing certain operations, such as executing SQL statements against the database and then running queries to ensure that the expected changes are reflected. Grey box testing implements intelligent test scenarios based on limited data. This applies in particular to data type handling, exception handling and so on.

**Question 0**

What doping substances does a typical grey-box tester test for?

**Question 1**

What does the tester do when performing certain activities?

**Question 2**

What does a grey box tester do when he has little information?

**Question 3**

Knowing the basic concepts of how software works helps testers to know how to?

**Question 4**

What type of testing environment can a black-box tester usually set up?

**Question 5**

What does the tester perform when making certain queries?

**Question 6**

What does grey box testing do with longitudinal data?

**Text number 14**

There are usually four levels of testing: unit testing, integration testing, component interface testing and system testing. Tests are often grouped according to the stage in the software development process at which they are added, or according to the level of accuracy of the test. The SWEBOK guide defines the main levels during the development process as unit, integration and system testing, which are distinguished by the object of the testing without implying a specific process model. The other levels of testing are classified according to the testing objective.

**Question 0**

What are the four recognised levels of software testing?

**Question 1**

How are these tests (level testing) typically grouped?

**Question 2**

What does the SWEBOK Guide define as testing the main levels?

**Question 3**

How are the other levels classified?

**Question 4**

What are the four unidentified test levels?

**Question 5**

How are tests rarely grouped?

**Question 6**

What defines all levels of the development process?

**Question 7**

The levels covered in the SWEBOK guide are unit, reintegration and what other level?

**Question 8**

What is classified as a pre-testing objective?

**Text number 15**

Unit testing is a software development process that synchronously applies a wide range of error prevention and detection strategies to reduce the risks, time and costs of software development. It is performed by the software developer or engineer during the build phase of the software development lifecycle. Rather than replacing traditional quality assurance priorities, it complements them. Unit testing aims to eliminate build defects before the code is passed to QA; this strategy aims to improve the quality of the resulting software and to make the entire development and QA process more efficient.

**Question 0**

What is the main reason for unit testing, which involves synchronising an application over a wide spectrum?

**Question 1**

Who will carry out the unit testing phase?

**Question 2**

What does unit testing aim to eliminate?

**Question 3**

What is the expected outcome when construction defects are removed?

**Question 4**

Unit testing is firmware development that involves what?

**Question 5**

Is unit testing done by an architect or by a developer?

**Question 6**

Instead of focusing less on traditional quality assurance, unit testing does what?

**Question 7**

Unit testing aims to eliminate cooperation errors before what?

**Text number 16**

Component interface testing may be used to check the handling of data transferred between components of different entities or subsystems other than by means of full integration testing between the entities concerned. The data transmitted can be considered as 'message packets' and the range or types of data produced by one entity can be checked and tested for correctness before being transmitted to another entity. One option for interface testing is to keep a separate log file of the data items being transferred, often with a timestamp, in order to analyse the thousands of instances where data have been transferred between entities over a period of days or weeks. Tests may include checking the handling of some extreme data values, while other interface variables are passed as normal values. Unusual data values at the interface can help explain unexpected performance in the next unit. Component interface testing is a variation of black-box testing, which focuses on data values beyond the related actions of a subsystem component.

**Question 0**

What name is used to check the data transferred between units?

**Question 1**

What is its name when the information is transmitted?

**Question 2**

Which option for testing the component interface is used when sending message packets?

**Question 3**

What is a variation of black box testing?

**Question 4**

What can be used to check databases transferred between entities?

**Question 5**

What is another name for the data you hold?

**Question 6**

What is one option to integrate the user interface?

**Question 7**

What can be explained by the usual data values in the user interface?

**Question 8**

What is a variation of the black-boxing test?

