**Document number 471**

**Text number 0**

In the 1997 referendum, Scottish voters voted in favour of devolution, and the current Parliament was convened by the Scotland Act 1998, which defines its powers as a devolved legislature. The Act defines Parliament's legislative powers - the areas in which it can legislate - by explicitly defining the powers 'reserved' to the UK Parliament. The Scottish Parliament has the power to legislate in all areas not expressly reserved to Westminster. The UK Parliament can still amend the Scottish Parliament's powers and extend or reduce the areas in which it can legislate. The first meeting of the new Parliament took place on 12 May 1999.

**Question 0**

When did the current Scottish Parliament meet?

**Question 1**

Which act established Parliament's powers as a decentralised legislator?

**Question 2**

What are the types of legislative powers of Parliament?

**Question 3**

To which body are certain powers explicitly reserved?

**Question 4**

The Scottish Parliament can legislate as long as powers are not already reserved for what?

**Question 5**

How was the old Scottish Parliament convened?

**Question 6**

When did the old Scottish Parliament meet?

**Question 7**

Which parliament has no power to legislate in any area?

**Question 8**

Which Parliament cannot change the mandate of the Scottish Parliament?

**Question 9**

Which meeting was held on 12 March 1999?

**Text number 1**

For the next three hundred years, Scotland was directly governed by the British Parliament and later the UK Parliament, both based in Westminster, and the absence of a Scottish Parliament was still an important part of Scotland's national identity. Proposals for a 'devolved' parliament were made before 1914, but were shelved due to the outbreak of the First World War. The strong rise of Scottish nationalism in the late 1960s fuelled calls for some form of self-government or full independence, and in 1969 Harold Wilson's Labour government set up the Kilbrandon Commission to consider a UK constitution. One of the Commission's main aims was to explore ways of giving Scotland more autonomy within the United Kingdom's unitary state. Kilbrandon published his report in 1973, in which he recommended the creation of a directly elected Scottish Assembly to legislate on most of Scotland's internal affairs.

**Question 0**

What remained a major issue of Scottish national identity for many years?

**Question 1**

How many centuries was Scotland directly ruled by the British Parliament?

**Question 2**

Why were the original proposals for a devolved parliament before 1914 shelved?

**Question 3**

When did nationalism in Scotland soar?

**Question 4**

What did the Kllbrandon report of 1973 recommend to be established?

**Question 5**

What was not considered an important part of Scotland's national identity?

**Question 6**

What was shelved because of the Second World War?

**Question 7**

What fuelled the decline of Scottish nationalism in the 1960s?

**Question 8**

What was the sole objective of the Kilbrandon Commission?

**Question 9**

Harold Wilson published a report in what year?

**Text number 2**

During this period, the discovery of oil in the North Sea and the subsequent Scottish National Party (SNP) 'It's Scotland's oil' campaign led to a surge in support for Scottish independence and the SNP. The party argued that oil revenues were not benefiting Scotland as much as they should. The combined effect of these events led Prime Minister Wilson to commit his government to some form of devolved legislative power in 1974. However, it was not until 1978 that the UK Parliament passed the final legislative proposals for the Scottish Assembly.

**Question 0**

Where was the oil found in the sea?

**Question 1**

Which campaign was organised by the Scottish National Party (SNP)?

**Question 2**

What was the SNP's public position on oil revenues?

**Question 3**

When did Prime Minister Wilson commit to some form of devolved legislative power?

**Question 4**

When were the final legislative proposals to establish the Scottish Assembly adopted?

**Question 5**

What led to the discovery of gas in the North Sea?

**Question 6**

What was President Wilson's commitment in 1974?

**Question 7**

In what year did the US Parliament approve the final proposals for the Scottish Assembly?

**Question 8**

The "It's Scotland's oil" campaign was inspired by the question: what was discovered in the Antarctic?

**Text number 3**

The 1978 Scotland Act provided for the establishment of an elected Assembly in Edinburgh, subject to a majority of the Scottish electorate voting in favour in a referendum on 1 March 1979, representing at least 40% of the total electorate. The 1979 referendum on devolution to create a Scottish Parliament failed. Although the Scottish Assembly received 51.6% of the vote in favour, this figure fell short of the 40% threshold considered necessary to pass the measure, as 32.9% of those eligible had not voted or were unable to vote.

**Question 0**

Where was the 1978 Scotland Act intended to establish an elected assembly?

**Question 1**

How many Scottish voters should support it in a referendum?

**Question 2**

How was the establishment of the devolved assembly in Scotland in 1979?

**Question 3**

What percentage of Scottish Assembly voters supported it?

**Question 4**

What percentage of the Scottish electorate did not vote?

**Question 5**

51.6% were not in favour of what?

**Question 6**

What would be established in Edinburgh under the 1988 Scotland Act?

**Question 7**

In which year did the referendum on the devolved Scottish Parliament succeed?

**Question 8**

What percentage of those entitled to vote did not vote?

**Text number 4**

In the 1980s and 1990s, the demand for a Scottish Parliament grew partly because the UK government was dominated by the Conservative Party, while Scotland itself elected relatively few Conservative MPs. Following the defeat of the 1979 referendum, a pressure group campaign for a Scottish Parliament was launched, leading to the 1989 Scottish Constitutional Convention, which was attended by a range of organisations including Scottish churches, political parties and industry. The Convention published its devolution plan in 1995, which formed much of the basis of the Parliament's structure.

**Question 0**

Which products saw an increase in demand between 1980 and 1990?

**Question 1**

Whose control of the UK government increased the desire to create a Scottish Parliament?

**Question 2**

When was the Scottish Constitutional Convention held?

**Question 3**

What was the structure of the Parliament largely based on in 1995?

**Question 4**

In what year did the demand for a Scottish Parliament diminish?

**Question 5**

The 1989 Scottish Constitutional Conference provided very little justification for the creation of which structure?

**Question 6**

What kind of group did the Campaign for Constitutional Convention start out as?

**Question 7**

Who published the devotional plan in 1995?

**Text number 5**

Since September 2004, the official home of the Scottish Parliament has been the new Scottish Parliament building in Edinburgh's Holyrood area. The Scottish Parliament building was designed by Spanish architect Enric Miralles in collaboration with local Edinburgh architectural practice RMJM, led by design director Tony Kettle. Key features include the leaf-shaped buildings, a grass-roofed side wing that blends into the adjacent park and gabion walls formed from stones from previous buildings. There are many recurring motifs throughout the building, including forms based on Raeburn's skating museum. The unique architecture is completed by the scarecrow-drilled gabled eaves and the upturned boat skylights in the garden lobby. Queen Elizabeth II opened the new building on 9 October 2004.

**Question 0**

Where has been the official home of the Scottish Parliament since 2004?

**Question 1**

Who designed the Scottish Parliament building?

**Question 2**

What nationality is the architect Enric Miralles?

**Question 3**

What shape are some of the Parliament's buildings?

**Question 4**

Who opened the new Parliament building on 9 October 2004?

**Question 5**

Where has the Scottish Parliament been sitting since 1904?

**Question 6**

Which complex has flower-shaped buildings?

**Question 7**

Where in the lobby are the downward-facing boat skylights located?

**Question 8**

On what day did Queen Elizabeth I open Scotland's new parliament building?

**Question 9**

Which building was designed by French architect Enric Miralles?

**Text number 6**

While Holyrood's permanent building was being constructed, Parliament's temporary home was the Church of Scotland's Assembly Hall at the Royal Mile in Edinburgh. Official photographs and television interviews were held in the courtyard adjacent to the Assembly Hall, part of the University of Edinburgh's School of Divinity. The building was cleared twice for the Church's Assembly meeting. In May 2000, the Assembly was temporarily relocated to the former meeting hall of Strathclyde District Council in Glasgow and in May 2002 to the University of Aberdeen.

**Question 0**

Where was Parliament's temporary home during the construction of the permanent building?

**Question 1**

Where were the interviews held when Parliament was in the temporary building?

**Question 2**

What was the building emptied twice for?

**Question 3**

Where was Parliament temporarily relocated in May 2000?

**Question 4**

Where would you go in May 2002 to address Parliament?

**Question 5**

Parliament's temporary home was at Royal Mills, in which area?

**Question 6**

What kind of photographs were taken at the Assembly Center?

**Question 7**

Which building was evacuated three times to allow the Church Assembly to meet?

**Question 8**

Where was Parliament moved to in May 2010?

**Text number 7**

In addition to the Assembly Hall, Parliament also used buildings rented from Edinburgh City Council. The former Lothian Regional Council administration building on the George IV Bridge was used as the office of the MPs. When Parliament moved to Holyrood in 2004, this building was demolished. The former Midlothian County Buildings in Edinburgh, opposite Parliament Square, High Street and George IV Bridge (originally the Midlothian County Council headquarters building before 1975), housed the Parliament's visitor centre and shop, while the main hall was used as the main committee room for Parliament.

**Question 0**

From whom did Parliament rent additional buildings?

**Question 1**

In which former administrative building were the MSP offices located?

**Question 2**

What happened to the George IV Bridge when Parliament had finished building it?

**Question 3**

What do former Midlothian County buildings face?

**Question 4**

Which chamber was used as the main committee room in Parliament?

**Question 5**

What was the former administration building of Lothian Regional Council on George V Bridge used for?

**Question 6**

Which building was demolished in 2014?

**Question 7**

What was originally built before 1875 for the Midlothian County Council headquarters?

**Question 8**

Who moved to Hollywood in 2004?

**Text number 8**

After each Scottish Parliament election, the Parliament elects at the beginning of each session one MP to act as Speaker (currently Tricia Marwick) and two MPs to act as Vice-Presidents (currently Elaine Smith and John Scott). The President and Vice-Presidents are elected by secret ballot of 129 MPs, the only secret ballot in the Scottish Parliament. The role of the Speaker is mainly to lead the work of the Chamber and the Scottish Parliament's governing body. When chairing Parliamentary meetings, the Chair and his or her deputies must be politically neutral. During debates, the Chairman (or his deputy) is assisted by the Parliamentary Secretaries, who give advice on the interpretation of the Rules of Procedure governing the conduct of meetings. The returning officer shall sit in front of the President and use the electronic voting machines and the clocks in the Chamber.

**Question 0**

Who is elected to preside at the beginning of each parliamentary session?

**Question 1**

Who is currently Speaker of the Scottish Parliament?

**Question 2**

What is the voting procedure for the election of the President and Vice-Presidents of Parliament?

**Question 3**

How many MPs are there?

**Question 4**

Who is responsible for the use of electronic voting machines and voting bells?

**Question 5**

Parliament elects two MPs to act as what kind of civil servants?

**Question 6**

Who will be elected in open elections?

**Question 7**

What kind of official sits behind the President?

**Question 8**

Who is the former President of Parliament?

**Question 9**

Who are these two former Members of Parliament?

**Text number 9**

As a member of the Scottish Parliament's governing body, the President is responsible for ensuring that the Parliament functions effectively and has the staff, property and resources it needs to do its job. The President's duties also include convening the Bureau of Parliament, which allocates Parliament's working time and sets its work programme. Under Parliament's Rules of Procedure, the Bureau is made up of the President and one representative of each political party holding at least five seats in Parliament. The Bureau's tasks include agreeing the timetable for the Chamber, setting the number, remit and composition of Parliament's committees and regulating the passage of legislation (bills) through Parliament. The Speaker also officially represents the Scottish Parliament at home and abroad.

**Question 0**

Who is responsible for ensuring that Parliament works properly?

**Question 1**

Who sets the work programme and allocates time in the section?

**Question 2**

How many seats must a political party have to be represented in the Parliament's Bureau?

**Question 3**

Who officially represents the Scottish Parliament at home and abroad?

**Question 4**

Which group sets the timetable?

**Question 5**

Who is not responsible for the smooth running of Parliament?

**Question 6**

Who disagrees with the timetable for the section?

**Question 7**

Which officer represents Police Scotland at home and abroad?

**Text number 10**

The Scottish Parliament's chamber is arranged in a semi-circle, reflecting a desire to promote consensus between elected members. The chamber has 131 seats. Of the 131 seats, 129 are for elected Members of Parliament, and two seats are for Scottish lawyers, the Lord Advocate and the Solicitor General, who are not elected Members of Parliament but members of the Scottish Government. Law officers can attend and speak at sittings of Parliament, but as they are not elected Members of Parliament, they cannot vote. Members can sit in any chamber, but normally they sit in the chamber of their party groups. The First Minister, Scottish Government ministers and lawyers sit in the front row, in the middle of the chamber. The largest party in Parliament sits in the centre of the semi-circle, with opposing parties sitting on either side. The President, parliamentary officers and officials sit opposite the Members at the front of the Chamber.

**Question 0**

What is the seating arrangement in the Chamber?

**Question 1**

Why is the seating arrangement in the debating chamber the way it is?

**Question 2**

How many seats are there in the chamber?

**Question 3**

How many members of the Scottish Parliament are members of the Scottish Government?

**Question 4**

What can non-elected members of the Scottish Government not do?

**Question 5**

Where in the Parliament are the seats arranged in a straight line?

**Question 6**

Which chamber has 231 seats?

**Question 7**

In which courtroom does the Official Solicitor of Scotland sit?

**Question 8**

The Second Minister, Scottish Ministers and who sits in the front row of the Chamber?

**Question 9**

The smallest party in Parliament sits in the middle of what?

**Text number 11**

In front of the Presidents' table is a parliamentary spear made of silver, inlaid with Scottish river gold and engraved with words: Wisdom, compassion, justice and honesty. The first words of the Act establishing the Scottish Parliament, 'There shall be a Scottish Parliament', are engraved on the end of the spear. The head of the spear is engraved with the official ceremonial role of Parliament at meetings, and reinforces the authority of Parliament in its ability to legislate. The spearhead was presented to the Scottish Parliament by the Queen at its official opening in July 1999 and is displayed in a glass case hanging from the lid. At the beginning of each sitting, the lid of the case is turned so that the spear is above the glass, symbolising that Parliament is in session.

**Question 0**

What is the Parliament Spear made of?

**Question 1**

Where does the gold on the Parliament's coat of arms come from?

**Question 2**

Which words are inscribed on the Parliament's coat of arms?

**Question 3**

Who introduced the macaque to the Scottish Parliament when it was first opened?

**Question 4**

Where is the spear on display?

**Question 5**

What is inlaid in the gold of the French rivers?

**Question 6**

Around which plinth are the words There shall be a Scottish Parliament engraved?

**Question 7**

What did the Queen present to the Scottish Parliament in 1989?

**Question 8**

What symbolises that a partial session of Parliament is in progress?

**Question 9**

Where are the words Wisdom, Compassion, Justice and Integration engraved?

**Text number 12**

Parliament usually meets on Tuesdays, Wednesdays and Thursdays from early January to the end of June and from early September to mid-December, with a two-week break in April and October. Plenary sessions are held in the debating chamber, usually on Wednesday afternoons from 14.00 to 18.00 and on Thursdays from 9.15 to 18.00. Sessions are held twice a year. Debates in the Chamber and committee meetings are open to the public. Admission is free of charge, but advance booking is recommended due to limited space. Meetings are broadcast on Parliament's own channel Holyrood.tv and on the BBC parliamentary channel BBC Parliament. Sittings are also recorded in text, print and online in the Official Report, a verbatim record of Parliament's debates.

**Question 0**

Which month is the first of the year in which Parliament takes a two-week holiday?

**Question 1**

Where are the plenary sessions held?

**Question 2**

Who are the discussions and meetings open to?

**Question 3**

How much does it cost to get into a Parliament meeting?

**Question 4**

Which contains an almost verbatim version of the Parliament's debates?

**Question 5**

What typically sits on Tuesdays, Wednesdays and Fridays?

**Question 6**

Parliament usually sits from February to the end of February, where?

**Question 7**

Plenary sessions are usually held in the chat room on Tuesday afternoons at 13.00 - until when?

**Question 8**

Which meetings are closed to the public?

**Question 9**

Which debates are closed to the public?

**Text number 13**

On Wednesdays, the first item on the agenda is usually a reflection time, when a speaker addresses the members for up to four minutes and shares his or her perspective on faith issues. This differs from the formal "prayer" that is the first order of business in the House of Commons meetings. Speakers are selected from across Scotland and are chosen to represent a balance of faiths according to the Scottish census. Invitations to address the House in this way will be decided by the Speaker on the advice of the Bureau of Parliament. Religious groups may make suggestions for speakers directly to the Speaker.

**Question 0**

What day of the week will the reflection period take place?

**Question 1**

How long could the speaker talk to members during the reflection period?

**Question 2**

As the speakers come from all over Scotland, what do they represent?

**Question 3**

Who decides who can speak to MEPs to share their thoughts on faith issues?

**Question 4**

What can faith groups ask the President to do?

**Question 5**

What is usually the second thing on Wednesday?

**Question 6**

What is the name of the section where members talk to speakers for up to four minutes?

**Question 7**

What is usually the first thing in the House of Lords?

**Question 8**

Who decides on the invitation to speak in the House of Commons?

**Text number 14**

The President (or Vice-President) decides who speaks in the debates in the Chamber and how long they may speak. The President usually tries to balance different points of view and political parties when choosing speakers. Ministers or party leaders usually open debates, with 5-20 minutes for opening statements and less time for subsequent speeches. The President may reduce the speaking time if a large number of Members wish to take part in the debate. The debate is more informal than in some parliamentary systems. Members may address each other directly by name rather than by constituency or cabinet position, and hand clapping is permitted. Speeches in the chamber are usually made in English, but members may use Scottish, Gaelic or any other language with the agreement of the chair. The Scottish Parliament has held debates in Gaelic.

**Question 0**

Who decides who gets to speak in chamber debates?

**Question 1**

What does the President also decide?

**Question 2**

How does the chair try to achieve a balance between the speakers?

**Question 3**

Which members usually open the debates?

**Question 4**

In which language other than English has the Scottish Parliament met?

**Question 5**

The chair will seek to strike a balance between similar views and who?

**Question 6**

Who usually decides the debates?

**Question 7**

The number of minutes given to stopping speakers is from 5 minutes to how many minutes?

**Question 8**

Successful speakers are usually given more what?

**Question 9**

The President can increase the speaking time, if what?

**Text number 15**

Each day of the sitting, usually at 17.00, MEPs decide on all the motions and amendments tabled that day. This 'decision time' is heralded by the ringing of the division bell, which is heard throughout the Parliament's campus and invites Members who are not in the Chamber to return and vote. At the time of the decision, the President puts questions on motions and amendments by reading out the name of the motion or amendment and the proposer, asking "All those in favour?", followed by a first oral vote in the Chamber. In the event of a dissenting vote, the President shall announce: 'Split vote' and Members shall vote using the electronic consoles at their desks. Each Member has an individual access card with a microchip which, when inserted into the console, identifies him or her and entitles him or her to vote. The result of each chamber is therefore known within seconds.

**Question 0**

What time do MEPs usually decide on motions and amendments for that day?

**Question 1**

What is the sign for ringing the division bell?

**Question 2**

What do those MEPs who are not in the Chamber do when the allocation bell rings when they return?

**Question 3**

How do members vote in the case of a split?

**Question 4**

How long does it take to find out the result of the split?

**Question 5**

What do MEPs decide at 5 a.m. every sitting day?

**Question 6**

What does the ringing of the closing bell portend?

**Question 7**

When does the chair make proposals for questions?

**Question 8**

If there is no dissenting opinion, what does the President say?

**Question 9**

The end result, what is known in hours?

**Text number 16**

The outcome of most votes can be predicted in advance because political parties usually instruct their members how to vote. Parties give some MPs, known as whips, the task of ensuring that party members vote in line with the party line. MPs are not in the habit of voting against such instructions because those who do so are unlikely to reach higher political levels within their parties. Non-compliant members can be disqualified from being official party candidates in future elections and, in serious cases, can be expelled from the party altogether. Thus, as in many parliaments, the independence of Scottish MPs is generally limited, and backbench rebellions by members dissatisfied with their party's policies are rare. On some occasions, however, parties do announce 'free votes', allowing members to vote as they wish. This is usually done on moral issues.

**Question 0**

What can often be predicted in advance?

**Question 1**

Who usually guides members on how to vote?

**Question 2**

Whose job is it to ensure that party members vote in line with the party line?

**Question 3**

What happens if a member does not vote the party line?

**Question 4**

On which issues are members usually allowed to vote as they wish?

**Question 5**

What can't be predicted in advance in most cases?

**Question 6**

Whose job is it to ensure that party members do not vote along party lines?

**Question 7**

Which parliament usually has a high degree of independence?

**Question 8**

What types of rebellions are common in the Scottish Parliament?

**Text number 17**

Immediately after the decision-making periods, a debate of members will take place for 45 minutes. A Members' debate is a debate on a motion tabled by a Member of Parliament who is not a Scottish Minister. Such motions deal with matters which may be of interest to a particular area, such as the Member's own constituency, a future or past event or any other matter which would not otherwise be allocated formal parliamentary time. In addition to the author of the motion, other Members usually take part in the debate. The minister concerned, whose department the debate and motion relate to, closes the debate by speaking after all the other participants.

**Question 0**

When will the members' debate take place?

**Question 1**

How long will the membership debate last?

**Question 2**

Why are there debates on the motions proposed by the MP?

**Question 3**

Who is involved in the members' business besides the proposer?

**Question 4**

What is the Minister, who was the catalyst for the members' business, doing talking after everyone else?

**Question 5**

The members' debate usually takes place immediately before what?

**Question 6**

What other members do not usually participate in?

**Question 7**

Which debate lasts 55 minutes?

**Question 8**

What debate is a debate on a motion proposed by an MP who is not a Scottish Minister?

**Text number 18**

Much of the work of the Scottish Parliament is done in committees. The role of committees in the Scottish Parliament is stronger than in other parliamentary systems, partly as a way of strengthening the role of backbenchers in scrutinising government and partly to compensate for the absence of a scrutiny chamber in Parliament. The main role of committees in the Scottish Parliament is to receive witnesses, conduct inquiries and scrutinise legislation. Committee meetings are held on Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday mornings during the parliamentary session. Committees may also meet at other locations across Scotland.

**Question 0**

Where does much of the work of the Scottish Parliament take place?

**Question 1**

What are committees like in the Scottish Parliament compared to other systems?

**Question 2**

What is one way of compensating for the fact that committees play such a big role?

**Question 3**

The hearing of witnesses is one of the committees from?

**Question 4**

Where could committees meet outside Parliament?

**Question 5**

Where is very little of the work done by the Scottish Parliament being done?

**Question 6**

Why are Scottish parliamentary committees weaker than in other systems?

**Question 7**

Which team is primarily responsible for examining witnesses?

**Question 8**

Which group cannot meet in other places in Scotland?

**Text number 19**

The committees are made up of a small number of MEPs and their composition reflects the balance of parties in Parliament. There are different types of committees and their tasks are defined in different ways. Compulsory committees are those established by the Scottish Parliament's Standing Orders, which set out their powers and procedures. The current compulsory committees in the Scottish Parliament's fourth session are Public Audit; Equalities; European and External Relations; Finance; Public Petitions; Standards, Procedures and Public Appointments; and Delegated Powers and Law Reform.

**Question 0**

Who are the committees made up of?

**Question 1**

What does the composition of the committees reflect?

**Question 2**

What is defined differently in different committees?

**Question 3**

What kind of committee is defined in the SP's rules of procedure?

**Question 4**

What session is the Scottish Parliament in?

**Question 5**

What puts at risk the large number of service providers?

**Question 6**

Which group's membership does not reflect the balance of parties in Parliament?

**Question 7**

Voluntary committees are committees set up under which authority?

**Question 8**

Which fifth session has mandatory committees?

**Text number 20**

The thematic committees are set up at the beginning of each parliamentary session, and once again the members of each committee reflect the balance of political parties in Parliament. Typically, each committee corresponds to one (or more) Scottish Government department (or departments). The current committees for the fourth session are: economy, energy and tourism; education and culture; health and sport; justice, local government and regeneration; rural affairs, climate change and environment; welfare reform; and infrastructure and capital investment.

**Question 0**

When are thematic committees set up?

**Question 1**

How many Scottish Government departments does one committee usually represent?

**Question 2**

The economy, energy and tourism is one of what?

**Question 3**

What is the Scottish Parliament currently in fourth place?

**Question 4**

What is confirmed at the end of each parliamentary session?

**Question 5**

Which committees do not reflect the balance of parties in Parliament?

**Question 6**

What kind of committees are there in the fifth session?

**Question 7**

Which committee corresponds to one or more departments of the Spanish Government?

**Text number 21**

The second type of committee is usually set up to consider private members' bills submitted to the Scottish Parliament by a non-Scottish party or initiator who is not a member of the Scottish Parliament or Government. Private Bills usually relate to large-scale development projects, such as infrastructure projects, which require the use of land or property. Private Bills Committees have been set up to consider legislation on developments such as the Edinburgh tram network, the Glasgow Airport rail link, the Airdrie-Bathgate rail link and extensions to the National Gallery of Scotland.

**Question 0**

What is set up to examine private bills proposed by non-party members?

**Question 1**

What topics are typically covered by private bills?

**Question 2**

Who decides how land or property can be used?

**Question 3**

What kind of committee dealt with the legislation on the development of the Edinburgh tram network?

**Question 4**

Which group has been set up to examine public bills presented to the Scottish Parliament?

**Question 5**

Public bills usually refer to large-scale what?

**Question 6**

What are committees on public draft laws for?

**Question 7**

Which group is responsible for examining the private bills submitted to the Spanish Parliament?

**Text number 22**

The Scotland Act 1998, passed by the UK Parliament and given Royal Assent by Queen Elizabeth II on 19 November 1998, regulates the functions and role of the Scottish Parliament and limits its legislative powers. The Scotland Act 2012 extends the devolved powers. In terms of parliamentary sovereignty, the UK Parliament at Westminster remains Scotland's supreme legislature. However, under the terms of the Scotland Act, Westminster agreed to devolve responsibilities for Scottish domestic policy to the Scottish Parliament. These 'devolved matters' include education, health, agriculture and justice. The Scotland Act allowed the Scottish Parliament to make primary legislation in these areas. Some domestic powers and all foreign policy remain vested in the UK Parliament at Westminster. The Scottish Parliament has the power to legislate and has limited powers to change taxes. Another role of Parliament is to hold the Scottish Government to account.

**Question 0**

Where does the law define the role of the Scottish Parliament?

**Question 1**

Who gave Royal Assent to the Scotland Act 1998?

**Question 2**

What will the scope of the Scotland Act 2012 be extended to cover?

**Question 3**

Which body makes up Scotland's supreme legislature?

**Question 4**

Who is responsible for holding the Scottish Government to account?

**Question 5**

The 2002 Scottish Act extends the scope of the decentralised what?

**Question 6**

Who passed the 1988 Scotland Act?

**Question 7**

Who gave the Royal Assent to the 1988 Scotland Act?

**Question 8**

The Scotland Act gave the Spanish Parliament the power to regulate what?

**Question 9**

Who does not have the power to make laws?

**Text number 23**

Special devolved matters are all matters not specifically listed as reserved matters in Schedule 5 to the Scotland Bill. Any matter not specifically reserved is automatically referred to the Scottish Parliament. The main ones are agriculture, fisheries and forestry, economic development, education, environment, food standards, health, home affairs, Scottish law - courts, police and fire services, local government, sport and the arts, transport, education, tourism, research and statistics, and social work. The Scottish Parliament has the power to change Scottish income tax by up to 3 pence in the pound. The 2012 Act provided further fiscal devolution, including borrowing powers and some other unrelated matters such as speed limits and air gun control.

**Question 0**

Where does the Scotland Act mention reserved matters?

**Question 1**

If it is not specifically reserved, to whom is it transferred?

**Question 2**

Why are police and fire services a matter for the Scottish Parliament?

**Question 3**

How much can SP change Scottish income tax?

**Question 4**

Setting speed limits was one of the additional powers given and by what means?

**Question 5**

Which of the following are all subjects not listed in Schedule 6 of the Scottish Code?

**Question 6**

Who is not allowed to change their income tax in Scotland?

**Question 7**

Who has the chance to change Scottish income tax by up to 33p?

**Question 8**

The 2002 law granted further fiscal decentralisation, including what?

**Text number 24**

Reserved matters are subjects that are not within the legislative competence of the Scottish Parliament. The Scottish Parliament cannot legislate on matters which are reserved to and dealt with at Westminster (and where ministerial functions are usually held by ministers in the UK Government). These include abortion, broadcasting policy, the civil service, the UK single market for goods and services, the constitution, electricity, coal, oil, gas, nuclear energy, defence and national security, drugs policy, employment, foreign policy and relations with Europe, most aspects of transport safety and regulation, the national lottery, border protection, social security and the stability of the UK's fiscal, economic and monetary system.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the non-legislative branch of the Scottish Parliament?

**Question 1**

The issues at Westminster are not issues that can be dealt with by who?

**Question 2**

Where are issues such as abortion and drugs policy addressed in legislation?

**Question 3**

Most aspects of road safety are a subject that is dealt with by whom?

**Question 4**

Unreserved issues are topics that are where?

**Question 5**

Who can legislate on matters reserved for Westminster?

**Question 6**

What do US government ministers usually do?

**Question 7**

What are called matters within the legislative competence of the Scottish Parliament?

**Text number 25**

Bills can be introduced to Parliament in a number of ways: the Scottish Government can introduce new laws or amendments to existing laws as a Bill; a parliamentary committee can introduce a Bill in one of its areas of competence; a Scottish MP can introduce a Bill as a private member; or an external proposer can introduce a private member's Bill to Parliament. Most Bills are Government Bills introduced by Ministers of the governing party. Bills go through Parliament in several stages:

**Question 0**

What can be presented to Parliament in different ways?

**Question 1**

Who can propose new laws or amendments to existing laws in the form of a bill?

**Question 2**

MSP can propose a bill to what?

**Question 3**

Who can also table private bills in Parliament?

**Question 4**

How do the bills go through Parliament?

**Question 5**

What laws will the governing party presidents introduce?

**Question 6**

What can the Committee of the Chair propose?

**Question 7**

Which Member of Parliament can introduce a bill as a public member?

**Question 8**

Who can introduce a bill as a public member?

**Text number 26**

Stage 1 is the first or introductory stage of the bill, where the minister or member responsible for the bill formally presents it to Parliament, together with its supporting documents - the explanatory memorandum, a policy memorandum setting out the policy behind the bill, and a financial memorandum setting out the costs and savings associated with the bill. Statements by the President and the Member responsible for the Bill indicating whether the Bill falls within Parliament's legislative competence. Stage 1 is usually first discussed in the relevant committee or committees and then transmitted to the full House for a plenary debate on the general principles of the Bill. If the full House votes to approve the general principles of the bill, the bill moves to Stage 2.

**Question 0**

What is the first stage of the bill?

**Question 1**

What will be presented to Parliament in addition to the bill itself?

**Question 2**

What do the statements of the PO and MEP responsible for the bill show?

**Question 3**

Where are invoices typically prepared in Phase 1?

**Question 4**

If Parliament votes to approve the general principle of the bill, where does it go from there?

**Question 5**

Stage 2 of the bill is where who is responsible for the bill?

**Question 6**

If no Member of Parliament agrees with the general principles of the bill, it goes to what stage?

**Question 7**

At what stage do the committees usually operate?

**Question 8**

What is presented to only part of the Parliament for a full debate?

**Text number 27**

Stage 3 is the final stage of the bill and will be debated by the full Parliament. This stage consists of two parts: a general debate on the amendments to the bill and a final vote on the bill. Opposition members can table "destructive amendments" to the bill, which are designed to block the bill's progress and take up Parliament's time so that the bill falls without a final vote. After a general debate on the final form of the bill, MPs vote during decision time on whether to accept the general principles of the final bill.

**Question 0**

What is the final stage of the Bill in the Scottish Parliament?

**Question 1**

How many parts of the bill are in the third stage?

**Question 2**

Which bill will be voted on in stage 3?

**Question 3**

What amendments can be tabled by members who oppose the bill?

**Question 4**

When will members vote on whether to approve the principles of the final bill?

**Question 5**

Step 4 is what is the final step?

**Question 6**

What will the Parliamentary part of the meeting be about?

**Question 7**

When will Members vote on the initial version of the bill?

**Question 8**

"Scrappage checks" are designed to encourage what?

**Text number 28**

Royal Assent: once passed, the Bill is submitted by the Speaker to the Monarch for Royal Assent and becomes an Act of the Scottish Parliament. However, he cannot do so until four weeks have passed, during which time the Scottish Government or UK Government legal officers can take the Bill to the UK Supreme Court to decide whether it falls within the jurisdiction of Parliament. Acts of the Scottish Parliament are not subject to the ordinary legislative procedure. Instead, they begin with a sentence that reads: 'This Bill for an Act of the Scottish Parliament was passed by Parliament on [date] and received Royal Assent on [date]'.

**Question 0**

To whom does the President send the final invoice?

**Question 1**

Why is the final bill sent to the monarch?

**Question 2**

What is the minimum timeframe for the bill to enter into force?

**Question 3**

To whom will the bill be referred to decide whether it falls within Parliament's competence?

**Question 4**

What is in the model of the bills passed by the Scottish Parliament?

**Question 5**

Until a bill is passed, it becomes a law on what?

**Question 6**

To whom will the draft law be sent before it is adopted?

**Question 7**

Which government regulations start with the standard enactment formula?

**Question 8**

Which sentence begins the Spanish Parliament's laws?

**Question 9**

Who can the US government refer the bill to?

**Text number 29**

The party or parties with a majority of seats in Parliament form the Scottish Government. Unlike many other parliamentary systems, the First Minister is elected by Parliament from a number of candidates at the beginning of each term (after the general election). Any Member of Parliament can put forward their name for First Minister and all MPs vote on the nomination. Usually the leader of the largest party is elected as First Minister and leader of the Scottish Government. In theory, Parliament also elects the Scottish Ministers who form the Scottish Government and sit on the Scottish Cabinet, but in practice these Ministers are appointed by the First Minister. Junior Ministers who do not attend Cabinet meetings are also appointed to assist Scottish Ministers in their departments. Most Ministers and their junior subordinates are chosen from among elected Members of Parliament, with the exception of Scotland's leading lawyers: the Lord Advocate and the Solicitor-General. Although the First Minister chooses ministers - and can decide to dismiss them at any time - the formal appointment or dismissal is made by the Sovereign.

**Question 0**

Which party makes up the Scottish Parliament?

**Question 1**

Who is elected at the beginning of each term of office?

**Question 2**

Who can throw their name in the hat for Prime Minister?

**Question 3**

Apart from the Scottish Chief Lawyer, where do the majority of ministers come from?

**Question 4**

Who makes the formal appointment or dismissal decisions?

**Question 5**

What make up the parties with minority seats in Parliament?

**Question 6**

From among whom will Parliament choose another minister?

**Question 7**

Who are the very few ministers chosen from?

**Question 8**

Who will choose the second minister?

**Text number 30**

Under the Scotland Act 1998, ordinary Scottish Parliament elections are held on the first Thursday in May every four years (1999, 2003, 2007 and so on). The Monarch may, on a proposal from the President, change the date of the election by up to one month in either direction. If Parliament itself decides that it should be dissolved (at least two-thirds of its members vote in favour), or if Parliament fails to appoint its member as Prime Minister within 28 days of the general election or the vacancy, the Speaker proposes a date for a special general election and the Queen dissolves Parliament by Royal Proclamation. Extraordinary general elections are held in addition to ordinary general elections, unless they are held less than six months before the date of the ordinary general elections, in which case they replace them. The next ordinary elections will again be held on the first Thursday in May every four years since 1999 (i.e. 5 May 2011, 7 May 2015, etc.).

**Question 0**

What day of the week are the general elections held?

**Question 1**

In which month are ordinary parliamentary elections held every four years?

**Question 2**

Who can change the date by up to one month at the proposal of the producer organisation?

**Question 3**

How many days does Parliament have to appoint the Prime Minister after the general election?

**Question 4**

If a by-election is held less than six months before the actual election, how will it affect the actual election?

**Question 5**

Under Scottish law 1988, ordinary general elections are held when?

**Question 6**

What can be changed in up to two months?

**Question 7**

Who proposes not to change the voting date?

**Question 8**

Who can propose to change the date of the vote by up to three months?

**Text number 31**

The Scottish Parliament can scrutinise the government through a number of procedures. The First Minister or members of the Cabinet can make statements to Parliament, on which MPs can ask questions. For example, at the beginning of each parliamentary year, the First Minister makes a statement to Parliament setting out the Government's legislative programme for the coming year. After the statement is issued, opposition party leaders and other MPs put questions to the Prime Minister on issues related to the content of the statement.

**Question 0**

What gives the Scottish Parliament control over the government?

**Question 1**

Who can question the statements of the Prime Minister or members of the Government?

**Question 2**

What does the Prime Minister deliver at the beginning of each parliamentary year?

**Question 3**

What do opposition party leaders and other MPs ask the Prime Minister?

**Question 4**

How does the Scottish Parliament control the people?

**Question 5**

What can another minister do?

**Question 6**

Who will be questioned before the opinion is given?

**Question 7**

To whom can the other minister make statements?

**Text number 32**

Parliament's sitting time is also reserved for question time in the Chamber. General Question Time is held on Thursdays from 11.40am to 12.00pm, when Members can put questions to any member of the Scottish Government. At 2.30pm, there will be a 40-minute Question Time session, where Members can put questions to Ministers from departments selected to be heard on the day of the sitting, such as Health and Justice or Education and Transport. On Thursdays between 12.00 and 12.30, when Parliament is sitting, there is a Prime Minister's Question Time. Members have the opportunity to put questions directly to the Prime Minister on matters within their competence. Opposition leaders ask the Prime Minister a general question followed by supplementary questions. This practice allows for an "introduction" to the questioner, who then uses his supplementary question to ask the Prime Minister about any issue. The four general questions available to opposition leaders are as follows:

**Question 0**

What is reserved for Question Time in the Chamber?

**Question 1**

On what day will there be a public question time?

**Question 2**

Who can members address questions to during general question time?

**Question 3**

On what issues can Members ask questions directly to the Prime Minister during Prime Minister's Question Time?

**Question 4**

How many general questions can opposition leaders ask?

**Question 5**

When can members only ask questions to certain members of the Scottish Executive?

**Question 6**

What time is the 60-minute question time?

**Question 7**

The second minister's Question Time is held on Thursdays at what time?

**Question 8**

Who will put supplementary questions and then a general question to the Prime Minister?

**Text number 33**

Of the 129 MEPs, 73 are elected as constituency representatives and are known as "Constituency MSPs". Voters elect one Member to represent a constituency, and the Member with the most votes is elected as the constituency MSP. The 73 Scottish Parliament constituency boundaries were the same as the UK Parliament constituency boundaries in Scotland before the reduction in the number of Scottish MPs in 2005, except for Orkney and Shetland, which each elect an MP for their own constituency. Currently, the average Scottish Parliament constituency has 55 000 voters. Given the geographical distribution of Scotland's population, this results in smaller constituencies in the Central Lowlands, where most of Scotland's population lives, and much larger constituencies in the north and west of the country, where population density is low. The island regions of Orkney, Shetland and the Western Isles have much smaller electorates because of their dispersed populations and their distance from the Scottish Parliament in Edinburgh. If a constituency MP resigns, a by-election is held in their constituency to replace them with an MP of either party under a pluralist system.

**Question 0**

What is the number of MPs in your constituency?

**Question 1**

How many members can voters elect to represent their constituency?

**Question 2**

When did the number of Scottish MPs fall?

**Question 3**

How many voters are there currently in the Scottish Parliament constituency?

**Question 4**

Why are there fewer voters in island regions?

**Question 5**

How many of the 139 MSPs are known as "constituency MSPs"?

**Question 6**

How are 83 "constituency MPs" elected?

**Question 7**

Which islands attract the largest number of voters?

**Question 8**

If a constituency MP has to leave Parliament, what will that do?

**Text number 34**

The total number of seats in Parliament is allocated to the parties according to the d'Hondt method, in proportion to the number of votes obtained in the second ballot. For example, to determine who gets the first list seat, the number of list votes each party receives is divided by one and the number of seats won in the party's region (currently only constituency seats) is added. The party with the highest coefficient gets the seat, which is then added to its constituency seats when the second seat is allocated. This is repeated iteratively until all available list seats have been allocated.

**Question 0**

How is the total number of seats allocated to the parties?

**Question 1**

What method is used to count the votes in the second ballot?

**Question 2**

The party with the most what?

**Question 3**

Which series will the seat be added to after it has been allocated?

**Question 4**

How is the seat allocation process repeated until all available seats have been allocated?

**Question 5**

What does the party with the lowest share get?

**Question 6**

What will be deducted from its constituency seats?

**Question 7**

What method is used to count the votes in the first ballot?

**Question 8**

What method is used to count the votes in the first ballot?

**Text number 35**

As in the House of Commons, there are a number of qualifications for being a Member of Parliament. Such qualifications were introduced under the House of Commons Disqualification Act 1975 and the British Nationality Act 1981. Members must be aged 18 or over and a citizen of the United Kingdom, the Republic of Ireland, a Commonwealth country, a British Overseas Territory or a citizen of the European Union resident in the United Kingdom. Members of the Police and Armed Forces are not allowed to sit as elected members of the Scottish Parliament, nor are civil servants and members of foreign legislatures. A person cannot be a Member of the Scottish Parliament if they have been diagnosed as mentally ill under the Mental Health (Treatment and Care) (Scotland) Act 2003.

**Question 0**

What does being a Member of Parliament have in common with being a member of the House of Commons?

**Question 1**

When was the British Nationality Act passed?

**Question 2**

At what age can a person apply to become an MSP?

**Question 3**

Which organisations' members are not allowed to sit on the SP as elected MSP members?

**Question 4**

Where in the law is the term used to assess the mental health limits to which persons seeking membership of the SP must adhere?

**Question 5**

What job does not require qualifications?

**Question 6**

For which post did the House of Lords introduce the qualification requirements?

**Question 7**

Which job requires a member to be under 18?

**Question 8**

Which job does not require the member to be a UK citizen?

**Text number 36**

The election produced a majority SNP government, the first time the party has had a parliamentary majority in the Scottish Parliament. The SNP took 16 seats from Labour and many of their key figures did not return to parliament, although Labour leader Iain Gray retained the East Lothian constituency with 151 votes. The SNP also took eight seats from the Liberal Democrats and one from the Conservatives. The SNP's overall majority meant that there was enough support in the Scottish Parliament to hold a referendum on Scottish independence.