**Text number 17**

Operational approval is used to implement the operational readiness (pre-commissioning) of a product, service or system as part of a quality management system. OAT is a common type of non-operational software testing, mainly used in software development and software maintenance projects. This type of testing focuses on the operational readiness of the system to be supported and/or to become part of the production environment. It is therefore also known as Operational Readiness Testing (ORT) or Operational Readiness and Assurance Testing (OR&A). Operational testing is limited within the OAT to those tests required to verify non-functional aspects of the system.

**Question 0**

What is the term used for testing software before release?

**Question 1**

What is the focus of operational approval?

**Question 2**

What is the operational approval limited to during testing?

**Question 3**

What is professional recognition used for?

**Question 4**

What is a rare type of functional software testing?

**Question 5**

What is the limitation of functionality during use?

**Question 6**

What is the OAT least focused on?

**Text number 18**

A common cause of software failure (real or perceived) is incompatibility with other application software, operating systems (or operating system versions, old or new), or target environments that are very different from the original (for example, a terminal or GUI application intended to run on the desktop is required to become a web application that must be rendered in a web browser). For example, a lack of backward compatibility may be due to the fact that programmers develop and test software only on the latest version of the target environment, which may not be used by all users. This has the unintended consequence that the latest work may not work on earlier versions of the target environment or on older hardware that earlier versions of the target environment were able to use. Sometimes such problems can be corrected by abstracting operating system functionality into a separate software module or library.

**Question 0**

What is the most common cause of software failure?

**Question 1**

What do developers generally do when creating software that can lead to failures?

**Question 2**

What is the most common cause of software failure?

**Question 3**

What is often missing from software when it is released, which can ultimately lead to errors?

**Question 4**

Why does backwards compatibility always seem to be the cause of bugs and errors after release?

**Question 5**

Lack of compatibility with other application software is a rare reason why?

**Question 6**

Programmers develop software in the earliest version of which environment?

**Question 7**

What is the least common cause of software failure?

**Question 8**

Target environments rarely differ greatly from what?

**Text number 19**

Regression testing focuses on finding errors after a significant code change. More specifically, it aims to detect software regressions, such as degraded or lost features, including old bugs that have reverted back. Such regressions occur whenever a software function that previously worked correctly stops working as intended. Typically, regressions occur as an unintended consequence of software changes when a newly developed piece of software collides with previously existing code. Common methods of regression testing include re-running previous test cases and checking whether previously corrected errors have reappeared. The depth of testing depends on the stage of the release process and the risk of the added features. Testing can be either full, if changes are added late in the release or are considered high risk, or very shallow, which can consist of positive tests for each feature if changes are early in the release or are considered low risk. Regression testing is typically the largest testing effort in commercial software development because it checks numerous details of previous software features, and even new software may be developed using some old test cases to test parts of the new design to ensure that previous functionality is still supported.

**Question 0**

The process of finding bugs after a code change is called?

**Question 1**

What happens to the software after a significant change is made to the code that leads to regression???

**Question 2**

What is a common method used in regression testing?

**Question 3**

What determines how deep a tester goes during a regression?

**Question 4**

If changes need to be made during early release and regression testing, how much will this affect the team in relation to the rest of the testing?

**Question 5**

What kind of testing is used to find errors after minor code changes?

**Question 6**

How does regression testing classify software regressions?

**Question 7**

In general, recessions happen as an intended consequence of what?

**Question 8**

What are the common regression coding methods?

**Question 9**

What is usually the biggest testing effort in personal software development?

**Text number 20**

Beta testing comes after alpha testing, and can be seen as a kind of external user acceptance testing. Versions of the software, called beta versions, are released to a limited audience outside the programming group, called beta testers. The software is released to groups of people so that further testing can ensure that there are few bugs or defects in the product. Beta versions may be made available to the open public to increase the feedback loop to the maximum number of future users and to provide value earlier, longer or even indefinitely (perpetual beta)[citation needed].

**Question 0**

What typically follows after the alpha phase in software development and testing?

**Question 1**

Who has the beta test been released for?

**Question 2**

What is it called when the public experiment goes on indefinitely?

**Question 3**

What kind of testing precedes alpha testing?