**Question 0**

When the election produced an SNP majority government, what was the first time?

**Question 1**

Who gave the SNP 16 seats?

**Question 2**

How much did the Labour-led Lain Gray retain in East Lothian?

**Question 3**

How many seats did the SNP take from the Liberal Democrats?

**Question 4**

What did the SNP majority result allow for a referendum on?

**Question 5**

How many seats did the SNP give Labour?

**Question 6**

How many of its key figures returned to parliament?

**Question 7**

How many votes did Labour leader Iain Gray give up in East Lothian?

**Question 8**

The SNP gave eight seats to the Liberals.

**Text number 37**

The biggest disappointment for the Conservatives was the loss of the Edinburgh Pentlands, the constituency of former party leader David McLachey, to the SNP. McLetchie was elected on the Lothian regional list and the Conservatives lost a net five seats, despite leader Annabel Goldie claiming their support had remained stable. Despite this, she too announced that she was stepping down as party leader. Cameron congratulated the SNP on its victory but vowed to campaign for the Union in the independence referendum.

**Question 0**

Who was most disappointed by the loss of the Edinburgh Pentlands?

**Question 1**

Where was the home of former party leader David McLachey?

**Question 2**

What is the net loss for conservatives?

**Question 3**

Who announced that they are stepping down as Conservative leader?

**Question 4**

Who congratulated the SNP while vowing to campaign against their referendum?

**Question 5**

What was the Liberals' biggest disappointment?

**Question 6**

Current party leader David McLetchie lost which seat?

**Question 7**

Who was selected for the Lothian General List?

**Question 8**

Who announced that he would not resign as party leader?

**Question 9**

Who congratulated the SNP on their defeat?

**Text number 38**

The procedural consequence of the establishment of the Scottish Parliament is that Scottish MPs sitting in the UK House of Commons will be able to vote on internal legislation that applies only in England, Wales and Northern Ireland - whereas Westminster MPs in England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland will not be able to vote on internal legislation in the Scottish Parliament. This phenomenon, known as the West Lothian question, has attracted criticism. After the Conservatives won the UK elections in 2015, the House of Commons Rules of Procedure were amended to give MPs representing English constituencies a new 'veto' over laws affecting only England.

**Question 0**

What consequence of the establishment of the Scottish Parliament applies to Scottish MPs sitting in the UK House of Commons?

**Question 1**

What can't MPs vote on?

**Question 2**

What phenomenon has led to the criticism?

**Question 3**

Which party won the UK election in 2015?

**Question 4**

MPs representing English constituencies can only veto laws affecting which country?

**Question 5**

The Western Lutheran question is known as what?

**Question 6**

When the Liberals won in 2015, the Rules of Procedure were changed to do what?

**Question 7**

Who won the UK election in 2005?

**Question 8**

Which question has not led to criticism?

**Document number 472**

**Text number 0**

Islamism, also known as political Islam (Arabic: إسلام سياسي islām siyāsī), is an Islamic revivalist movement often characterised by moral conservatism, literalism and a desire to "implement Islamic values in all areas of life". "Islamism advocates the reorganisation of government and society in accordance with Sharia law. The various Islamist movements have been described as "oscillating between two poles": at one end, a strategy of Islamising society through revolution or invasion by means of a seized state power; at the other, a "reformist" pole, Islamists seek to gradually Islamise society "from the bottom up". These movements have, according to one journalist (Robin Wright), "arguably changed the Middle East more than any trend since the modern states became independent" and have redefined "politics and even borders".

**Question 0**

What is an Islamic revivalist movement?

**Question 1**

In which areas of life does Islamism seek to integrate?

**Question 2**

What is Islamism's goal in terms of society and governance?

**Question 3**

What is the range between the two different Islamist movements described?

**Question 4**

One strategy of Islamisation is to seize power by what methods?

**Question 5**

What is a non-Islamic revivalist movement?

**Question 6**

In which areas of life does Islamism not seek to integrate?

**Question 7**

What goal does Islamism not have in terms of society and governance?

**Question 8**

One strategy of Islamisation is not to capture power by what methods?

**Text number 1**

Moderate and reformist Islamists who accept and work within the democratic process include parties such as the Ennahda movement in Tunisia. Pakistan's Jamaat-e-Islami is essentially a socio-political and democratic vanguard party, but it has also gained political influence through military coups. Islamist groups such as Hezbollah in Lebanon and Hamas in Palestine are involved in democratic and political processes, as well as armed attacks and efforts to abolish the state of Israel. Radical Islamist organisations such as al-Qaeda and Islamic Jihad in Egypt, as well as groups such as the Taliban, reject democracy outright, often declaring pro-democracy Muslims to be kuffar (see takfirism) and calling for violent/offensive jihad or calling for and carrying out attacks on religious grounds.

**Question 0**

What is the process within which moderate and reformist Islamists operate?

**Question 1**

Where does Hamas come from?

**Question 2**

What is the aim of Islamist groups like Hezbollah and Hamas?

**Question 3**

What do radical Islamist organisations reject completely?

**Question 4**

On what basis do radical Islamist organisations carry out their attacks?

**Question 5**

Under which process do moderate and reformist Islamists fail?

**Question 6**

Where does Pamas come from?

**Question 7**

What is the aim of non-Islamist groups like Hezbollah and Hamas?

**Question 8**

What do radical Islamist organisations fully endorse?

**Question 9**

On what basis do radical non-Islamist organisations carry out their attacks?

**Text number 2**

Another important division within Islamism is described by Graham E. Fuller between the fundamentalist "guardians of tradition" (Salafists, such as those of the Wahhabi movement) and the "vanguard of change and Islamic reform" centred around the Muslim Brotherhood. Olivier Roy argues that 'Sunni pan-Islamism underwent a major transformation in the second half of the 20th century', when it was supplanted by the Muslim Brotherhood movement and its Salafist movement, which focused on the Islamisation of pan-Arabism, emphasising 'sharia rather than Islamic institution-building' and rejecting Shi'a Islam. Since the Arab Spring, Roy has described Islamism as "increasingly dependent" on democracy in much of the Arab-Muslim world, so that "neither can survive without the other". While Islamist political culture itself may not be democratic, Islamists need democratic elections to maintain their legitimacy. At the same time, their popularity is so great that no government can call itself democratic if it excludes mainstream Islamist groups.

**Question 0**

What is the difference between fundamentalist Islamism and reformist Islamism?

**Question 1**

What did Olivier Roy say underwent a major transformation in the second half of the 20th century?

**Question 2**

What did the Salafist movement emphasise?

**Question 3**

What has Islam been increasingly dependent on since the Arab Spring?

**Question 4**

Why do Islamists need democratic elections?

**Question 5**

What is the difference between fundamentalist Islamism and non-reformist Islamism?

**Question 6**

What did Olivier Roy say was a major change in the second half of the 21st century?

**Question 7**

What did the non-Salafi movement emphasise?

**Question 8**

On what has Islam been increasingly dependent since the Arab Spring?

**Question 9**

Why don't Islamists need democratic elections?

**Text number 3**

Islamism is a controversial concept not only because it gives Islam a political role, but also because its adherents believe that their views reflect only Islam, while the opposite idea that Islam is or can be apolitical is a mistake. Scholars and observers who do not believe that Islam is merely a political ideology include Fred Halliday, John Esposito and Muslim intellectuals such as Javed Ahmad Ghamidi. Hayri Abaza argues that the separation of Islam and Islamism leads many in the West to support illiberal Islamic regimes at the expense of progressive moderates who seek to separate religion from politics.

**Question 0**

What role does Islamism aspire to, which makes it a somewhat controversial concept?

**Question 1**

What do Islamists believe their views reflect?

**Question 2**

Who cannot accept the idea that Islam can be apolitical?

**Question 3**

What does the inability to distinguish between Islam and Islamism lead many in the West to support?

**Question 4**

What do moderate progressives in Islam seek to distinguish?

**Question 5**

What role does Islamism aspire to, which is why it is not a controversial concept?

**Question 6**

What do Islamists not believe their views reflect?

**Question 7**

Who cannot accept the idea that Islam cannot be apolitical?

**Question 8**

What is it about the inability to distinguish between Islam and Islamism that leads many Austrians to support it?

**Question 9**

What do progressive moderates in Islam not seek to distinguish?

**Text number 4**

Islamists have asked the question, "If Islam is a way of life, how can we say that those who wish to live by its principles in the legal, social, political, economic and political spheres of life are not Muslims but Islamists and believe in Islam, not [just] Islam?". Similarly, the author of the International Crisis Group argues that the "notion of 'political Islam'" is an American creation to explain the Islamic Revolution in Iran and that apolitical Islam was a historical accident "during the heyday of short-term secular Arab nationalism in 1945-1970", and it is tacit/apolitical Islam, not Islamism, that needs explanation.

**Question 0**

What term do Islamists think should be applied to them?

**Question 1**

What does the author of the International Crisis Group consider to be the creation of the concept of political Islam?

**Question 2**

What was apolitical Islam?

**Question 3**

When was the heyday of secular Arab nationalism?

**Question 4**

What else but Islamism requires an explanation?

**Question 5**

What term do Muslims think should not be applied to them?

**Question 6**

What does the author of the International Crisis Group think, that the concept of political Islam is not a creation?

**Question 7**

What was not apolitical Islam?

**Question 8**

When was the heyday of secular non-Arab nationalism?

**Question 9**

What else but Islamism needs no explanation?

**Text number 5**

In the 1970s and sometimes later, Western and pro-Western governments often supported sometimes fledgling Islamists and Islamist groups, which later came to be seen as dangerous enemies. Western governments saw Islamists as bulwarks against the more dangerous leftist/communist/nationalist insurgents/opposition that Islamists were rightly seen to oppose. The US spent billions of dollars to help the mujahideen Muslim enemies of the Afghan Soviet Union, and non-Afghan veterans of the war returned home with their prestige, "experience, ideology and weapons" and considerable influence.

**Question 0**

When have Western governments supported fledgling Islamists?

**Question 1**

What were some of the Islamist groups supported by the West later perceived as?

**Question 2**

Western governments considered Islamists to be a lesser evil compared to whom?

**Question 3**

Who did the United States help to fight the Soviet Union?

**Question 4**

What did the returning non-Afghan veterans have besides prestige?

**Question 5**

When have Eastern governments supported fledgling Islamists?

**Question 6**

What did some of the Islamist groups supported by the East later become?

**Question 7**

Western governments considered Islamists to be the worse of the two evils compared to whom?

**Question 8**

To whom did the United States refuse to give aid to fight the Soviet Union?

**Question 9**

What did the returning non-Afghan veterans lack, apart from prestige?

**Text number 6**

Egyptian President Anwar Sadat - whose policies included opening Egypt to Western investment (infitah), transferring Egypt's allegiance from the Soviet Union to the United States and making peace with Israel - freed Islamists from prisons and welcomed exiles home as a tacit return for political support in the fight against leftists. His "encouragement of the birth of the Islamist movement" was said to be "emulated by many other Muslim leaders in the years that followed". This 'gentleman's agreement' between Sadat and the Islamists broke down in 1975, but not before the Islamists began to fully dominate the university student bodies. Hundreds were later murdered, and a huge rebel group emerged in Egypt in the 1990s. The French government is also reported to have promoted Islamist separatists 'in the hope that Muslim energies would be channelled into areas of piety and charity'.

**Question 0**

Who is the President of Egypt?

**Question 1**

What kind of relationship with Israel does Sadat want?

**Question 2**

What did Sadat aim to achieve by releasing the Islamists from prison?

**Question 3**

When did the so-called gentlemen's agreement between Sadat and the Islamists break down?

**Question 4**

How did the Islamists reward Sadat for his efforts to bring Egypt into modernity and civilisation?

**Question 5**

Who is the President of Afghanistan?

**Question 6**

What relations with Israel does Sadat oppose?

**Question 7**

What did Sadat not aim to achieve by releasing Islamists from prison?

**Question 8**

When has the so-called gentlemen's agreement between Sadat and the Islamists not fallen apart?

**Question 9**

How did the Islamists reward Sadat for his efforts to keep Egypt out of modernity and civilisation?

**Text number 7**

This funding was used to promote strict, conservative Saudi Arabian Wahhabism or Salafism. In its harshest form, it preached that Muslims should not only "always resist" infidels "in every way", but "hate them because of their religion ... for the sake of Allah", that democracy was "responsible for all the terrible wars of the 20th century", that Shia and non-Wahhabi Muslims were infidels, etc. While this effort has by no means converted all or even most Muslims to a Wahhabi interpretation of Islam, it has done much to displace more moderate local interpretations and set the Saudi interpretation of Islam as the "gold standard" of the religion in the minds of some or many Muslims.

**Question 0**

What kind of interpretation of Islam does Salafism promote?

**Question 1**

In what ways does Salafism, in its most severe form, encourage its followers to take on the religion of others?

**Question 2**

According to Salafism, democracy is responsible for which of the terrible events of the 20th century?

**Question 3**

Where does conservative Islam classify Muslims who follow the Shia interpretation?

**Question 4**

Which interpretation of Islam is for many followers of Islam the "gold standard" of their religion?

**Question 5**

What kind of interpretation of Islam does Salafism prevent?

**Question 6**

In what ways does Salafism, in its strictest form, discourage its followers from engaging with the religion of others?

**Question 7**

According to Salafism, democracy is responsible for which of the terrible events of the 21st century?

**Question 8**

Where does conservative Islam classify non-Muslims who follow the Shia interpretation?

**Question 9**

Which interpretation of Islam is not for many of its adherents the "gold standard" of their religion?

**Text number 8**

Islamist movements, such as the Muslim Brotherhood, "are known for providing shelters, educational assistance, free or low-cost medical clinics, housing assistance for students from elsewhere, student advisory groups, low-cost mass marriages to avoid prohibitively expensive dowry demands, legal aid, sports facilities and women's groups. "All of this is highly preferable to incompetent, ineffective or neglectful governments whose commitment to social justice remains rhetoric.

**Question 0**

What kind of movement is the Muslim Brotherhood?

**Question 1**

What is the Muslim Brotherhood known for in helping students from abroad?

**Question 2**

Why has the Muslim Brotherhood facilitated low-cost mass weddings?

**Question 3**

Compared to local governments, what are the Muslim Brotherhood's qualifications?

**Question 4**

What is the limit of an incompetent government's commitment to social justice?

**Question 5**

What kind of movement is the non-Muslim Brotherhood?

**Question 6**

What is the non-Muslim Brotherhood known for in helping students from abroad?

**Question 7**

Why has the Muslim Brotherhood not facilitated affordable mass weddings?

**Question 8**

The Muslim Brotherhood's competence is no match for what kind of local government?

**Question 9**

Where does an incompetent government's commitment to social justice stop?

**Text number 9**

While studying law and philosophy in England and Germany, Iqbal joined the London chapter of the Muslim League of India. He returned to Lahore in 1908. Although Iqbal divided his time between practising law and writing philosophical poetry, he remained active in the Muslim League. He was not in favour of India's participation in the First World War and kept in close contact with Muslim political leaders such as Muhammad Ali Johar and Muhammad Ali Jinnah. He criticised the nationalist and secularist Indian National Congress. Oxford University Press published Iqbal's seven lectures in English in 1934 in The Reconstruction of Religious Thought in Islam. These lectures discuss the role of Islam as a religion and as a political and legal philosophy in modern times.

**Question 0**

What did Iqbal study in England and Germany?

**Question 1**

Which organisation did Iqbal join in London?

**Question 2**

In which year did Iqbal return to Lahore?

**Question 3**

Who did Iqbal review?

**Question 4**

On which book were Iqbal's seven lectures in English published?

**Question 5**

What did Iqbal study in Ireland?

**Question 6**

Which organisation did Iqbal join in France?

**Question 7**

What year did Iqbal leave Lahore?

**Question 8**

Whose supporter was Iqbal?

**Question 9**

Which book was used to publish Iqbal's eight lectures in English?

**Text number 10**

Iqbal expressed fears that secularism and secular nationalism would undermine the spiritual foundations of Islam and Muslim society, and that India's Hindu-majority population would displace Muslim heritage, culture and political influence. In his travels to Egypt, Afghanistan, Palestine and Syria, he promoted ideas of greater Islamic political cooperation and unity and called for the abandonment of nationalist divisions. Sir Muhammad Iqbal was elected president of the Muslim League at the 1930 meeting in Allahabad and at the 1932 meeting in Lahore. In a speech in Allahabad on 29 December 1930, Iqbal outlined a vision of an independent state for the Muslim-majority provinces of north-west India. This speech later inspired the Pakistan Movement.

**Question 0**

What did Iqbal fear would undermine the spiritual foundation of Islam and Muslim society?

**Question 1**

Iqbal was concerned that India's predominantly Hindu population would do what to Muslim heritage and culture?

**Question 2**

When Iqbal promoted ideas of greater Islamic political unity, what did he encourage to stop?

**Question 3**

When was Iqbal elected president of the Muslim League?

**Question 4**

What inspired Iqbal's Allahabad speech?

**Question 5**

What did Iqbal fear would strengthen the spiritual foundations of Islam and Muslim society?

**Question 6**

Iqbal was concerned that India's predominantly Hindu population would not do what for Muslim heritage and culture?

**Question 7**

When Iqbal promoted ideas of greater Islamic political unity, what did he discourage from stopping?

**Question 8**

When was Iqbal elected Vice President of the Muslim League?

**Question 9**

What was not inspired by Iqbal's Allahabad speech?

**Text number 11**

Sayyid Abul Ala Maududi was an important figure in the Islamic revival of the early 20th century in India and, after independence from Britain, in Pakistan. He studied law and chose to become a journalist, writing on current affairs and above all on Islam and Islamic law. Maududi founded the Jamaat-e-Islami party in 1941 and was its leader until 1972. However, Maududi was much more influential through his writings than through his political organising. His highly influential books (translated into many languages) placed Islam in a modern context and influenced not only conservative ulema but also liberal modernising Islamists such as al-Faruq, whose 'Islamization of Knowledge' took forward some of Maududi's key principles.

**Question 0**

Who was an important figure in the Islamic revival of the 20th century in India?

**Question 1**

Maududi studied to be a lawyer, but what career did she choose instead?

**Question 2**

When did Maududi found the Jamaat-e-Islami party?

**Question 3**

Who was an important figure in the early stages of India's Islamic revival?

**Question 4**

Although Maududi studied to be a lawyer, what profession did she pursue instead?

**Question 5**

Where did Maududi make the biggest impact?

**Question 6**

Where do Maudud's books place Islam?

**Question 7**

Who was not an important figure in the Islamic revival of the 20th century in India?

**Question 8**

Maududi trained as a lawyer, but what religion did she choose instead?

**Question 9**

When did Maududi leave the Jamaat-e-Islami party?

**Question 10**

Where did Maududi have the least impact?

**Question 11**

Where did Maudud's books not place Islam?

**Text number 12**

Maududi also believed that Muslim society cannot be Islamic without Sharia law and that Islam requires the establishment of an Islamic state. This state should be a "theo-democracy" based on the principles of tawhid (oneness of God), risala (prophethood) and khilafa (caliphate). Although Maududi spoke of an Islamic revolution, by 'revolution' he did not mean violence or populist politics like the Iranian revolution, but the gradual transformation of the hearts and minds of individuals from the top of society downwards through a process of education, or da'wah.

**Question 0**

What did Maududi believe, that a Muslim society could not be Islamic if it did not exist?

**Question 1**

Maududi believed that Islam needed what to become established?

**Question 2**

What is the English translation of the word tawhid?

**Question 3**

What kind of revolution did Maududi advocate?

**Question 4**

What method did Maududi use to change people's hearts and minds?

**Question 5**

What did Maududi believe that a Muslim society could be Islamic if it were not?

**Question 6**

Maududi believed that Islam needed what was not established?

**Question 7**

What is the French translation of the word tawhid?

**Question 8**

What kind of revolution did Maududi not support?

**Question 9**

By what method did Maududi not want to change the hearts and minds of individuals?

**Text number 13**

Around the same time as Maudud, Hassan al Banna founded the Muslim Brotherhood in Ismailiya, Egypt, in 1928, arguably the first, largest and most influential modern Islamic political-religious organisation. In line with its motto "The Qur'an is our constitution", it sought to revitalise Islam through preaching and providing basic community services such as schools, mosques and workshops. Al Banna, like Maududi, believed in the need for a Sharia-based government, to be implemented gradually and persuasively, and to remove all imperialist influence from the Muslim world.

**Question 0**

When was the Muslim Brotherhood founded?

**Question 1**

Where was the Muslim Brotherhood founded?

**Question 2**

Who founded the Muslim Brotherhood?

**Question 3**

What is the Muslim Brotherhood's slogan and what is their constitution?

**Question 4**

What impression did Al Banna want to remove from the Muslim world?

**Question 5**

When was the non-Muslim Brotherhood founded?

**Question 6**

Where was the non-Muslim Brotherhood founded?

**Text number 14**

Some members of the Brotherhood, although perhaps against orders, took part in violence against the government, and its founder Al-Banna was assassinated in 1949 in revenge for the assassination of Egyptian Prime Minister Mahmoud Fami Naqrash three months earlier. The Brotherhood has suffered intermittent repression in Egypt and has been banned several times, in 1948 and several years later after clashing with Egyptian President Gamal Abdul Nasser, who imprisoned thousands of its members for several years.

**Question 0**

What actions did some members of the Brotherhood take against the government?

**Question 1**

When was Al-Banna assassinated?

**Question 2**

Whose murder was revenge for the earlier murder of Al-Banna?

**Question 3**

When was the Brotherhood first banned in Egypt?

**Question 4**

Who was the Egyptian president who imprisoned thousands of Brotherhood members?

**Question 5**

Some parts of the Brotherhood did not take what action against the government?

**Question 6**

When was Al-Banna born?

**Question 7**

For whom was the Al-Banna assassination not revenge for a previous assassination?

**Question 8**

When was the Brotherhood first recognised in Egypt?

**Question 9**

Who was the Egyptian president who imprisoned hundreds of Brotherhood members?

**Text number 15**

Despite periodic repression, the Brotherhood has become one of the most influential movements in the Islamic world, and particularly in the Arab world. For many years, it was described as "semi-legal" and was the only opposition group in Egypt able to put forward candidates in elections. In the 2011-2012 Egyptian parliamentary elections, political parties defined as 'Islamist' (the Brotherhood's Freedom and Justice Party, the Salafist Al-Nour Party and the liberal Islamist Al-Wasat Party) won 75% of all seats. Mohamed Morsi, an Islamist democrat from the Muslim Brotherhood, was Egypt's first democratically elected president. He was ousted in an Egyptian coup in 2013.

**Question 0**

What is the status of the Brotherhood in the Islamic world?

**Question 1**

How was the Brotherhood described for many years?

**Question 2**

The Brotherhood was the only opposition group in Egypt that was able to do what during the elections?

**Question 3**

What percentage of seats did political parties classified as Islamist win in Egypt's parliamentary elections in 2011-2012?

**Question 4**

Who was Egypt's first democratically elected president?

**Question 5**

What role has the Brotherhood played in the non-Islamic world?

**Question 6**

How was the Brotherhood described over the centuries?

**Question 7**

The Brotherhood was the only opposition group outside Egypt that was able to do what during the elections?

**Question 8**

What percentage of seats did political parties classified as Islamist win in Egypt's parliamentary elections in 2012-2013?

**Question 9**

Who was the first democratically elected president outside Egypt?

**Text number 16**

The swift and decisive defeat of Arab forces by Israeli troops in the Six Day War was a defining event in the Arab-Muslim world. The defeat and the stagnation of the economies of the defeated countries were blamed on the secular Arab nationalism of the ruling governments. The popularity and credibility of secular, socialist and nationalist policies declined sharply and steadily. Baathism, Arab socialism and Arab nationalism suffered, and various democratic and undemocratic Islamist movements inspired by Maududi and Sayyid Qutb gained ground.

**Question 0**

What was the Arab defeat of the Israeli forces in the Six Day War?

**Question 1**

What did the defeat of the Arab forces in the Six Day War mean for the Arab-Muslim world?

**Question 2**

Secular Arab nationalism was blamed both for the defeat of the Arab forces and for what kind of stagnation?

**Question 3**

What happened to the credibility of secular politics in the wake of the Six Day War?

**Question 4**

What gained ground while Arab nationalism suffered?

**Question 5**

What was the Arab defeat of the Israeli forces during the Seven Day War?

**Question 6**

What did the defeat of the Arab forces in the Seven Day War mean for the Arab-Muslim world?

**Question 7**

Secular Arab nationalism was blamed both for the success of the Arab forces and for what kind of stagnation?

**Question 8**

What happened to the credibility of secular politics as a result of the eight-day war?

**Question 9**

What declined when Arab nationalism suffered?

**Text number 17**

The views of Ali Shariat, the ideologist of the Iranian revolution, were similar to those of Mohammad Iqbal, the ideological father of the Pakistani state, but Khomeini's beliefs are considered to fall somewhere between those of Sunni Islamic thinkers such as Mawdud and Qutb. He believed that the complete emulation of the Prophet Mohammed and his followers, such as Ali, to restore Sharia law was necessary for Islam, that many secularised, Westernising Muslims were in fact agents of the West serving Western interests, and that acts such as the 'looting' of Muslim countries were part of a long-standing conspiracy against Islam by Western governments.

**Question 0**

Who was the ideologist of the Iranian revolution?

**Question 1**

What kind of father was Mohammad Iqbal to the Pakistani state?

**Question 2**

Where do Khomeini's beliefs stand in comparison with Mawdud and Qutb?

**Question 3**

Whose imitation was essential for Islam?

**Question 4**

What was the long-term goal of the West when it plundered Muslim countries?

**Question 5**

Who was not the ideologist of the Iranian revolution?

**Question 6**

What kind of enemy of the Pakistani state was Mohammad Iqbal?

**Question 7**

Who was it important for Islam not to imitate?

**Question 8**

What was the long-term agenda in looting the Muslim countries of the East?

**Text number 18**

The Islamic Republic has also maintained its dominance in Iran despite US economic sanctions and has created or assisted like-minded Shia terrorist groups in Iraq, Egypt, Syria, Jordan (SCIRI) and Lebanon (Hezbollah) (two Muslim countries with large Shia populations). During the 2006 Israeli-Lebanese conflict, the Iranian government gained some popularity, mainly among Sunnis, for its support of Hezbollah and President Mahmoud Ahmadinejad's vehement opposition to the US and his call for Israel's disappearance.

**Question 0**

Which republic has kept Iran under its control?

**Question 1**

What kind of sanctions has the United States imposed on Iran?

**Question 2**

Which groups has Iran been assisting in Iraq?

**Question 3**

When did the Iranian government enjoy any kind of boom?

**Question 4**

Who said he wanted Israel to disappear?

**Question 5**

Which republic has kept Afghanistan under its control?

**Question 6**

What kind of sanctions has Canada imposed on Iran?

**Question 7**

Which groups has Iran supported in China?

**Question 8**

When did the Iranian government fail to get a new lease of life?

**Question 9**

Who said he didn't want Israel to disappear?

**Text number 19**

In 1979, the Soviet Union sent its 40th Army into Afghanistan in an attempt to suppress the Islamic insurgency against the allied Marxist regime in the Afghan civil war. The conflict, which pitted impoverished indigenous Muslims (mujahideen) against an anti-religious superpower, prompted thousands of Muslims around the world to send aid and sometimes to go out to fight for their faith themselves. This pan-Islamic action was led by the Palestinian Sheikh Abdullah Yusuf Azzam. Although the military effectiveness of these 'Afghan Arabs' was marginal, an estimated 16,000-35,000 Muslim volunteers from around the world came to fight in Afghanistan.

**Question 0**

Who sent their army to Afghanistan in 1979?

**Question 1**

What was the Soviet Union trying to suppress with its army?

**Question 2**

What did the conflict make Muslims around the world do?

**Question 3**

How effective was the military use of the "Afghan Arabs"?

**Question 4**

How many Muslims came from all over the world to fight in Afghanistan?

**Question 5**

Who sent their army to Iraq in 1979?

**Question 6**

What was the Soviet Union trying to motivate with its army?

**Question 7**

What did the conflict make non-Muslims around the world do?

**Question 8**

How ineffective was the military use of the "Afghan Arabs"?

**Question 9**

How many Muslims came from Iraq to fight in Afghanistan?

**Text number 20**

Another factor that radicalised the Islamist movement in the early 1990s was the Gulf War, which brought several hundred thousand US and allied non-Muslim soldiers onto Saudi soil to end Saddam Hussein's occupation of Kuwait. Before 1990, Saudi Arabia played an important role in reining in the many Islamist groups it helped. But when Saddam, the secularist and Baathist dictator of neighbouring Iraq, invaded Saudi Arabia (his enemy in the war), Western troops came in to protect the Saudi monarchy. The Islamists accused the Saudi regime of being a puppet of the West.

**Question 0**

What did the Gulf War inadvertently cause in the early 1990s?

**Question 1**

Whose occupation of Kuwait are the US military trying to end?

**Question 2**

Until 1990, Saudi Arabia played an important role in containing which groups?

**Question 3**

What monarchy were the Western troops protecting?

**Question 4**

Whose puppet did the Islamists accuse the Saudi regime of being?

**Question 5**

What did the Gulf War deliberately do in the early 1990s?

**Question 6**

Whose occupation of Kuwait did Iraqi military personnel seek to end?

**Question 7**

Until 1990, Saudi Arabia played an insignificant role in containing which groups?

**Question 8**

What monarchy were the Eastern troops protecting?

**Question 9**

Whose puppet did the Islamists use to support the Saudi regime?

**Text number 21**

These attacks resonated with conservative Muslims, and the problem did not go away with the fall of Saddam, as American troops remained in the kingdom and de facto cooperation with the Palestinian-Israeli peace process developed. Saudi Arabia tried to compensate for its loss of prestige among these groups by repressing those domestic Islamists who attacked it (bin Laden is a good example) and by increasing support for Islamic groups (Islamist madrassas around the world and even supporting some violent Islamist groups) who did not attack it, but its pre-war influence for moderation was greatly reduced. As a result, there were attacks on government officials and tourists in Egypt, a bloody civil war in Algeria and Osama bin Laden's terrorist attacks culminating in the 11 September attack.

**Question 0**

Who was most affected by the attacks?

**Question 1**

Where did American troops stay after the fall of Saddam?

**Question 2**

What did Saudi Arabia try to suppress to compensate for the loss of its position?

**Question 3**

Where did the bloody civil war break out?

**Question 4**

Who planned many terrorist attacks?

**Question 5**

Who was least affected by the attacks?

**Question 6**

Where were American troops deployed after Saddam's victory?

**Question 7**

What did Saudi Arabia not try to suppress to compensate for the loss of its position?

**Question 8**

Where did the bloodless civil war break out?

**Question 9**

Who was not the mastermind of many terrorist attacks?

**Text number 22**

Although Qutb's ideas became increasingly radical during his imprisonment before his execution in 1966, the Brotherhood leadership led by Hasan al-Hudayb remained moderate and interested in political negotiations and activism. However, inspired by Qutb's last writings in the mid-1960s (notably the manifesto Milestones, or Ma'alim fi-l-Tariq), fringe or splinter movements emerged that tended in a more radical direction. By the 1970s, the Brotherhood had abandoned violence as a means of achieving its goals.

**Question 0**

Whose ideas became increasingly radical during his imprisonment?

**Question 1**

When was Qutb executed?

**Question 2**

What organisation was Hasan al-Hudaybi heading?

**Question 3**

Which movements tend in the most radical direction?

**Question 4**

When had the Brotherhood abandoned violence as a means to achieve its goals?

**Question 5**

Whose ideas did not become increasingly radical during his imprisonment?

**Question 6**

When was Qutb born?

**Question 7**

Which organisation did Hasan al-Hudaybi defeat?

**Question 8**

Which movements did not seek a more radical direction?

**Question 9**

When did the Brotherhood support violence as a means to achieve its goals?

**Text number 23**

The path of violence and military struggle was then taken by the Egyptian Islamic Jihad organisation, which was responsible for the assassination of Anwar Sadat in 1981. Unlike previous anti-colonial movements, the extremist group targeted "apostate leaders" of Muslim states who were secular or who had introduced or promoted Western/foreign ideas and practices in Islamic societies. Its views were outlined in a pamphlet written by Muhammad Abd al-Salaam Farag, in which he states:

**Question 0**

Who went down the path of violence?

**Question 1**

When was Anwar Sadat assassinated by Egyptian Islamic Jihad?

**Question 2**

Which leaders were attacked by Islamic extremists?

**Question 3**

What were the sins of the leaders attacked by the extremists?

**Question 4**

Who wrote the pamphlet outlining the radical ideas of the extremists?

**Question 5**

Who abandoned the path of violence?

**Question 6**

When did Egyptian Islamic Jihad support Anwar Sadat?

**Question 7**

Which leaders were not attacked by Islamic extremists?

**Question 8**

What sins were the leaders attacked by extremists guilty of?

**Question 9**

Who wrote the pamphlet presenting the non-radical ideas of extremists?

**Text number 24**

Another of the Egyptian groups that used violence in their struggle for Islamic order was al-Gama'a al-Islamiyya (Islamic group). The victims of their campaign against the Egyptian state in the 1990s included the head of the anti-terrorist police (Major General Raouf Khayrat), the speaker of parliament (Rifaat al-Mahgoub), dozens of European tourists and Egyptian bystanders, and more than 100 Egyptian police officers. The campaign to overthrow the government was ultimately unsuccessful and the main jihadist group Jamaa Islamiya (or al-Gama'a al-Islamiyya) renounced violence in 2003. Other lesser-known groups include the Islamic Liberation Party, Salvation of Hell and Takfir wal-Hijra, and these groups have been involved in various ways, including assassination attempts on political figures, arson attacks on video stores and attempts to take over government buildings.

**Question 0**

What did al-Gama'a al-Islamiyya use to get its way?

**Question 1**

Which group's terror campaign killed more than 100 Egyptian police officers?

**Question 2**

How did the Islamic Group's campaign to bring down the government go?

**Question 3**

When did Jamaa Islamiya renounce violence?

**Question 4**

Who has the Islamic Liberation Party tried to assassinate?

**Question 5**

What did al-Gama'a al-Islamiyya use to get its way?

**Question 6**

Which group was the victim of a terror campaign that killed more than 300 Egyptian police officers?

**Question 7**

How did the Islamic Group's campaign to support the government go?

**Question 8**

When did Jamaa Islamiya embrace violence?

**Question 9**

Who has the Islamic Liberation Party never tried to assassinate?

**Text number 25**

The Palestinian Muslim Brotherhood was "quiet" about Israel for some decades before the first Palestinian intifada in 1987, focusing on preaching, education and social services and benefiting from Israeli "leniency" in building a network of mosques and charities. As the first intifada escalated and Palestinian merchants closed their shops in support of the uprising, the Brotherhood announced the creation of HAMAS ("fervour"), dedicated to jihad against Israel. Rather than being more moderate than the PLO, Hamas' 1988 charter set out a more uncompromising position, calling for the destruction of Israel and the establishment of an Islamic state in Palestine. Hamas soon competed with and overtook the PLO for control of the intifada. The Brotherhood's devout middle class found common ground with the impoverished youth of the intifada in their cultural conservatism and their distaste for secular middle-class activities such as drinking alcohol and going without a hijab.

**Question 0**

How did the Palestinian Muslim Brotherhood deal with Israel until 1987?

**Question 1**

Which organisation is dedicated to jihad against Israel?

**Question 2**

What did the Hamas Charter uncompromisingly encourage?

**Question 3**

Where does HAMAS want to establish an Islamic state?

**Question 4**

Members of the fraternity object to which drink?

**Question 5**

How did the Iraqi Muslim Brotherhood deal with Israel until 1987?

**Question 6**

Which organisation is dedicated to the jihad against Iraq?

**Question 7**

What did the Hamas Charter encourage compromise on?

**Question 8**

Where does HAMAS not want to establish an Islamic state?

**Question 9**

Which drink do the members of the fraternity prefer to drink?

**Text number 26**

Hamas remains a major player in Palestine. Between 2000 and 2007, it killed 542 people in 140 suicide bombings or "martyrdom operations". In the January 2006 parliamentary elections, its first political attempt, it won a majority of seats, and in 2007 it drove the PLO out of Gaza. Muslims have praised Hamas for driving Israel out of the Gaza Strip, but it has been criticised for failing to achieve its demands in the 2008-9 and 2014 Gaza wars despite heavy damage and significant loss of life.

**Question 0**

Which organisation is still a major disruptive force in Palestine?

**Question 1**

How many people were killed by Hamas between 2000 and 2007?

**Question 2**

What did Hamas win in the January 2006 parliamentary elections?

**Question 3**

When did Hamas drive the PLO out of Gaza?

**Question 4**

What have Muslims been praising Hamas for?

**Question 5**

Which organisation has ceased to be a major disruptive force in Palestine?

**Question 6**

How many people did Hamas kill between 2010 and 2017?

**Question 7**

What did Hamas lose in the January 2006 parliamentary elections?

**Question 8**

When did Hamas keep the PLO in Gaza?

**Question 9**

What have Muslims rejected because of Hamas?

**Text number 27**

For many years, Sudan was under an Islamist regime led by Hassan al-Turabi. His National Islamic Front first gained influence when strongman General Gaafar al-Nimeiry invited its members to serve in his government in 1979. Turabi built a strong economic base with funds from foreign Islamist banking systems, particularly those linked to Saudi Arabia. He also recruited and built a cadre of influential loyalists by placing sympathetic students in university and military academies while serving as Minister of Education.

**Question 0**

What kind of regime ruled Sudan for many years?

**Question 1**

Who was the leader of Sudan's Islamist regime?

**Question 2**

Which organisation did General Gaafar al-Nimeiry invite to serve on his board?

**Question 3**

How did Turabi build a strong financial base?

**Question 4**

Where did Turabi place the students who supported his views?

**Question 5**

What kind of regime ruled Sudan for decades?

**Question 6**

Which organisation did General Gaafar al-Nimeiry not encourage to serve in his government?

**Question 7**

How did Turabi build a weak financial base?

**Question 8**

Where did Turabi place the students who were indifferent to his views?

**Text number 28**

When al-Nimeiry was ousted in 1985, the party did poorly in the national elections, but in 1989 it was able to overthrow the government elected after al-Nimeiry with the help of the army. Turabi was notorious for proclaiming his support for the democratic process and liberal government before coming to power, but once in power he strictly enforced Sharia law, tortured and imprisoned scores of opposition members and escalated the long-running war in South Sudan. The NIF regime also protected Osama bin Laden for a time (before 11 September) and sought to unite Islamist opposition to the US invasion of Iraq in the 1991 Gulf War.

**Question 0**

When was al-Nimeiry ousted?

**Question 1**

How did the party bring down the elected government in 1989?

**Question 2**

Although Turabi declared his support for the democratic process, he strictly applied what after coming to power?

**Question 3**

Who was the NIF administration protecting before 11 September?

**Question 4**

What did the NIF try to unite the Islamist opposition against?

**Question 5**

When was al-Nimeiry approved?

**Question 6**

How did the party overthrow the elected government in 1929?

**Question 7**

Although Turabi declared his rejection of the democratic process, what did he rigorously apply once in power?

**Question 8**

Who was not protected by the NIF administration before 11 September?

**Text number 29**

An Islamist movement inspired by Salafism and Afghan jihad and the Muslim Brotherhood was the FIS (Front Islamique de Salut) in Algeria. It was formed as a broad Islamist coalition in 1989, led by Abbassi Madani and the charismatic young Islamist preacher Ali Belhadj. Taking advantage of the economic failure and the unpopular social liberalisation and secularisation of the ruling left-wing nationalist FLN government, it used its preaching to advocate the establishment of a Sharia legal system, economic liberalisation and a development programme, education in Arabic rather than French and gender segregation, with women staying at home, to alleviate the high unemployment rate among young Algerian men. The FIS won clear victories in local elections and was on the verge of winning national elections in 1991 when the vote was cancelled due to a military coup.

**Question 0**

What does FIS stand for?

**Question 1**

Where was FIS founded?

**Question 2**

When was FIS founded?

**Question 3**

One of the items on the FIS agenda was to force women to do what?

**Question 4**

What cancelled the 1991 national elections?

**Question 5**

What does FISS stand for?

**Question 6**

Where was FLIS founded?

**Question 7**

When was FLIS founded?

**Question 8**

One of the things on the FIS agenda was to force men to do what?

**Question 9**

What cancelled the 1994 national elections?

**Text number 30**

In Afghanistan, the Mujahideen victory over the Soviet Union in the 1980s did not lead to justice and prosperity, as a vicious and destructive civil war between political and tribal warlords made Afghanistan one of the poorest countries in the world. In 1992, the communist-dominated Democratic Republic of Afghanistan collapsed and democratic Islamist elements of the mujahideen established the Islamic State of Afghanistan. In 1996, a more conservative and undemocratic Islamist movement known as the Taliban came to power, overthrew most of the warlords and took control of about 80% of Afghanistan.

**Question 0**

Not surprisingly, the mujahideen's victory over the Soviet Union in the 1980s did not produce what?

**Question 1**

What kind of civil war was fought between political and tribal warlords?

**Question 2**

What state did the civil war leave the Afghan economy in?

**Question 3**

When did the Democratic Republic of Afghanistan collapse?

**Question 4**

How much of Afghanistan did the Taliban take over?

**Question 5**

Not surprisingly, the mujahideen's victory over the Soviet Union in the 1980s succeeded in producing what?

**Question 6**

What kind of civil war was not fought between political and tribal warlords?

**Question 7**

What happened to Iraq's public finances after the civil war?

**Question 8**

When did the Democratic Republic of Iraq collapse?

**Question 9**

How much of Iraq did the Taliban take over?

**Text number 31**

The Taliban originated from thousands of madrasahs set up by the Deobandi movement for poor Afghan refugees, supported by the government and religious groups in neighbouring Pakistan. The Taliban differed from other Islamist movements to the extent that they could be better described as Islamic fundamentalists or neo-fundamentalists interested in spreading an 'idealised and systematised version of conservative tribal village customs' under the name of Sharia throughout the country. Their ideology was also described as being influenced by Wahhabism and the extremist jihadism of their guest Osama bin Laden.

**Question 0**

Thousands of madrasas gave birth to which organisation?

**Question 1**

Where did the support of governments and religious groups come from?

**Question 2**

The Taliban was so different from other moments that they could be described in more detail by what?

**Question 3**

What did the Taliban want to subjugate the whole country to?

**Question 4**

Who influenced the Taliban's ideology?