**Question 4**

What are beta versions that are released to the general public?

**Question 5**

Why are the alpha versions available to the public?

**Question 6**

What is the term for a public experiment that lasts for a certain period of time?

**Text number 21**

Destructive testing is an attempt to make software or a subsystem fail. It ensures that the software works correctly even if it receives erroneous or unexpected inputs, and thus demonstrates the robustness of the input validation and error management routines.[citation needed] Injecting software errors in the form of fuzzing is an example of failure testing. A variety of commercial non-functional testing tools are linked from the Software Bug Injection page; there are also numerous open source and free software tools available that perform destructive testing.

**Question 0**

What method is used to detect a system failure?

**Question 1**

What does destructive testing verify?

**Question 2**

What is one example of a test for failure?

**Question 3**

What does the destruction test do?

**Question 4**

What does the destruction test verify?

**Question 5**

What is an example of injecting a software bug?

**Question 6**

There are very few open source and free tools that do what?

**Text number 22**

Load testing is primarily concerned with testing that the system can continue to operate under a given load, whether it is a large amount of data or a large number of users. This is commonly referred to as software scalability. Related load testing, performed as a non-functional activity, is often referred to as endurance testing. Volume testing is also a way of testing the functionality of software when certain components (for example, a file or database) grow radically in size. Stress testing is a way to test reliability under unexpected or infrequent workloads. Stability testing (often called load or endurance testing) is used to check whether the software is able to perform consistently well over an acceptable period of time or beyond.

**Question 0**

What method is used to test software under a given load?

**Question 1**

Which two methods can be used for load testing?

**Question 2**

What is called testing the functionality of the software when certain components are increased?

**Question 3**

What is also called robust testing?

**Question 4**

What method is used to test components under unexpected workloads?

**Question 5**

What method is used to test firmware under a given load?

**Question 6**

Which two methods cannot be used for load testing?

**Question 7**

Volume Testing is a way to test firmware when?

**Question 8**

What is reliability testing during an expected or infrequent workload?

**Text number 23**

Development testing is a software development process that synchronously applies a wide range of error prevention and detection strategies to reduce the risks, time and costs of software development. It is performed by the software developer or engineer during the build phase of the software development lifecycle. Rather than replacing traditional quality assurance priorities, it complements them. Development testing aims to eliminate design flaws before the code is passed to QA; this strategy aims to improve the quality of the resulting software and to make the entire development and QA process more efficient.

**Question 0**

What method is used to synchronise the application?

**Question 1**

When is development testing used?

**Question 2**

What does development testing aim to eliminate?

**Question 3**

What method is used that involves syncing the application?

**Question 4**

When is development testing not used?

**Question 5**

Development testing tries to eliminate command errors before promoting the code, where?

**Question 6**

Who designed the development testing?

**Text number 24**

In contrast, some emerging software disciplines, such as extreme programming and the agile software development movement, follow a "test-driven software development model". In this process, software engineers first write unit tests (often using pair programming in extreme programming). Of course, these tests initially fail, as they are expected to do. Then, as the code is written, it gradually passes larger and larger portions of the test suite. Test suites are continually updated as new failures and corner cases are discovered, and are integrated into the regression tests that are developed. Unit tests are maintained together with the rest of the software source code and are usually integrated into the build process (interactive tests are partially moved to the manual build approval process). The ultimate goal of this testing process is to achieve continuous integration, where software updates can be released to the public frequently.

**Question 0**

Which two current movements follow a "test-driven software development" approach?

**Question 1**

In the context of agile software development and extreme programming, what do you write first?

**Question 2**

What is the aim of unit testing?

**Question 3**

Which two legacy movements follow "test-driven software development"?

**Question 4**

When developing fragile software and extreme programming, what do you write first?

**Question 5**

The goal of unit testing is to achieve discontinuous integration, where software updates can be what?