**Question 5**

Hundreds of madrasas gave birth to which organisation?

**Question 6**

What was the reason for the rejection of governments and religious groups?

**Question 7**

The Taliban was so similar to other moments that they could be described more precisely as what?

**Question 8**

What did the Taliban want to subjugate a small part of the country to?

**Question 9**

Who influenced anything other than Taliban ideology?

**Text number 32**

In July 1977, General Zia-ul-Haq overthrew the regime of Pakistani Prime Minister Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto. Ali Bhutto, a leftist who competed democratically with Islamists, had announced a ban on alcohol and nightclubs within six months, shortly before he was overthrown. Zia-ul-Haq was much more committed to Islamism, and 'Islamisation', the implementation of Islamic law, became the cornerstone of his eleven-year military dictatorship, and Islamism became his 'official state ideology'. Zia ul Haq was an admirer of Mawdud, and Mawdud's party, Jamaat-e-Islam, became the 'ideological and political arm of the regime'. In Pakistan, this top-down Islamisation was 'probably' more complete 'than in any other regime except Iran and Sudan', but many Islamists also criticised Zia-ul-Haq for using 'symbols' instead of substance and for using Islamisation to legitimise his coups. Unlike in neighbouring Iran, Zia-ul-Haq's policy was aimed at 'avoiding revolutionary excesses' and not at straining relations with US and Gulf allies. Zia-ul-Haq was killed in 1988, but Islamisation remains an important part of Pakistani society.

**Question 0**

When did General Zia-ul-Haq overthrow the Pakistani regime?

**Question 1**

What was Bhutto planning to deny in the six months before she was overthrown?

**Question 2**

What was the official state ideology of Zia-ul-Haq?

**Question 3**

What was Zia-ul-Haq accused of using Islamization to legitimize?

**Question 4**

When was Zia-ul-Haq killed?

**Question 5**

When did General Zia-ul-Haq accept the administration of Pakistan?

**Question 6**

What had Bhutto planned to accept in the six months before she was overthrown?

**Question 7**

What was the unofficial state ideology of Zia-ul-Haq?

**Question 8**

What support did Zia-ul-Haq get when he used Islamisation to legitimise?

**Question 9**

When was Zia-ul-Haq born?

**Text number 33**

The "Islamic State", formerly known as the "Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant" and before that as the "Islamic State of Iraq" (and referred to by many of its opponents as Daesh), is a Wahhabi-Salafi jihadist extremist group led by and composed mainly of Sunni Arabs from Iraq and Syria. In 2014, the group declared itself a caliphate with religious, political and military power over all Muslims worldwide. As of March 2015[update], it controlled a territory of 10 million people in Iraq and Syria, and nominally controls small areas in Libya, Nigeria and Afghanistan. (Although it is a self-proclaimed state, it has no international recognition.) The group also operates or has allies in other parts of the world, including North Africa and South Asia.

**Question 0**

What kind of group is the Islamic State?

**Question 1**

Who runs the Islamic State?

**Question 2**

What did the Islamic State declare about itself in 2014?

**Question 3**

How many people were under the control of the Islamic State in March 2015?

**Question 4**

What does the Islamic State need from the international community?

**Question 5**

What kind of group is a non-Islamic State?

**Question 6**

Who refuses to lead the Islamic State?

**Question 7**

What did the Islamic State declare about itself in 2015?

**Question 8**

How many people were controlled by Islamic State in February 2015?

**Question 9**

What does the Islamic State have in surplus from the international community?

**Text number 34**

It began as Jama'at al-Tawhid wal-Jihad in 1999, but pledged allegiance to al-Qaeda in 2004, took part in the Iraqi insurgency that followed the March 2003 invasion of Iraq by Western forces, joined the March 2011 fighting in the Syrian civil war and was expelled from al-Qaeda in early 2014 (al-Qaeda complained that it had not agreed to negotiations and was "notoriously intransigent"). The group gained notoriety after it drove Iraqi government forces out of key cities in western Iraq in a 2014 offensive. The group is adept at social media, posting videos online of beheadings of soldiers, civilians, journalists and aid workers, and is known for destroying cultural heritage sites. The United Nations has held ISIL responsible for human rights abuses and war crimes, and Amnesty International has reported ethnic cleansing on a "historic scale" by the group. The United Nations, the European Union and its member states, the United States, India, Indonesia, India, Turkey, Saudi Arabia, Syria and other countries have designated the group as a terrorist organisation.

**Question 0**

When did ISIL pledge allegiance to al-Qaeda?

**Question 1**

When did Western troops invade Iraq?

**Question 2**

When did the Syrian civil war start?

**Question 3**

Why did al-Qaida tell ISIL to get out?

**Question 4**

What does the UN have planned for ISIL?

**Question 5**

When did ISIL refuse to pledge allegiance to al-Qaeda?

**Question 6**

When did the Eastern forces invade Iraq?

**Question 7**

When did the Syrian civil war end?

**Question 8**

What has the United Nations not claimed ISIL to be?

**Text number 35**

By focusing on the Caliphate, the party takes a different approach to Muslim history than some other Islamists, such as Muhammad Qutb. HT believes that the key turning point in Islam was not the death of Ali or any other rightly guided caliph in the 7th century, but the abolition of the Ottoman caliphate in 1924, which is believed to have ended the true Islamic system, for which it blames the "infidel (kafir) colonial powers" acting through the Turkish modernist Mustafa Kemal Atatürk.

**Question 0**

How does the party deal with Muslim history?

**Question 1**

When did the four rightly guided caliphs die?

**Question 2**

When was the Ottoman Caliphate abolished?

**Question 3**

Which system is believed to have ended with the abolition of the Ottoman caliphate?

**Question 4**

What are the colonial states accused of?

**Question 5**

What is the party's position on Muslims today?

**Question 6**

When did the five rightly guided caliphs die?

**Question 7**

When did the Ottoman Caliphate survive?

**Question 8**

The abolition of the Ottoman caliphate is believed to have started which system?

**Question 9**

What do colonial powers get credit for?

**Text number 36**

HT does not engage in armed jihad or work for a democratic system, but seeks to seize power through an "ideological struggle" to change Muslim public opinion, and in particular through elites who "facilitate" "regime change", i.e. launch a "bloodless" coup. It allegedly tried and failed such coups in 1968 and 1969 in Jordan and in 1974 in Egypt, and is now banned in both countries. However, many HT members have joined terrorist groups, and many jihadist terrorists have cited HT as their main sphere of influence.

**Question 0**

What kind of jihad should HT avoid?

**Question 1**

How does HT seek to accumulate power?

**Question 2**

Whose opinion is HT specifically aimed at changing?

**Question 3**

Where did HT fail in the bloodless coup in 1974?

**Question 4**

Where have many HT members graduated to join?

**Question 5**

What kind of jihad does HT prefer to wage?

**Question 6**

How does HT seek to give up power?

**Question 7**

Whose opinion is HT specifically aimed at maintaining?

**Question 8**

Where did HT manage to carry out a bloodless coup in 1974?

**Question 9**

What have many HT members failed to join?

**Text number 37**

Greater London has over 900,000 Muslims (most of whom are of South Asian origin and concentrated in the East London boroughs of Newham, Tower Hamlets and Waltham Forest), and among them are some with strong Islamist views. Their presence, combined with the fact that British policy allows them a free hand, highlighted by revelations such as the Channel 4 documentary Undercover Mosque in 2007, has given rise to the term Londonistan. However, after the September 11 attacks, the imam of the Finsbury Park Mosque, Abu Hamza al-Masri, was arrested and charged with incitement to terrorism, which has led many Islamists to leave the UK to avoid internment.[citation needed].

**Question 0**

How many Muslims are there in Greater London?

**Question 1**

What is the view of some Muslims in London?

**Question 2**

When was the Channel 4 documentary Undercover Mosque broadcast?

**Question 3**

What derogatory name has London been given because of Britain's policy of not allowing its Muslim population to touch its Muslim population?

**Question 4**

What was Abu Hamaz al-Masri accused of when he was arrested?

**Question 5**

How many non-Muslims are there in Greater London?

**Question 6**

What is the outlook on life of some non-Muslims living in London?

**Question 7**

When was the Channel 8 documentary Undercover Mosque aired?

**Question 8**

Britain's policy of not interfering with its Muslim population has led to France being called a derogatory term?

**Question 9**

What was Abu Hamaz al-Masri accused of when he was released?

**Text number 38**

The US government has been working to combat Islamism or violent Islamism since 2001. These efforts in the United States have focused on public diplomacy programmes run by the State Department. There have been calls for the creation of an independent agency in the US with the specific task of undermining the influence of Islamism and jihadism. George W. Bush administration official Christian Whiton called for a new agency to focus on non-violent 'political warfare' aimed at undermining ideology. US Defence Secretary Robert Gates called for the creation of something similar to the defunct US Information Agency, which was tasked with undermining communist ideology during the Cold War.

**Question 0**

How long has the US government been actively involved in the fight against Islamism?

**Question 1**

Which US department led the fight against Islamism?

**Question 2**

Who called for the creation of an agency that would focus exclusively on undermining the ideology of Islamism?

**Question 3**

What is Robert Gates' position in government?

**Question 4**

What was the role of the US Information Agency during the Cold War?

**Question 5**

How long has the Canadian government been actively involved in the fight against Islamism?

**Question 6**

Which US department led the effort to support Islamism?

**Question 7**

Who called for the destruction of the agency for undermining the ideology of Islamism?

**Question 8**

What was Robert Gates fired for in government?

**Question 9**

What was the role of the US Information Agency during the Cold War?

**Document number 473**

**Text number 0**

Imperialism is a kind of defence of empire. Its name comes from the Latin word "imperium", which means to rule over vast territories. Imperialism is "a policy aimed at extending the power and influence of a country through colonialism, the use of military force or other means". Imperialism has greatly shaped the modern world. It has also enabled the rapid spread of technology and ideas. The term imperialism has been applied to the political and economic domination of the West (and Japan), particularly in Asia and Africa, in the 19th and 20th centuries. Scholars continue to argue about its exact meaning. Some authors, such as Edward Said, use the term more broadly to describe any system of domination and subjugation with an imperialist centre and periphery.

**Question 0**

The word imperialism comes from what ancient language?

**Question 1**

By what means is imperialism usually managed?

**Question 2**

The term imperialism has been applied to the Western countries and to which Eastern countries?

**Question 3**

Imperialism is responsible for the rapid spread of what?

**Question 4**

The word imperialism comes from what modern language?

**Question 5**

By what means will imperialism never be managed?

**Question 6**

In which century do most people consider the beginning of imperialism?

**Question 7**

The term imperialism has never been applied to the Western countries and to which Eastern country?

**Question 8**

Imperialism is responsible for the slow spread of what?

**Text number 1**

Imperialism is defined as "The policy of expanding the power and influence of a country through diplomacy or military force." Imperialism focuses specifically on how one group, often a state power, controls another group of people. This is often done through various forms of "otherness" based on racial, religious or cultural stereotypes. There is 'formal' and 'informal' imperialism. 'Formal imperialism' is defined as 'physical domination or full-scale colonialism'. "Informal imperialism" is less direct, but it is still a powerful form of domination.

**Question 0**

Imperialism expands the power of a country and what?

**Question 1**

colonialism is considered to be what kind of imperialism?

**Question 2**

imperialism often divides countries using what technique?

**Question 3**

Informal imperialism is still dominant, but less what?

**Question 4**

Imperialism does not expand the power of the country and what?

**Question 5**

colonialism would not be considered to be any kind of imperialism?

**Question 6**

The process of imperialism never focused on the control of which group of people?

**Question 7**

imperialism often unites countries using what technique?

**Question 8**

Informal imperialism is still dominant, but more what?

**Text number 2**

The definition of imperialism has not been definitively defined for centuries, and was confusingly seen as representing the policies of the great powers or simply generalised aggression. Subsequently, some writers[who?] used the term imperialism in a slightly more discriminatory way to mean any form of domination or control by one group of people over another. To clear up this confusion over the definition of imperialism, one could speak of 'formal' and 'informal' imperialism, the former meaning physical domination or 'full-scale colonial domination', while the latter means less direct domination, although it does include discernible forms of domination. Informal control is generally preferable to the formal seizure of territory. This is because in informal governance, control is spread more subtly through technological superiority, by forcing landowners into large debts that cannot be repaid, by owning private industries and thus expanding the territory controlled, or by forcing countries to accept unequal trade agreements by force.

**Question 0**

A forced trade agreement between two countries would be an example of what?

**Question 1**

colonialism or the physical occupation of territory is an example of what kind of imperialism?

**Question 2**

Some have generalised the meaning of the word imperialism to a generic what?

**Question 3**

Which is more expensive, formal or informal imperialism?

**Question 4**

In an informal imperialist situation, what subtle instrument can be used to extend a controlled area?

**Question 5**

A forced trade agreement between two countries is not an example of what?

**Question 6**

colonialism or the physical occupation of territory is not an example of what kind of imperialism?

**Question 7**

No one has generalised the meaning of the word imperialism to a universal what?

**Question 8**

Which is more advantageous, formal or informal imperialism?

**Question 9**

What subtle instrument cannot be used in an informal imperialist situation to extend a controlled area?

**Text number 3**

"The word 'empire' comes from the Latin word imperium, for which the closest modern English equivalent might be 'sovereignty' or simply 'to rule'." The main characteristic of an empire is the amount of land a nation has conquered and expanded. Political power grew from conquering land, but cultural and economic aspects flourished through maritime and trade routes. The difference between empires is that "while political empires were built mainly by expansion over land, economic and cultural influences spread at least as much by sea". Some of the most important aspects of trade across the seas were animal and vegetable products. European empires in Asia and Africa 'have come to be regarded as classic forms of imperialism, and most books on the subject are confined to European maritime empires'. European expansion caused the world to be divided according to how developed and developing countries were described by world systems theory. The two main areas are the core and the periphery. The core consists of high-income and high-profit regions; the periphery is at the opposite end of the spectrum and consists of low-income and low-profit regions. These critical theories of geopolitics have contributed to the debate on the meaning and impact of imperialism in the modern post-colonial world. The Russian leader Lenin argued that "imperialism was the highest form of capitalism, and claimed that imperialism developed after colonialism and that monopoly capitalism distinguished it from colonialism". This idea of Lenin's underlines how important the New Political World Order has become in modern times. Geopolitics now focuses on states becoming major economic players in the market; some states are now seen as empires because they have political and economic power over other nations.

**Question 0**

The area of land held by a country is its largest what?

**Question 1**

According to which theory did Western imperialism divide the globe?

**Question 2**

Who suggested that imperialism was the "highest" form of capitalism?

**Question 3**

One country's control over several other countries would constitute the original country of what?

**Question 4**

Which mode of transport was used to carry out most of the imperialism?

**Question 5**

Land under land control is the worst of what?

**Question 6**

According to which theory did Western imperialism unite the globe?

**Question 7**

Who suggested that imperialism was the "lowest" form of capitalism?

**Question 8**

The authority of one country is no other country, which would be the original country?

**Question 9**

Which mode of transport did not make imperialism a reality?

**Text number 4**

The term "imperialism" is often associated with the term "colonialism", but many scholars have argued that the two have their own separate definitions. Imperialism and colonialism have been used to describe the domination, control and influence of a person or group of people. Robert Young writes that while imperialism operates from the centre, is state policy and is developed for both ideological and economic reasons, colonialism is simply development for settlement or commercial intentions. In modern usage, colonialism also tends to imply a degree of geographical separation between colonial and imperial power. In particular, Edward Said distinguishes the difference between imperialism and colonialism by stating that "imperialism involved 'the practice, theory and attitudes of a metropolitan centre dominating a distant territory', whereas colonialism refers to 'the planting of colonies in a distant territory'. Unified land empires such as Russia or the Ottomans are usually excluded from discussions of colonialism. "116 Thus, it can be said that imperialism implies some form of colonialism, but colonialism in itself does not automatically imply imperialism because it lacks a political focus [further clarification needed].

**Question 0**

Imperialism is confused with what other term?

**Question 1**

What is missing from colonialism, what is missing from imperialism?

**Question 2**

Is colonialism as a policy due to economic reasons and for what other reasons?

**Question 3**

Who, apart from Russians, are often excluded from the debate on colonialism?

**Question 4**

Imperialism and colonialism both reinforce the supremacy of states over what?

**Question 5**

Imperialism is synonymous with what other term?

**Question 6**

What do colonialism and imperialism have in common?

**Question 7**

Colonialism as a policy is never for economic reasons and what other reasons?

**Question 8**

Who else besides Russians are often involved in the colonial debate?

**Question 9**

Imperialism and colonialism do not establish the supremacy of states over what?

**Text number 5**

Imperialism and colonialism both define a political and economic advantage over a country and its indigenous population, but it is sometimes difficult for scholars to illustrate the difference between the two. While imperialism and colonialism focus on the repression of the other, where colonialism refers to the process by which a country takes physical control of another country, imperialism refers to political and monetary domination, either formally or informally. Colonialism is seen as the architect that decides how to begin to control territories, and imperialism can be seen as creating the idea behind conquest in collaboration with colonialism. Colonialism is when an imperial nation begins the conquest of a territory and is then eventually able to control the territories that the previous nation had controlled. The essence of colonialism is the exploitation of the conquered nation's valuable resources and supplies, whereby the conquering nation benefits from the spoils of war. The meaning of imperialism is to create an empire by conquering the lands of another nation, thereby increasing one's own supremacy. Colonialism is the colonial possessions built and maintained in a region by a population from a foreign land. Colonialism can completely transform the existing social structure, physical structure and economy of a region; it is not unusual for the characteristics of the conquering peoples to be inherited by the conquered indigenous population.

**Question 0**

Political advantage is a feature of which state's policy?

**Question 1**

Colonialism often means that a country does what?

**Question 2**

How could imperialism be used to create an empire?

**Question 3**

what do conquering peoples pass on to indigenous peoples?

**Question 4**

What is the central meaning of colonialism?

**Question 5**

Political disadvantage is a feature of which country's policies?

**Question 6**

Colonialism never means that a country does what?

**Question 7**

How could an empire be created by non-imperialist means?

**Question 8**

What do the conquerors take from the indigenous population?

**Question 9**

What is the opposite of colonialism?

**Text number 6**

The controversial feature of imperialism is the defence and justification of empire-building on ostensibly rational grounds. J.A. Hobson defines this justification in general terms as follows: 'It is desirable that the earth should be inhabited, ruled and developed as far as possible by those races best able to do the job, i.e. those races with the greatest 'social efficiency''. Many others argued that imperialism is justified for a variety of reasons. Friedrich Ratzel argued that imperialism was necessary for the survival of the state. Halford Mackinder argued that Britain had to be one of the greatest imperialists and therefore justified imperialism. "The supposed scientific and racial theory of 'Social Darwinism' provided a supposed rational justification for imperialism. The rhetoric that the colonial conquerors were racially superior seems to have served its purpose, since, for example, throughout Latin America 'whiteness' is still valued today, and various forms of 'blanqueamiento' (whitening) are common.

**Question 0**

What is the most controversial aspect of imperialism?

**Question 1**

J. A. Hobson wanted, which races will make the world go round?

**Question 2**

Friedrich Ratzel thought, what does it take for a state to survive?

**Question 3**

Which theory partially justifies imperialism?

**Question 4**

What is the most respected skin colour in Latin America?

**Question 5**

What is the least controversial aspect of imperialism?

**Question 6**

J.A. Hobson didn't want which races would make the world go round?

**Question 7**

Friedrich Ratzel thought, what would a state not need to survive?

**Question 8**

Which theory does not partially justify imperialism?

**Question 9**

What is the most respected skin colour in America?

**Text number 7**

The Royal Geographical Society of London and other European geographical societies had great influence and were able to fund travellers who returned to report their discoveries. These societies also provided a space for travellers to share these stories. Political geographers such as the German Friedrich Ratzel and the British Halford Mackinder also supported imperialism. Ratzel believed that expansion was necessary for the survival of the state, while Mackinder advocated imperialist expansion of Britain, two arguments that dominated the discipline for decades.

**Question 0**

Where was Friedrich Ratzel born?

**Question 1**

Where was Halford Mackinder born?

**Question 2**

Halford Mackinder and Friedrich Ratzel were what kind of geographers?

**Question 3**

For Friedrich Ratzel, imperialism was what for the country?

**Question 4**

How would Europe's geographical societies support certain travellers?

**Question 5**

Where did Friedrich Ratzel work?

**Question 6**

Where did Halford Mackinder work?

**Question 7**

Halford Mackinder and Friedrich Ratzel were what kind of philosophers?

**Question 8**

For Friedrich Ratzel, imperialism was not what for the country?

**Question 9**

How would European geographical societies reject certain passengers?

**Text number 8**

According to geographic theories, such as environmental determinism, tropical environments also created uncivilised people who needed European guidance. For example, the American geographer Ellen Churchill Semple argued that although humans originated in the tropics, they only became fully human in the temperate zone. Tropicalism can be likened to Edward Said's Orientalism as the West constructed the East as the "other". According to Siad, Orientalism enabled Europe to establish itself as the superior and the norm, justifying its supremacy over the essentialised East.

**Question 0**

According to which theory were the people of the tropics uncivilised?

**Question 1**

According to Ellen Churchill Semple, what kind of climate was necessary for man to become fully human?

**Question 2**

In which book by Edward Said is the East described as "other"?

**Question 3**

According to certain geographical theories, what type of people does a tropical climate produce?