**Text number 25**

Bottom-up testing is an approach to integrated testing where the lowest-level components (modules, procedures and functions) are tested first, then integrated and used to facilitate testing of the higher-level components. After the integration testing of the lower level integrated modules, the next level modules are formed and can be used for integration testing. The process is repeated until the components at the top of the hierarchy have been tested. This approach is only useful when all or most of the modules at the same level of development are ready [ref ] This method also helps to determine the levels of software under development and facilitates the reporting of testing progress as a percentage [ref ].

**Question 0**

What are the three elements of Bottom Up testing?

**Question 1**

Bottom Up testing makes it easier to test what?

**Question 2**

What good is bottom-up testing when the process is repeated over and over again at all levels?

**Question 3**

When the highest level components are tested first, the testing process is called "why?

**Question 4**

What are the three components of the Bottom Down Test?

**Question 5**

This approach only works when half of the modules of the same subject are ready.

**Question 6**

Bottom Up testing helps determine the levels of software developed and makes it harder to what?

**Text number 26**

It has been shown that each category is strictly contained within the next category. For example, a test assuming that the behaviour of the implementation under test can be described by a deterministic finite state machine for some known finite set of inputs and outputs, and which has some known number of states, belongs to class I (and all subsequent classes). However, if the number of states is not known, it belongs to all classes only from class II onwards. If the implementation under test is a deterministic finite state machine that does not satisfy the definition of a single trace (and its continuations) and the number of states is unknown, it belongs only to classes III and above. Testing of temporal machines, in which transitions are triggered if inputs are produced within some real finite time interval, falls only into Class IV or thereafter, while testing of many non-deterministic systems falls only into Class V (but not all, and some even fall into Class I). Class I does not require the simplicity of the assumed computational model, since it has been shown that some test cases involving implementations written in any programming language and defined as machines that depend on continuous quantities belong to Class I. Other more sophisticated cases, such as the Matthew Hennessy testing framework under must-semantics and temporal machines with rational time decisions, belong to Class II.

**Question 0**

If the number of countries is unknown, to which group does this belong?

**Question 1**

There are three categories, what has been concluded and proven for all categories?

**Question 2**

If the number of states is unknown and the finite state of the machine fails for one trace, to which group does this belong?

**Question 3**

It has been overturned that each category belongs to what?

**Question 4**

If there is an infinite set of inputs and outputs, which category of premises do they belong to?

**Question 5**

What is required for Class I inclusion?

**Question 6**

Matthew Hennessy wrote what?

**Text number 27**

There are several certification programmes for the professional aspirations of software testers and quality assurance specialists. None of the certifications currently available actually require applicants to demonstrate their ability to test software. None of the certifications are based on a widely accepted knowledge base. This has led some to declare that the testing industry is not ready for certification. Certification itself cannot measure an individual's productivity, skills or practical knowledge, nor can it guarantee his or her competence or professionalism as a tester.

**Question 0**

There are several certificates that can be obtained, but what is one common feature?

**Question 1**

What has led to the applicant's inability to demonstrate how well he or she tests?

**Question 2**

What are the four characteristics that certification cannot measure?

**Question 3**

What software is available to support the non-professional efforts of software testers?

**Question 4**

In which certificate do you have to prove your ability?

**Question 5**

Some say the testing ground is ready for what?

**Question 6**

What does certification measure?

**Text number 28**

Software testing is part of the software quality assurance process:347 In software quality assurance, software process experts and auditors are concerned with the software development process, not just the artefacts such as documentation, code and systems. They examine and modify the software development process itself to reduce the number of defects that end up in the delivered software: the so-called "defect rate". What is an "acceptable defect rate" depends on the nature of the software; a flight simulator video game has a much higher defect tolerance than software for a real aircraft. Although there are close links with SQA, testing departments are often independent, and in some companies there may be no SQA function at all.

**Question 0**

What is part of SQA?

**Question 1**

What is the primary concern of the software expert and auditors?

**Question 2**

Which software would have better fault tolerance?