**Question 4**

By justifying certain racial and geographical theories, Europe thought it was what?

**Question 5**

According to which theory were the people of the tropics civilised?

**Question 6**

According to Ellen Churchill Semple, what kind of climate was unnecessary for man to become fully human?

**Question 7**

In which book by Edward Said is the West described as "other"?

**Question 8**

What type of people does a non-tropical climate produce according to certain geographical theories?

**Question 9**

By justifying certain racial and geographical theories, Asia thought it was what?

**Text number 9**

The principles of imperialism are often generalisable to the policies and practices of the British Empire "over the last generation, and are based on diagnosis rather than historical description". British imperialism often used the concept of terra nullius (a Latin term derived from Roman law meaning 'empty land'). Australian land serves as a case study in relation to British settlement and colonisation of the continent in the 17th century, as its starting point was terra nullius, and its settlers considered it unused by its sparse Aboriginal population.

**Question 0**

Imperialism is most often associated with which sovereignty?

**Question 1**

Which law justified British imperialism?

**Question 2**

What was the name given to the indigenous people of Australia?

**Question 3**

When did Britain colonise Australia?

**Question 4**

Terra Nullius is a Latin expression meaning what in English?

**Question 5**

Imperialism is less often associated with which sovereignty?

**Question 6**

Which law did not justify British imperialism?

**Question 7**

What was the name given to the non-indigenous people of Australia?

**Question 8**

When did Britain settle outside Australia?

**Question 9**

Terra Nullius is a French expression that means what in English?

**Text number 10**

Orientalism, theorised by Edward Said, refers to how the West developed an imaginative geography of the East. This imaginative geography is based on an essentialising discourse that does not represent the diversity and social reality of the East. Rather, by essentialising the East, this discourse uses the idea of place-based identities to create a distinction and distance between the 'us' of the West and the 'them' of the East, or between the 'here' of the West and the 'there' of the East. This distinction was particularly evident in the textual and visual works of early European Orientalism, which posited the East as an irrational and backward opposition to the rational and progressive West. Defining the East as a negative view of itself, as inferior, not only enhanced the self-esteem of the West, but was also a way of organising the East and making it known to the West in order to control and dominate it. The discourse of Orientalism thus served as an ideological justification for early Western imperialism, as it constituted a body of knowledge and ideas to rationalise the social, cultural, political and economic domination of other regions.

**Question 0**

Orientalism refers to how the West developed what from the East?

**Question 1**

Early Western texts that refer to the East describe what people were like?

**Question 2**

What did the West see in the East?

**Question 3**

How did the West justify its control of the eastern territories?

**Question 4**

How did the West see itself compared to the East?

**Question 5**

Orientalism refers to how the South developed what of the North?

**Question 6**

Early Western texts that refer to the North describe what people are?

**Question 7**

What did the North see in the South?

**Question 8**

How did the Nordic countries justify their control of the western territories?

**Question 9**

The North saw itself as what compared to the East?

**Text number 11**

To illustrate this idea, Bassett focuses his analysis on the role of 19th-century maps in the "African quest". He argues that maps "contributed to the empire by promoting, assisting and legitimising the expansion of French and British power in West Africa". In his analysis of 19th century cartographic techniques, he emphasises the use of blank space to mark unknown or unexplored areas. This provided imperial and colonial powers with incentives to acquire 'information to fill in the blanks on contemporary maps'.

**Question 0**

bassett focuses on what to illustrate his point?

**Question 1**

What encouraged Western empires to colonise Africa?

**Question 2**

What were blank spaces used for on 19th century maps?

**Question 3**

What does Basset analyse before reaching his conclusions?

**Question 4**

Who colonised Africa other than the British?

**Question 5**

bassett does not focus on anything to illustrate his idea?

**Question 6**

What encouraged the Eastern empires to colonise Africa?

**Question 7**

What did Basset analyse after reaching his conclusions?

**Question 8**

Who other than the British colonised Asia?

**Text number 12**

Imperialism has played an important role in the history of Japan, Korea, the Assyrian Empire, the Chinese Empire, the Roman Empire, Greece, the Byzantine Empire, the Persian Empire, the Ottoman Empire, ancient Egypt, the British Empire, India and many other empires. Imperialism was a basic component of the conquests of Genghis Khan during the Mongol Empire and of other warlords. There are dozens of historically recognised Muslim states. There have also been dozens of empires in sub-Saharan Africa that predate European colonialism, such as the Ethiopian Empire, the Oyo Empire, the Asante Union, the Luba Empire, the Lunda Empire and the Mutapa Empire. In the pre-Columbian era, there were also great empires in the Americas, such as the Aztec Empire and the Incan Empire.

**Question 0**

Who used imperialism during the Mongol Empire?

**Question 1**

During which era did the Aztec and Incan empires flourish?

**Question 2**

In which area were the kingdoms of Asante and Luda located?

**Question 3**

How many Muslim countries have used imperialism?

**Question 4**

Which is older, the British Empire or the Ethiopian Empire?

**Question 5**

Who did not use imperialism during the Mongol Empire?

**Question 6**

During which era did the Aztec and Incan empires fail?

**Question 7**

The Asante and Lunda empires were not located in what region?

**Question 8**

How many non-Muslim empires have used imperialism?

**Question 9**

Which is younger, the French Empire or the Ethiopian Empire?

**Text number 13**

Cultural imperialism is when the influence of one country is felt in social and cultural circles, i.e. its soft power changes the moral, cultural and social worldview of another country. It is more than just a matter of 'foreign' music, television or film becoming popular with young people, but of this popular culture changing their own expectations of life and their hopes that their own country will become more like the foreign country depicted. For example, during the Cold War, depictions of the lavish American lifestyle in the soap opera Dallas changed the expectations of Romanians; a more recent example is the impact of smuggled South Korean drama series on North Korea. The importance of soft power has not been lost on authoritarian regimes, which counter such influence by, among other things, banning foreign popular culture, controlling the internet and unauthorised satellite dishes. Nor is this use of culture new, as as part of Roman imperialism, local elites were exposed to the benefits and luxuries of Roman culture and lifestyle in order to make them willing participants.

**Question 0**

What is it called when imperialism affects the social norms of the state?

**Question 1**

What is cultural imperialism often called?

**Question 2**

Which American series changed the views of Romanians during the Cold War?

**Question 3**

Which historical empire used cultural imperialism to undermine local elites?

**Question 4**

How do governments fight cultural imperialism?

**Question 5**

What is it called when imperialism does not affect the social norms of the state?

**Question 6**

What name is cultural imperialism never called?

**Question 7**

Which American did not seem to change the views of the Romanians during the Cold War?

**Question 8**

Which historical empire used cultural imperialism to persuade non-local elites?

**Question 9**

How do governments not fight cultural imperialism?

**Text number 14**

The era of imperialism, a period beginning around the 1700s when (usually European) industrialising nations set about colonising, influencing and annexing other parts of the world to gain political power. Although imperialist practices have existed for thousands of years, the term "Age of Imperialism" usually refers to the activities of European powers from the early 1700s to the mid-20th century, for example, the "Great Game" in Persia, the "Struggle for Africa" and the "Open Door Policy" in China.

**Question 0**

When did the era of imperialism begin?

**Question 1**

What were European countries doing in the 17th century?

**Question 2**

How many years have imperialist practices existed?

**Question 3**

When did the era of imperialism end?

**Question 4**

What was the name of China's imperialist policy?

**Question 5**

When did the era of imperialism end?

**Question 6**

What did European countries not do in the 17th century?

**Question 7**

How many years have there been non-imperialist practices?

**Question 8**

When did the era of imperialism begin?

**Question 9**

What was the name of China's non-imperialist policy?

**Text number 15**

In the 20th century, historians John Gallagher (1919-1980) and Ronald Robinson (1920-1999) provided a framework for understanding European imperialism. They argued that European imperialism was influential, and that Europeans rejected the notion that 'imperialism' required formal, legal domination by one government of another. "Historians, they argued, are fascinated by formal empires and maps of the world with regions coloured in red. Most British emigration, trade and capital went to areas outside the formal British Empire. Central to their thinking is the idea of empire 'informally if possible, and formally if necessary'."[attribution needed] The resources made available by imperialism led to significant growth and interconnectedness of the world economy in the decades before the First World War, making many imperialist empires rich and prosperous.

**Question 0**

When was John Gallagher born?

**Question 1**

When did Ronald Robinson die?

**Question 2**

What were the occupations of Ronald Robinson and John Gallagher?

**Question 3**

What grew globally as a result of imperialism?

**Question 4**

Who got rich and prosperous before the First World War?

**Question 5**

Which historian was popular in the 21st century?

**Question 6**

What profession did Ronald Robinson and John Gallagher not share?

**Question 7**

What grew globally as a result of the abandonment of imperialism?

**Question 8**

Who got rich and prosperous before the Second World War?

**Text number 16**

European expansion into regional imperialism largely focused on economic growth by gathering resources from the colonies and taking political control through military and political means. The colonisation of India in the mid-17th century provides an example of this concentration: there, 'the British exploited the political weakness of the Mughal state, and while military action was important at various times, the economic and administrative integration of the local elite into the continent was also crucial' in order to gain control of the continent's resources, markets and labour. While a significant number of colonies were designed to generate economic profit and transport resources to home ports in the 1600s and 1700s, Fieldhouse argues that in the 19th and 20th centuries, for example in Africa and Asia, this idea does not necessarily apply:

**Question 0**

Where was European imperialism concentrated?

**Question 1**

What did the European powers rely on for resources?

**Question 2**

When did the colonisation of India take place?

**Question 3**

Who was Britain exploiting in India?

**Question 4**

European imperialism never focused on what?

**Question 5**

What did the European empires not rely on for their resources?

**Question 6**

When did Indian colonisation not happen?

**Question 7**

Who did Britain not take advantage of in India?

**Question 8**

What was valid in the late 19th and early 20th centuries?

**Text number 17**

Alongside the development of communications, Europe also continued to develop military technology. European chemists produced deadly explosives that could be used in battle, and innovations in machinery enabled them to produce better firearms. By the 1880s, the machine gun had become an effective combat weapon. This technology gave European armies an advantage over their opponents, as armies in less developed countries continued to fight with arrows, swords and leather shields (e.g. the Zulu in South Africa in the Anglo-Zulu War of 1879).

**Question 0**

What other advances did Europe make in addition to military technology?

**Question 1**

What did European chemists produce that could be used in warfare?

**Question 2**

What was invented in 1880 that revolutionised warfare?

**Question 3**

What weapons were used by the Zulus in the Anglo-Zulu War of 1879?

**Question 4**

Which region invented the machine gun?

**Question 5**

Other than military technology, what other advances did Europe fail to make?

**Question 6**

What did European chemists not produce that could be used in warfare?

**Question 7**

What was invented in 1888 that revolutionised warfare?

**Question 8**

What weapons were used by the Zulus in the Anglo-Zulu War of 1880?

**Question 9**

Which region did not invent the machine gun?

**Text number 18**

In English-language academic works, theories of imperialism are often based on British experience. The term 'imperialism' was originally introduced into the English language in its current sense in the late 1870s by opponents of the allegedly aggressive and pompous imperialist policies of British Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli. It was soon adopted by imperialists such as Joseph Chamberlain. For some, imperialism was a policy based on idealism and philanthropy, others argued that it was characterised by political selfishness, and an increasing number associated it with capitalist greed. The liberal John A. Hobson and the Marxist Vladimir Lenin added a more theoretical macroeconomic connotation to the term. Lenin in particular had a major influence on later Marxist conceptions of imperialism with his work Imperialism, the Highest Stage of Capitalism, in which Lenin described imperialism as a natural extension of capitalism, born out of the need for capitalist economies to constantly expand investment, material resources and labour in such a way that colonial expansion was necessary. Subsequent Marxist theorists echo this view of imperialism as a structural feature of capitalism. Many theorists on the left have followed them in emphasising the structural or systemic nature of 'imperialism'. Such writers have expanded the time period associated with the term so that it no longer refers to politics or the brief period of the late 19th century decades, but to a global system spanning centuries, often going back to Christopher Columbus and in some cases to the Crusades. As the use of the term has expanded, its meaning has changed along five distinct but often parallel axes: moral, economic, systemic, cultural and temporal. These changes reflect - among other shifts in sensibility - a growing unease, even squeamishness, about power, especially Western power.

**Question 0**

Theories of imperialism use as a model country which country?

**Question 1**

When did the term imperialism begin to be used in its current definition?

**Question 2**

What was the idealised value of imperialism?

**Question 3**

Why, according to Lenin, must capitalist countries pursue an imperialist policy?

**Question 4**

Theories of imperialism do not use as a model country which country?

**Question 5**

When did imperialism begin to be defined as it is today?

**Question 6**

What was not the idealised value of imperialism?

**Question 7**

Why, according to Lenin, capitalist countries must not have an imperialist policy?

**Question 8**

When at the latest will most Marxists claim that the roots of imperialism are an extension of capitalism?

**Text number 19**

Historians and political theorists have long debated the relationship between capitalism, aristocracy and imperialism. The debate was largely initiated by theorists such as J.A. Hobson (1858-1940), Joseph Schumpeter (1883-1950), Thorstein Veblen (1857-1929) and Norman Angell (1872-1967). Although these non-Marxist writers were at their most prolific before the First World War, they remained active in the inter-war period. Their joint work contributed to the study of imperialism and its effects in Europe and to reflections on the rise of the US military-political complex from the 1950s onwards. Hobson argued that domestic social reforms could cure the international disease of imperialism by removing its economic basis. Hobson theorised that state intervention through taxation could increase wider consumption, create wealth and promote a peaceful, tolerant and multipolar world order.

**Question 0**

some debate that there is a correlation between capitalism, imperialism and what?

**Question 1**

When were Joseph Schumpeter and Norman Angell at their most productive?

**Question 2**

When was the military-political complex considered in the context of understanding imperialism?

**Question 3**

Hobson argued that imperialism was an international what?

**Question 4**

How did Hobson call for a world free of imperialism?

**Question 5**

There is some debate that there is no correlation between capitalism, imperialism and what.

**Question 6**

When were Joseph Schumpeter and Norman Angell not at their most productive?

**Question 7**

When was the military-political complex not considered in the context of understanding imperialism?

**Question 8**

Hobson argued that imperialism was not an international what?

**Question 9**

How did Hobson argue that the world should not be liberated from imperialism?

**Text number 20**

The concept of environmental determinism served as a moral justification for the domination of certain regions and peoples. It was believed that a person's behaviour was determined by the environment in which he lived and thus justified his domination. For example, people living in a tropical environment were considered 'less civilised', which justified colonial rule as a civilising function. In the three waves of European colonialism (first in the Americas, then in Asia and finally in Africa), environmental determinism was used to classify indigenous peoples in a racial hierarchy. This takes two forms, orientalism and tropicalism.

**Question 0**

What was the justification for pursuing an imperialist policy against certain peoples or territories?

**Question 1**

What was thought to determine human behaviour?

**Question 2**

What was considered tropical environments by people living there?

**Question 3**

Europe colonised America first and then Asia, but which continent was the third?

**Question 4**

What were the two forms of environmental determinism?

**Question 5**

What was not the justification for pursuing an imperialist policy against certain peoples or regions?

**Question 6**

What was not thought to determine human behaviour?

**Question 7**

People living in tropical environments were not considered what?

**Question 8**

Europe colonised America first and then Asia, but which continent was the fourth?

**Question 9**

What were the three forms of environmental determinism?

**Text number 21**

According to geographers working under colonial empires, the world could be divided into climate zones. These scholars believed that the temperate climate of northern Europe and the mid-Atlantic produced hard-working, moral and honourable people. Alternatively, tropical climates produced lazy attitudes, sexual immorality, exotic culture and moral decay. The inhabitants of these climates were believed to need the guidance and intervention of the European empire to control a more advanced social structure; they were deemed incapable of such performance. Similarly, Orientalism is a view of a nation based on its geographical location.

**Question 0**

Who would have thought that the world could be divided into climate zones?

**Question 1**

Which regions have a temperate climate?

**Question 2**

What did Europeans think the peoples of the tropics needed?

**Question 3**

Why was a similar view of the Asian continent called for?

**Question 4**

Who did the geographers work for?

**Question 5**

Who would have thought that the world could not be divided into climate zones?

**Question 6**

Which regions have a non-temperate climate?

**Question 7**

What did the Europeans not believe the peoples of the tropics needed?

**Question 8**

What was a similar view of the Asian continent that was not invited?

**Question 9**

Who did geographers not work for?

**Text number 22**

Britain's imperialist ambitions can be seen as early as the 1500s. In 1599, the British East India Company was established, and Queen Elizabeth founded it the following year. By establishing trading posts in India, the British were able to maintain their strength in relation to other empires, such as the Portuguese, who had already established trading posts in India. In 1767, political activity led to the exploitation of the East India Company, resulting in the looting of the local economy and the near bankruptcy of the company.

**Question 0**

When did Britain first have an imperialist policy?

**Question 1**

When was the British East India Company established?

**Question 2**

Who founded the British East India Company?

**Question 3**

What happened to the East India Trading Company in 1767?

**Question 4**

Which country had trading posts in India before Britain?

**Question 5**

When was the last time Britain had an imperialist policy?

**Question 6**

When was the British East India Company established?

**Question 7**

Who didn't set up the British East India Company?

**Question 8**

What happened to the East India Trading Company in 1766?

**Question 9**

Which country had trading posts in India after Britain?

**Text number 23**

France took control of Algeria in 1830, but began in earnest to rebuild its global empire after 1850, focusing mainly on North and West Africa and Southeast Asia, but also Central and East Africa and the South Pacific. Republicans, initially hostile to empire, only began to support it when Germany began to build its own colonial empire. As the new empire developed, it took on roles in trade with France, supplying raw materials and buying manufactured goods, giving prestige to the mother country and spreading French civilisation, language and Catholicism. It also provided crucial manpower for both world wars.

**Question 0**

When did France take over Algeria?

**Question 1**

When did France really start to rebuild its global empire?

**Question 2**

Where did France concentrate its efforts to rebuild its empire?

**Question 3**

When did the French Republicans support the building of the French Empire?

**Question 4**

What religion did the French spread with their imperialism?

**Question 5**

When did France take over London?

**Question 6**

When did France first start to seriously build its global empire?

**Question 7**

Where did France concentrate its efforts so as not to rebuild its empire?

**Question 8**

When did the French Republicans support the building of the English Empire?

**Question 9**

What religion did the English spread with their imperialism?

**Text number 24**

It became a moral justification to bring the world up to French standards by introducing Christianity and French culture. In 1884, Jules Ferry, a leading exponent of colonialism, declared that France had a duty to civilise: 'The superior races have a right over the inferior races, and it is their duty to civilise the inferior races'. Full civil rights - 'assimilation' - were offered, when in reality assimilation was always far on the horizon. Unlike Britain, France sent small numbers of settlers to its colonies, with the notable exception of Algeria, where French settlers always remained a small minority.

**Question 0**

In Jules Ferry's view, the "higher races" have a duty to what?

**Question 1**

What did France offer that was rare by imperial standards?

**Question 2**

How did France differ from Britain in the management of its colonies?

**Question 3**

The French thought, what would lift other areas?

**Question 4**

Where did the French send large numbers of settlers?

**Question 5**

Jules Ferry thought that the "higher races" have no duty to what?

**Question 6**

What did England offer that was rare by imperial standards?

**Question 7**

How was France similar to Britain in the management of its colonies?

**Question 8**

The British thought, what would lift other areas?

**Text number 25**

In the Second World War, Charles de Gaulle and the Free French used overseas colonies as bases from which to fight for the liberation of France. After 1945, however, anti-colonial movements began to challenge the Empire. France fought and lost a bitter war in Vietnam in the 1950s. Although they won the war in Algeria, the then French leader Charles de Gaulle decided to grant Algeria independence in 1962. Its settlers and many local supporters emigrated to France. Almost all the French colonies became independent by 1960, but France retained a great deal of economic and diplomatic influence. It has repeatedly sent troops to help its former colonies in Africa to suppress rebellions and coups.

**Question 0**

Where did Charles de Gaulle and the Free French operate during the Second World War?

**Question 1**

What challenged the French Empire after 1945?

**Question 2**

Where did France lose the war in the 1950s?

**Question 3**

Where did France win the war in the 1950s?

**Question 4**

When did most of the French colonies become independent?

**Question 5**

Where did Charles de Gaulle and the Free English operate during the Second World War?

**Question 6**

What challenged the British Empire after 1945?

**Question 7**

Where did France lose the war in the 1940s?

**Question 8**

Where did France lose the war in the 1930s?

**Question 9**

Where did France win the war in the 1970s?

**Text number 26**

From their original homelands in Scandinavia and northern Europe, the Germanic tribes spread throughout northern and western Europe in classical antiquity, conquering the Celts and other peoples in late antiquity, and by 800 AD had formed the Holy Roman Empire, the first Germanic empire. However, there was no real systemic continuity from the Western Roman Empire to its Germanic successor, famously described as 'neither Holy, nor Roman, nor Empire', as the loosely autonomous federation was made up of a large number of small states and principalities. Indeed, by 1000 AD the Germanic conquest of central, western and southern Europe (from Italy westwards and including Italy) was complete, with the exception of only Muslim Iberia. However, there was little cultural integration or national identity, and 'Germany' remained largely a conceptual term to refer to a disparate area of central Europe.

**Question 0**

Where were the Germanic tribes originally located?

**Question 1**

When did the Germanic tribes occupy areas of northern and western Europe?

**Question 2**

When did the Germanic tribes conquer the Celtic peoples?

**Question 3**

What was the only area of Europe not conquered by the Germanic tribes?

**Question 4**

Which region did Germany refer to more than the country itself?

**Question 5**

Where were the Germanic tribes not originally located?

**Question 6**

When did Germanic tribes not claim territories in northern and western Europe?

**Question 7**

When did Germanic tribes not conquer the Celtic peoples?

**Question 8**

What was the only region in Europe conquered by the Germanic tribes?

**Text number 27**

Since Germany was neither a maritime state nor a nation state, as it would later become, its involvement in Western imperialism was limited until the late 19th century. Austria's involvement was mainly due to the Habsburg rule of the First Empire, the Spanish throne and other royal houses[further explanation needed] After the defeat of Napoleon, which caused the break-up of the Holy Roman Empire, Prussia and the German states continued to stay away from imperialism, preferring to manipulate the European system through the European concert hall. After Prussia united the other states into the second German Empire after the Franco-German War, its long-time chancellor Otto von Bismarck (1862-90) long opposed colonial acquisitions, arguing that the burden of acquiring, maintaining and defending such holdings would outweigh the potential benefits. He argued that colonies would not pay for themselves, that the German bureaucratic system would not work well in the tropics, and that diplomatic disputes over colonies would distract Germany from its core interest, Europe itself.

**Question 0**

Germany has no imperialist past until when?

**Question 1**

When was Otto von Bismarck born?

**Question 2**

When was the Second German Empire founded?

**Question 3**

What was Germany's key advantage?

**Question 4**

Who caused the fall of the Holy Roman Empire?

**Question 5**

Germany has no imperialist future until when?

**Question 6**

When did Otto von Bismarck die?

**Question 7**

When was the German Third Reich founded?

**Question 8**

What was not Germany's key advantage?

**Question 9**

Who did not cause the fall of the Holy Roman Empire?

**Text number 28**

In 1883-84, however, Germany began to build a colonial empire in Africa and the South Pacific before losing interest in imperialism. Historians have debated why Germany made this sudden and short-lived move;[verification needed] Bismarck was aware that public opinion had begun to demand colonies for the sake of German prestige. He was influenced by the merchants and traders of Hamburg, his neighbour in Friedrichsruh. The establishment of the German colonial empire proceeded smoothly, starting with German New Guinea in 1884.

**Question 0**

Where else but in Africa did Germany have imperial interests?

**Question 1**

Colonies were a sign among European countries of what?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the first German settlement?

**Question 3**

When did Germany establish its first settlement?

**Question 4**

Who influenced Bismark besides his neighbours?

**Question 5**

Where else but in Africa did Ireland have imperialist interests?

**Question 6**

Colonies were a sign of where among Asian countries?

**Question 7**

What was the name of another German settlement?

**Question 8**

Who influenced France besides its neighbours?

**Text number 29**

During the first Sino-Japanese war in 1894, Japan took control of Taiwan. As a result of the Russo-Japanese War in 1905, Japan took part of Sakhalin Island from Russia. Korea was annexed to Japan in 1910. During World War I, Japan took over territories leased by Germany in China's Shandong Province and the Marianas, Caroline and Marshall Islands. In 1918, Japan occupied parts of the Far East from Russia and parts of Eastern Siberia as part of its intervention in Siberia. In 1931, Japan conquered Manchuria from China. During the Second Sino-Japanese War in 1937, the Japanese army invaded central China, and by the end of the Pacific War, Japan had conquered much of the Far East, including Hong Kong, Vietnam, Cambodia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Indonesia, part of New Guinea and some Pacific islands. Japan also invaded Thailand and pressured the country into a Thai-Japanese alliance. Japan's colonial ambitions ended with the US victory in World War II and the subsequent treaties that returned the territories in question to the US administration or their original owners.

**Question 0**

When was the first Sino-Japanese war fought?

**Question 1**

What happened as a result of the Russo-Japanese war?

**Question 2**

Which part of China was conquered by Japan in 1931?

**Question 3**

Which country did Japan force into the union?

**Question 4**

When was the last Sino-Japanese war fought?

**Question 5**

What did not happen as a result of the Russo-Japanese war?

**Question 6**

Which part of China was conquered by Japan in 1935?

**Question 7**

Which country was not forced into an alliance by Japan?

**Text number 30**

By 1921, the Bolshevik leaders had effectively recreated a state of roughly the same size as that empire, but with an internationalist ideology: in particular, Lenin called for limited self-determination for national minorities in the new territory. From 1923, the policy of 'indigenous domestication' [korenizatsiya] was aimed at supporting non-Russians in developing their national cultures within a socialist framework. It was never formally repealed, but its implementation ceased after 1932. After the Second World War, the Soviet Union set up socialist regimes modelled on those it had established in 1919-20 in the old Tsarist empire in the territories occupied by its troops in Eastern Europe. The Soviet Union and the People's Republic of China supported post-World War II communist movements in foreign countries and colonies to promote their own interests, but did not always succeed.

**Question 0**

Who, along with Russia, supported the communist movements after the Second World War?

**Question 1**

When was the Russian policy of "Indigenisation" abolished?

**Question 2**

Who claimed Russia's right to "self-determination"?

**Question 3**

What did Russia apply its old tsarist regimes to after the Second World War?

**Question 4**

Who had established the Russian Empire in its former glory before 1921?

**Question 5**

Who, together with Russia, supported the communist movements after the First World War?

**Question 6**

When was the Russian policy of "Indigenisation" funded?

**Question 7**

Who did not demand Russia's right to "self-determination"?

**Text number 31**

Trotsky and others believed that revolution could only succeed in Russia as part of a world revolution. Lenin wrote extensively on the subject and famously declared that imperialism was the highest stage of capitalism. After Lenin's death, however, Joseph Stalin established 'socialism in one country' for the Soviet Union, creating a model for later inward-looking Stalinist states and purging the early internationalist elements. The internationalist tendencies of the early revolution were abandoned until they returned during the Cold War in the framework of a client state competing with the Americans. At the beginning of a new era, the post-Stalin period, which was called the 'thaw', in the late 1950s, the new political leader Nikita Khrushchev further increased the pressure on Soviet-US relations by launching a new wave of anti-imperialist propaganda. In a speech to the UN Conference in 1960, he announced the continuation of the war against imperialism and stated that the peoples of the various countries would soon come together and overthrow their imperialist leaders. Although the Soviet Union declared itself anti-imperialist, critics argue that it had tendencies common to historical empires. Some scholars argue that the Soviet Union was a hybrid, containing elements common to both multinational empires and nation states. It has also been argued that the Soviet Union practised colonialism like other imperial powers and continued the old Russian tradition of expansion and governance. Mao Zedong once claimed that the Soviet Union had become an imperialist superpower while maintaining a socialist façade. Moreover, the ideas of imperialism were widespread in the activities of the higher levels of government. Non-Russian Marxists in the Russian Federation and later in the Soviet Union, such as Sultan Galiev and Vasyl Shakhrai, saw the Soviet regime as a reformed version of Russian imperialism and colonialism.

**Question 0**

Trotsky thought about what it would take for a real Russian revolution.

**Question 1**

Who wrote that imperialism is the highest stage of capitalism?

**Question 2**

What policy did Stalin implement soon after Lenin's death?

**Question 3**

Who was the leader of Russia in the 1960s?

**Question 4**

Who claimed that the Soviet Union had become an imperialist superpower?

**Question 5**

Trotsky thought what was not needed for a real Russian revolution.

**Question 6**

Who wrote that imperialism is the lowest stage of capitalism?

**Question 7**

What policy did Stalin implement soon after Lenin's birth?

**Text number 32**

The first British Empire was based on mercantilism, with colonies and possessions mainly in North America, the Caribbean and India. Its growth stalled when the American colonies were lost in 1776. Britain made compensatory gains in India and Australia, and by building an informal economic empire through its control of trade and finance in Latin America after the independence of the Spanish and Portuguese colonies around 1820. By the 1840s, Britain had adopted a highly successful free trade policy that enabled it to dominate trade in much of the world. Having lost its first empire to the Americans, Britain then turned its attention to Asia, Africa and the Pacific. After the fall of Napoleon's France in 1815, Britain enjoyed a century of almost unchallenged supremacy, expanding its imperial holdings around the world. Britain's white colonies were granted increasing internal autonomy in the 20th century.

**Question 0**

What was the first British Empire based on?

**Question 1**

When did Britain lose its colonies in North America?

**Question 2**

When the Spanish and Portuguese colonies gained independence.

**Question 3**

What policies helped Britain dominate world trade?

**Question 4**

When was Napoleon's France defeated?

**Question 5**

What was the first British Empire not based on?

**Question 6**

When did Britain become a colony in North America?

**Question 7**

When the Spanish and Portuguese colonies lost their independence.

**Question 8**

Which policy took Britain's dominance in world trade?

**Text number 33**

A new boom came in the late 19th century, with the battle for Africa and significant additions in Asia and the Middle East. The spirit of British imperialism was represented by Joseph Chamberlain and Lord Rosebury, and in Africa by Cecil Rhodes. The pseudo-sciences and race theories of social Darwinism formed the ideological basis for this period. Other influential proponents included Lord Cromer, Lord Curzon, General Kitchner, Lord Milner and the writer Rudyard Kipling. The British Empire was the largest empire the world has ever seen, both in terms of land area and population. Its military and economic power was unrivalled.

**Question 0**

In the late 19th century, which country had the largest empire the world had ever seen?

**Question 1**

What were the sciences of social Darwinism and race theory?

**Question 2**

In which continent, apart from Asia, did the British Empire achieve great victories in the late 19th century?

**Question 3**

Rudyard Kipling was an influential advocate for what?

**Question 4**

In the late 19th century, which country had the smallest empire that ever existed in the world?

**Question 5**

What kind of literature was social Darwinism and race theory?

**Question 6**

On which continent other than Asia did the Asian empire make great gains in the late 19th century?

**Text number 34**

The early United States expressed its opposition to imperialism, at least in a form different from its own Manifest Destiny, through policies such as the Monroe Doctrine. However, the policies of the late 19th and early 20th centuries, such as Theodore Roosevelt's interventionism in Central America and Woodrow Wilson's mission to "make the world safe for democracy", changed all that. They were often backed by military force, but more often they were influenced from behind the scenes. This corresponds to the general perception of hegemony and empire in historical empires. In 1898, anti-imperialist Americans founded the Anti-Imperialist League to oppose the annexation of the Philippines and Cuba to the United States. A year later, war broke out in the Philippines, which led US business, labour and government leaders to condemn the American occupation of the Philippines, as they also condemned them for causing the deaths of many Filipinos. American General Smedley Butler denounced US foreign policy as a "sham". He said: "In hindsight, I might have given Al Capone a few pointers. The best he could do was to carry out his deception in three areas. I was operating on three continents."

**Question 0**

How did the United States plan to subdue imperialist tendencies?

**Question 1**

What was the name of Theodore Roosevelt's imperialist policy?

**Question 2**

Which country besides Cuba did the United States try to annex in 1898?

**Question 3**

What led the US public to condemn the invasion of the Philippines?

**Question 4**

What did Smedley Butler call US foreign policy?

**Question 5**

How was the United States going to subjugate the nonimperialist tendencies?

**Question 6**

What was the name of Theodore Roosevelt's non-imperialist policy?

**Question 7**

Which country, apart from Cuba, did the United States not try to annex in 1898?

**Question 8**

What made the US public support the invasion of the Philippines?

**Text number 35**

One of the key figures in the plans for the area known as the American Empire was a geographer called Isiah Bowman. Bowman was president of the American Geographical Society in 1914. Three years later, in 1917, he was appointed to the 1917 survey by then President Woodrow Wilson, which was the brainchild of President Wilson and the American delegation to the Paris Peace Conference. The purpose of the study was to provide a starting point for the United States to create a 'new world' characterised by a geographical order. Isiah Bowman was known as Wilson's geographer because of the role he played in the study.

**Question 0**

Who was the President of the American Geographical Society in 1914?

**Question 1**

When was Isiah Bowman appointed to President Wilson's inquiry?

**Question 2**

Who else but Woodrow Wilson himself came up with the idea for the survey?

**Question 3**

What was the starting point for Woodrow Wilson's research?

**Question 4**

What was Isiah Bowman's nickname known to the public.

**Question 5**

Who was the President of the American Geographical Society in 1917?

**Question 6**

When was Isiah Bowman not appointed to President Wilson's inquiry?

**Question 7**

Who but Woodrow Wilson himself had no idea about research?

**Text number 36**

Some have described internal disputes between different population groups as a form of imperialism or colonialism. This internal form differs from the informal imperialism of the United States in the form of political and economic hegemony. This internal form of imperialism also differs from the formation of 'colonies' abroad by the United States. Through its treatment of indigenous peoples during the process of Western expansion, the United States assumed a form of imperialist power before the attempts of external imperialism. This internal form of empire has been called 'internal colonialism'. The involvement in the African slave trade and the subsequent treatment of 12-15 million Africans is seen by some as a more modern extension of America's 'internal colonialism'. However, this internal colonialism met with resistance, as did external colonialism, but the anti-colonial presence was much less pronounced because the United States was able to exercise almost total domination over both indigenous peoples and African Americans. In his lecture of 16 April 2003, Edward Said made a bold statement on modern US imperialism, which he described as aggressive invasion of the modern East 'because of its backward way of life, lack of democracy and violation of women's rights'. In this second conversion process, the West is forgetting that enlightenment and democracy are concepts that not everyone agrees on".

**Question 0**

Some people describe what between individuals or groups as imperialism or colonialism?

**Question 1**

What form of colonialism could the US expansion into the West be considered?

**Question 2**

How many Africans were brought to the United States during the slave trade?

**Question 3**

Who is US imperialism attacking, according to Edward Said?

**Question 4**

Some describe what between individuals or groups as non-imperialism or non-colonialism?

**Question 5**

What kind of non-colonialism could the US expansion to the West be considered?

**Question 6**

How many Africans were brought to the United States during the non-slave trade?

**Question 7**

Canada's racial strife is a unique form of what?

**Text number 37**

The Ottoman Empire was an imperial state that lasted from 1299 to 1923. In the 1500s and 1600s, especially at the height of its power during the reign of Suleiman the Magnificent, the Ottoman Empire was a powerful multi-ethnic and multilingual empire that ruled much of south-eastern Europe, western Asia, the Caucasus, North Africa and the Horn of Africa. In the early 17th century, the empire comprised 32 provinces and numerous vassal states. Some of these were later incorporated into the empire, while others were granted varying degrees of autonomy over the centuries.

**Question 0**

When did the Ottoman Empire fall?

**Question 1**

Who ruled the Ottoman Empire when it was at its strongest.

**Question 2**

How many provinces were there in the Ottoman Empire in the 17th century?

**Question 3**

The Ottoman Empire ruled territories on three continents, Africa, Asia and where else?

**Question 4**

When was the Ottoman Empire at its height?

**Question 5**

When did the Ottoman Empire rise?

**Question 6**

He ruled the Ottoman Empire when it was at its weakest.

**Question 7**

How many provinces did the Ottoman Empire not have in the 17th century?

**Question 8**

The Ottoman Empire ruled territories on four continents, Africa, Asia and where else?

**Text number 38**

For six centuries, the Ottoman Empire, with Istanbul as its capital and dominating the Mediterranean, was at the centre of the interaction between the Eastern and Western worlds. After a long period of military defeat by the European powers, the Ottoman Empire gradually declined in the late 19th century. The empire allied with Germany in the early 20th century and sought to regain the territories it had lost, but it disintegrated after the First World War, leading to the emergence of a new Turkish state in the Ottoman heartland of Anatolia and the modern Balkan and Middle Eastern states, which ended Turkey's colonial ambitions.

**Question 0**

What was the capital of the Ottoman Empire?

**Question 1**

Who did the Ottoman Empire ally with in the First World War?

**Question 2**

Which country is now a remnant of the Ottoman Empire?

**Question 3**

What ended Turkey's imperial ambitions?

**Question 4**

What was not the capital of the Ottoman Empire?

**Question 5**

Where was the less popular shopping centre of the Ottoman Empire?

**Question 6**

Who did the Ottoman Empire ally with in World War II?

**Question 7**

Which country today is not a remnant of the Ottoman Empire?

**Question 8**

What ended France's imperial ambitions?

**Document number 474**

**Text number 0**

Warsaw (Polish: Warszawa [varˈʂava] ( listen); see also other names) is the capital and largest city of Poland. It is located on the Vistula River in east-central Poland, about 260 kilometres from the Baltic Sea and 300 kilometres from the Carpathians. It has an estimated population of 1.740 million in a metropolitan area of 2.666 million inhabitants, making Warsaw the ninth most populous capital in the European Union. The city covers an area of 516.9 square kilometres, compared to 6 100.43 square kilometres in the Capital Region.

**Question 0**

What is the largest city in Poland?

**Question 1**

Which river is Warsaw on?

**Question 2**

How far is Warsaw from the Baltic Sea?

**Question 3**

How many people live in a metropolitan area?

**Question 4**

What is Warsaw's position as the most populous city in the European Union?

**Question 5**

What is Warsaw known as in Carpathia?

**Question 6**

What is the largest city in Carpathia?

**Question 7**

Which river flows through the Carpathians?

**Question 8**

How many people live in Carpathia?

**Question 9**

Where do the Carp rank in terms of EU population?

**Text number 1**

In 2012, the Economist Intelligence Unit ranked Warsaw as the 32nd most liveable city in the world. It was also one of the most liveable cities in Central Europe. Today, Warsaw is considered a global Alpha City, a major international tourist destination and an important cultural, political and economic centre. Warsaw's economy is characterised by a wide range of industries, from FMCG to metal processing, steel and electronics manufacturing and food processing. The city is a major centre for research and development, BPO, ITO and the Polish media industry. The Warsaw Stock Exchange is one of the largest and most important in Central and Eastern Europe. Frontex, the European Union agency responsible for the security of the external borders, has its headquarters in Warsaw. It has been said that Warsaw is one of the cities with the highest number of skyscrapers in the European Union, along with Frankfurt, London, Paris and Barcelona. Warsaw has also been called "the chic cultural capital of Eastern Europe, with a thriving arts and club scene and serious restaurants".

**Question 0**

Who ranked Warsaw as the 32nd most liveable city in the world?

**Question 1**

When was Warsaw ranked the 32nd most liveable city in the world?

**Question 2**

What characterises the Warsaw economy?

**Question 3**

Which Warsaw interchange is one of the most important in Central and Eastern Europe?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the European Agency for the Security of the External Borders of the European Union?

**Question 5**

Who ranked Warsaw as the 22nd most populous city in the world?

**Question 6**

What is specific to the FMCG economy?

**Question 7**

Which FMCG sector exchange is one of the most important in Central and Eastern Europe?

**Question 8**

When was Warsaw ranked the 22nd most liveable city in the world?

**Question 9**

What is the name of the FMCG agency responsible for security at external borders?

**Text number 2**

The first historical mention of Warsaw dates back to 1313, when Kraków was the capital of Poland. Thanks to its central location between the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth capitals of Kraków and Vilnius, Warsaw became the capital of the Commonwealth and the Crown of the Kingdom of Poland when King Sigismund III Vaasa moved his court from Kraków to Warsaw in 1596. After the third partition of Poland in 1795, Warsaw was incorporated into the Kingdom of Prussia. During the Napoleonic Wars in 1806, the city became the official capital of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, a puppet state of the First French Empire founded by Napoleon Bonaparte. Following the decisions of the Congress of Vienna, the Russian Empire annexed Warsaw in 1815 and it became part of the 'Kingdom of Congress'. It was not until 1918 that Warsaw became independent and became the new capital of the independent Republic of Poland. The German invasion in 1939, the massacre of the Jewish population and deportation to concentration camps led to the Warsaw Ghetto Uprising in 1943 and the great and devastating Warsaw Uprising in August-October 1944. Warsaw was given the title "City of Phoenix" because it has survived many wars, conflicts and invasions over its long history. Above all, the city required careful reconstruction after the extensive damage it suffered in the Second World War, when 85% of its buildings were destroyed. On 9 November 1940, the city was awarded Poland's highest military decoration, the Virtuti Militari, for heroism during the siege of Warsaw (1939).

**Question 0**

When is the first mention of Warsaw in history?

**Question 1**

Which city was the capital of Poland in 1313?

**Question 2**

When did Warsaw become the capital of the Kingdom of Poland?

**Question 3**

Who moved his court from Krakow to Warsaw in 1596?

**Question 4**

Why was Warsaw awarded the title of "City of Phoenix"?

**Question 5**

When in history was Prussia first referred to?

**Question 6**

Which city was the capital of Prussia in 1313?

**Question 7**

When did Warsaw become the capital of the Kingdom of Prussia?

**Question 8**

Who moved his court from Warsaw to Krakow in 1596?

**Question 9**

Why was Prussia given the title of "Province of the Phoenix"?

**Text number 3**

The city has a Roman Catholic archdiocese (on the left bank of the Vistula) and a diocese (on the right bank), several universities, notably the Polish Academy of Sciences and Warsaw University, two opera houses, theatres, museums, libraries and monuments. Warsaw's historic centre and its charming Old Town were designated a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 1980. Other important architectural attractions include the Castle Square, home to the Royal Castle and the iconic King Sigismund's Column, St. John's Cathedral, the Market Square, palaces, churches and mansions, all rich in colour and architectural detail. The buildings represent examples of almost every European architectural style and historical period. Warsaw has many examples of Gothic, Renaissance, Baroque and Neoclassical architecture, and about a quarter of the city is filled with luxurious parks and royal gardens.

**Question 0**

Which archdiocese has Warsaw as its capital?

**Question 1**

What is the second major university in Warsaw after the University of Warsaw?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the Old Town of Warsaw in 1980?

**Question 3**

King Sigimund's Column is an example of what kind of attraction Warsaw has?

**Question 4**

What is a quarter of Warsaw full of?

**Question 5**

In which archdiocese is Market Square located?

**Question 6**

What was the name of Warsaw's Market Square in 1980?

**Question 7**

What is a quarter of the UNESCO site full of?

**Question 8**

What is the second major UNESCO university after the University of Warsaw?

**Question 9**

King Sigismund's Column is an example of which UNESCO site?

**Text number 4**

Warsaw's name in Polish is Warszawa, about /vɑːrˈʃɑːvə/ (formerly also Warszewa and Warszowa), meaning "belonging to Warsz", Warsz being a shortened form of the Slavic male name Warcisław; see also the etymology of Wrocław. According to folk etymology, the name of the town comes from Wars, a fisherman, and his wife Sawa. According to legend, Sawa was a mermaid from the Vistula River with whom Wars fell in love. In reality, Warsz was a nobleman of the 1200s and 1300s who owned a village in what is now Mariensztat. See also the Vršovci family who fled to Poland. The official name of the city as a whole is miasto stołeczne Warszawa (in English: 'Capital of Warsaw'). A person from or living in Warsaw is called a Warsaw citizen - in Polish warszawiak (male), warszawianka (female), warszawiacy (plural).

**Question 0**

What is the name of Warsaw in Polish?

**Question 1**

What does Warszawa mean in Polish?

**Question 2**

Who was Warsz?

**Question 3**

What did Warsz own?

**Question 4**

What is the official name of the city of Warsaw?

**Question 5**

What is the name of Warsaw in vrisovci?

**Question 6**

What does Vriscovci mean in Polish?

**Question 7**

Who was Vrisovci?

**Question 8**

What did Vrisovci own?

**Question 9**

What is the official name of the city of Miasto?

**Text number 5**

The first fortified settlements in what is now Warsaw were in Bródno (9th-10th century) and Jazdów (12th/13th century). After raids on Jazdów by nearby clans and duchies, a new settlement of the same kind was established on the site of a small fishing village, Warszowa. This settlement, now Warsaw, was founded around 1300 by Bolesław II of Masovia, Prince of Płock. In the early 1300s, it became one of the residences of the Dukes of Masovia, and became the official capital of the Duchy of Masovia in 1413. The economy of 1300s Warsaw was based mainly on crafts and trade. After the death of a generation of local dukes, the duchy was reintegrated into the Polish crown in 1526.

**Question 0**

Which city, plundered by the clans and dukes, preceded the founding of Warszowa?

**Question 1**

Who was Boleslaw II of Masovia?

**Question 2**

When was the Warsaw colony established?

**Question 3**

In what year did Warszowa become the official capital of the Duchy of Masovia?

**Question 4**

When was the Duchy of Masovia rejoined the Polish crown?

**Question 5**

Who was Boleslaw Masovia II?

**Question 6**

When was the colony of Boleslaw founded?

**Question 7**

Which city, plundered by the clans and dukes, preceded the founding of Boleslaw?

**Question 8**

In what year did Boleslaw become the official capital of the Duchy of Masovia?

**Question 9**

When was the Duchy of Bolelsawi re-annexed to the Polish crown?

**Text number 6**

In 1529, Warsaw became the seat of a permanent General Sejm for the first time since 1569. In 1573, the city gave its name to the Warsaw Confederation, which formally established religious freedom in the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. Because of its central location between the Commonwealth capitals of Krakow and Vilnius, Warsaw became the capital of the Commonwealth and the Crown of the Kingdom of Poland when King Sigismund III Vaasa moved his court from Krakow to Warsaw in 1596. In the following years, the city expanded towards the suburbs. Several private independent districts were established, owned by the aristocracy and nobility and governed by their own laws. Between 1655 and 1658 the town was besieged three times, and three times it was occupied and sacked by Swedish, Brandenburg and Transylvanian troops.

**Question 0**

Who was Warsaw home to in 1529?

**Question 1**

When did the General Sejm make Warsaw its permanent seat?

**Question 2**

What was formally established by the Warsaw Pact in 1573?

**Question 3**

Why did Warsaw become the capital of the Commonwealth?

**Question 4**

In what year did King Sigismund III of Vaasa move his court to Warsaw?

**Question 5**

When did the General Staff make Vilnius their permanent base?

**Question 6**

What was officially founded in Vilnius in 1573?

**Question 7**

Why did Vilnius become the capital of the Commonwealth?

**Question 8**

What year did Kind Vilnius move its court to Warsaw?

**Text number 7**

Warsaw was the capital of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth until 1796, when the Kingdom of Prussia annexed it as the capital of the province of South Prussia. Warsaw was liberated by Napoleon's army in 1806 and became the capital of the newly created Duchy of Warsaw. After the Congress of Vienna in 1815, Warsaw became the centre of Congress Poland, the centre of a constitutional monarchy in personal union with Imperial Russia. The Royal University of Warsaw was founded in 1816.

**Question 0**

How long was Warsaw the capital of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth?

**Question 1**

Which kingdom annexed Warsaw in 1796?

**Question 2**

Whose army liberated Warsaw in 1806?

**Question 3**

When did Warsaw become the centre of the Polish Congress?

**Question 4**

When was the Royal University of Warsaw founded?

**Question 5**

Which kingdom joined the Duchy in 1796?

**Question 6**

Whose army liberated the Duchy in 1806?

**Question 7**

When did Prussia become the centre of the Polish Congress?

**Question 8**

When was the Royal University of Prussia founded?

**Question 9**

How long was Warsaw the capital of the Duchy?

**Text number 8**

Warsaw was occupied by Germany between 4 August 1915 and November 1918. Article 12 of the Allied Armistice terms required Germany to withdraw from the territories occupied by Russia in 1914, which included Warsaw. Germany did so, and the underground leader Piłsudski returned to Warsaw on 11 November and established the Second Republic of Poland, with Warsaw as its capital. During the Polish-Bolshevik war in 1920, a huge Battle of Warsaw was fought east of the city, in which the capital was successfully defended and the Red Army defeated. Poland itself stopped the full force of the Red Army and defeated the idea of 'exporting the revolution'.

**Question 0**

How long did Germany occupy Warsaw?

**Question 1**

Where did Article 12 of the Allied Armistice terms call for Germany to withdraw from?

**Question 2**

Who founded the Second Republic of Poland?

**Question 3**

When was the war between Poland and the Bolsheviks fought?

**Question 4**

What army did Warsaw successfully defend itself against?

**Question 5**

How long was Germany occupied by Poland?

**Question 6**

Where did Article 20 of the Allied Armistice terms call for Germany to withdraw from?

**Question 7**

Who founded the Second Republic of Warsaw?

**Question 8**

When was the German Pitsudski War fought?

**Question 9**

What army did Germany manage to defend itself against?

**Text number 9**

When the German invasion of Poland on 1 September 1939 started World War II, Warsaw was defended until 27 September. Central Poland, including Warsaw, fell under the control of the German Nazi colonial government, the General Government. All higher education institutions were immediately closed and the entire Jewish population of Warsaw - several hundred thousand, about 30% of the city - was driven into the Warsaw Ghetto. The city became the centre of the anti-Nazi urban resistance in occupied Europe. On 19 April 1943, when the order came to destroy the ghetto as part of Hitler's 'Final Solution', Jewish fighters launched the Warsaw Ghetto Uprising. Despite being heavily outnumbered and outgunned, the ghetto held out for almost a month. When the fighting ended, almost all survivors were slaughtered, and only a few managed to escape or hide.

**Question 0**

When did Germany invade Poland and thus start the Second World War?

**Question 1**

Who was in control of Warsaw when it came under the General Government?

**Question 2**

How much of Warsaw's population were Jews?

**Question 3**

When did Hitler order the destruction of the Warsaw Ghetto?

**Question 4**

How long were the Warsaw Ghetto Uprising fighters able to hold their own?

**Question 5**

Who was in control of Warsaw when it came under the Jewish government?

**Question 6**

What proportion of Europe's population were Jews?

**Question 7**

When did Hitler order the destruction of the German ghettos?

**Question 8**

When did Germany invade Poland and thus start the First World War?

**Question 9**

How long could the fighters of the German ghetto uprising hold out?

**Text number 10**

By July 1944, the Red Army was deep in Polish territory, chasing the Germans towards Warsaw. Knowing that Stalin was hostile to the idea of an independent Poland, the Polish government in exile in London ordered the Home Army (AK) to try to take Warsaw from the Germans before the Red Army arrived. Thus the Warsaw Uprising began on 1 August 1944, when the Red Army approached the city. The armed battle, which was supposed to last 48 hours, was partially successful but continued for 63 days. In the end, the Home Army fighters and the civilians who assisted them were forced to surrender. They were transported to prisoner-of-war camps in Germany and the entire civilian population was deported. The number of civilian deaths in Poland is estimated at between 150 000 and 200 000.

**Question 0**

Which army went deep into Polish territory after the Germans in 1944?

**Question 1**

Why did the Polish government-in-exile in London order an underground Home Army to invade Warsaw before the Red Army arrived?

**Question 2**

When did the Warsaw Uprising begin?

**Question 3**

How many days did the Warsaw Uprising last?

**Question 4**

What is the estimated number of Polish civilian casualties?

**Question 5**

Which army penetrated deep into Polish territory to hunt down Home Army fighters in 1944?

**Question 6**

Why did the Polish government-in-exile in London order an underground Home Army to take control of Stalin before the Red Army arrived?

**Question 7**

When did the uprising of the Red Army begin?

**Question 8**

How many days did the Red Army's Warsaw Uprising last?

**Question 9**

What is the estimated death toll of the Red Army?

**Text number 11**

Under the communist regime set up by the invading Soviets after World War II, the "Bricks for Warsaw" campaign was launched, and large prefabricated housing projects were built in Warsaw to solve the housing shortage, as well as other typical Eastern Bloc city buildings, such as the Palace of Culture and Science donated by the Soviet Union. The city returned to being the capital of Poland and the centre of political and economic life in the country. Many historic streets, buildings and churches were restored to their original form. In 1980, Warsaw's historic Old Town was inscribed on the UNESCO World Heritage List.

**Question 0**

What campaign did the communist regime launch after the Second World War?

**Question 1**

What types of housing were built in Warsaw as part of the Bricks for Warsaw process?

**Question 2**

What were the structures built by the Soviets?

**Question 3**

Which building was a gift from the Soviet Union?

**Question 4**

Which list was the Old Town of Warsaw included in 1980?

**Question 5**

What campaign did the communist regime launch after the First World War?

**Question 6**

What types of housing were built in the Soviet Union as part of the Bricks for Warsaw process?

**Question 7**

What were the typical structures built in Poland?

**Question 8**

Which building was a gift from Poland?

**Question 9**

Which list was the Soviet Old Town on in 1980?

**Text number 12**

John Paul II's visits to his homeland in 1979 and 1983 gave support to the budding solidarity movement and encouraged the growing anti-communist fervour. In 1979, less than a year after becoming Pope, John Paul celebrated Mass in Warsaw's Victory Square, ending his sermon with the call to "renew the face of Poland": "Let your spirit descend! Let your Spirit descend and renew the face of the country! of this country! These words were very meaningful to the Polish people, who understood them as an incentive for democratic change.

**Question 0**

Which Pope is from Poland?

**Question 1**

What did John Paul II's visits in 1979 and 1983 encourage?

**Question 2**

How long had John Paul II been Pope in 1979?

**Question 3**

Where did John Paul II celebrate mass in Warsaw?

**Question 4**

What did the Polish people understand the meaning behind John Paul II's words?

**Question 5**

Which band was from Germany?

**Question 6**

What did John Paul II's visits in 1973 and 1989 encourage?

**Question 7**

How long had John Paul II been Pope in 1983?

**Question 8**

Where did John Paul II celebrate mass in Berlin?

**Question 9**

What did the German people understand the meaning behind John Paul II's words?

**Text number 13**

Warsaw is located in east-central Poland, about 300 kilometres from the Carpathians and about 260 kilometres from the Baltic Sea, 523 kilometres east of Berlin. The city is located on the Vistula River. It lies in the heart of the Masovian plain, with an average altitude of 100 metres above sea level. The highest point on the left side of the town is 115,7 metres (Redutowa bus station, Wola district) and on the right side 122,1 metres (Groszówka manor house, Wesoła district, near the eastern border). The lowest point is at 75,6 m (on the right bank of the Vistula, on the eastern border of Warsaw). There are some (mostly artificial) hills within the city limits, such as Warsaw Uprising Hill (121 m) and Szczęśliwice Hill (138 m), the highest point in Warsaw in general).

**Question 0**

How many kilometres is Warsaw from the Carpathians?

**Question 1**

How many kilometres east of Berlin is Warsaw?

**Question 2**

Which river is Warsaw on?

**Question 3**

How high is the highest point in Warsaw?

**Question 4**

Where is the lowest point in Warsaw?

**Question 5**

How many kilometres is Vistula from the Carpathians?

**Question 6**

How many kilometres east of Berlin is Veiksel?

**Question 7**

Which river does Berlin cross?

**Question 8**

How high is the highest point in Berlin?

**Question 9**

Where is the lowest point of Wesola?

**Text number 14**

Warsaw is located on two main geomorphological formations: a flat moraine plain and the Vistula Valley, which has an asymmetrical pattern of different terraces. The Vistula River is the specific axis of Warsaw, dividing the city into two parts, left and right. The left part is located both on the moraine plain (10-25 m above the Vistula level) and on the Vistula terraces (up to 6.5 m above the Vistula level). A significant topographic feature in this part of the Warsaw is the edge of the moraine plateau, known as the Warsaw escarpment. It is 20-25 m high in the Old Town and the central area and about 10 m high in the northern and southern parts of Warsaw. It runs through the city and plays an important role as a landmark.

**Question 0**

How many geomorphological formations are located in Warsaw?

**Question 1**

Where is the asymmetric pattern of different terraces forming?

**Question 2**

What is the Warsaw Axis that divides it into two parts?

**Question 3**

On which plateau is the left part of Warsaw located?

**Question 4**

What is the edge of a moraine plain?

**Question 5**

Where is the asymmetrical pattern of the different landmarks in the formation?

**Question 6**

How many geomorphological formations does Vistula belong to?

**Question 7**

What is the axis of Vistula that divides it into two parts?

**Question 8**

What is the edge of the Vistula Plain called?

**Question 9**

On which plateau is the left part of Vistula located?

**Text number 15**

The flat moraine plain has only a few natural and artificial ponds and groups of clay pits. The terraces of Vistula have an asymmetrical pattern. On the left side there are mainly two levels: the upper one is former flood terraces and the lower one is flood plain terraces. On the modern floodplain, valleys and depressions are still visible, with water systems coming from the old Vistula riverbed. They still consist of fairly natural streams and lakes and drainage ditches. On the right side of the Warsaw River, the geomorphological formations are different. There are several flat terraces of the Vistula (both flooded and previously flooded) and only a small and less visible moraine bench. The uppermost terrace is covered by aeolian sand with several dunes interspersed with peat bogs or small ponds. These are mainly wooded areas (pine forest).

**Question 0**

On which plateau are there groups of clay pits?

**Question 1**

What does the highest level of the Vistula plateau contain?

**Question 2**

What is still visible on the currently flooded terrace?

**Question 3**

Where can you find aeolian sand with several dunes?

**Question 4**

What kind of wooded areas can be found on the highest terrace?

**Question 5**

What kind of forest areas can be found in the highest ditches?

**Question 6**

What is still visible in the currently flooded ditch?

**Question 7**

Where can you find aeolian sand with several terraces?

**Question 8**

Which plateau has clay terraces?

**Question 9**

What does the highest level of the Vistula dune contain?

**Text number 16**

Warsaw's mix of architectural styles reflects the turbulent history of the city and the country. During the Second World War, Warsaw was devastated by bombings and planned destruction. After liberation, reconstruction began as in other cities of the communist-ruled Soviet Union. Most of the historic buildings were thoroughly rebuilt. However, some of the 19th century buildings that had survived reasonably well and could be rebuilt were destroyed in the 1950s and 1960s (e.g. Leopold Kronenberg Palace). Massive apartment blocks were built, the basic design of which is typical of the countries of the Eastern Bloc.

**Question 0**

What does the mix of architectural styles in Warsaw reflect?

**Question 1**

When was Warsaw completely destroyed by bombing?

**Question 2**

When did the reconstruction of Warsaw begin?

**Question 3**

Which 19th century building was destroyed in the 1950s and 1960s?

**Question 4**

What were the types of mass-constructed apartment blocks?

**Question 5**

When did the reconstruction of Warsaw Palace begin?

**Question 6**

What does the mix of architectural styles in the Warsaw Palace reflect?

**Question 7**

Which 19th century building was destroyed in the 1930s and 1940s?

**Question 8**

When was Warsaw Palace completely destroyed in the bombing?

**Question 9**

What were the styles of the massive palace blocks?

**Text number 17**

Gothic architecture is represented in majestic churches, but also in bourgeois houses and forts. The most notable buildings are St John's Cathedral (13th century), a temple typical of the so-called Masovian Gothic style, St Mary's Church (1411), the town house of the Burbach family (13th century), the Powder Tower (after 1379) and the royal castle of Curia Maior (1407-1410). The most important examples of Renaissance architecture in the city are the house of the Baryczko merchant family (1562), the building called 'The Negro' (early 17th century) and the Salwatori tenement (1632). The most interesting examples of Mannerist architecture are the Royal Castle of the Old Town (1596-1619) and the Jesuit Church (1609-1626). The most important of the first buildings of the early Baroque period are the Church of St Hyacinth (1603-1639) and the Sigismund's Column (1644).

**Question 0**

What kind of architecture do the majestic churches represent?

**Question 1**

When was St John's Cathedral built?

**Question 2**

What is St John's Cathedral stylistically an example of?

**Question 3**

The house of the Baryczko merchant family is a remarkable example of what kind of architecture?

**Question 4**

What is the most interesting example of the Royal Castle?

**Question 5**

When was Baryczko built?

**Question 6**

What is the Baryczko Cathedral an example of stylistically?

**Question 7**

Of what type of architecture is the house of the merchant family of John an important example?

**Question 8**

What kind of architecture does the Tower of St John represent?

**Question 9**

What is the most interesting example of St John's Castle?

**Text number 18**

Numerous noble palaces and churches were built in the last decades of the 17th century. The best examples of this architecture are the Krasiński Palace (1677-1683), the Wilanów Palace (1677-1696) and the Church of St Kazimierz (1688-1692). The most impressive examples of Rococo architecture are Czapsk Palace (1712-1721), the Palace of the Four Winds (1730s) and the Visitors' Church (facade 1728-1761). Warsaw's neoclassical architecture can be described by the simplicity of its geometric forms and its inspiration from the Roman period. The best examples of the neoclassical style are the Water Palace (rebuilt 1775-1795), the Królikarnia (1782-1786), the Carmelite Church (facade 1761-1783) and the Evangelical Church of the Holy Trinity (1777-1782). The economic growth of the early years of Congress Poland led to a rapid rise in architecture. The neoclassical revival influenced all aspects of architecture, the most notable being the Great Theatre (1825-1833) and the buildings on the Bank Square (1825-1828).

**Question 0**

When did palaces and churches start to be built in later decades?

**Question 1**

When was the church of St Kazimierz built?

**Question 2**

What kind of architecture is an impressive example of a four-window palace?

**Question 3**

What is described when the simplicity of geometric shapes is combined with the inspiration of the Roman period?

**Question 4**

When was the Palace on the Water rebuilt?

**Question 5**

When did construction work on the Bank Palace start?

**Question 6**

When was the Palace on the Bank rebuilt?

**Question 7**

When did the painting of palaces and churches take place in later decades?

**Question 8**

What kind of architecture is the Bank Palace an impressive example of?

**Question 9**

What is described when the simplicity of geometric shapes is combined with the inspiration of the French period?

**Text number 19**

After the war, the Communist authorities did not renovate exceptional examples of bourgeois architecture from later periods (such as the Kronenberg Palace and the Rosja Insurance Company building mentioned above) or rebuilt them in the style of socialist realism (such as the Warsaw Philharmonic building, originally inspired by the Palais Garnier in Paris). Nevertheless, the Warsaw University of Technology building (1899-1902) is the most interesting of the late 19th century architectural buildings. Some of the 19th century buildings in the Prague district (on the right bank of the Vistula) have been restored, although many are poorly maintained. The Warsaw City Council authorities have decided to rebuild the Saxon Palace and the Brühl Palace, the most characteristic buildings of the pre-war period in Warsaw.

**Question 0**

The Kronenberg Palace was an exceptional example of what kind of architecture?

**Question 1**

Why are examples of Bouregois architecture not visible today?

**Question 2**

What style of Warsaw Philharmonic was built?

**Question 3**

Which building is the most interesting piece of late 19th century architecture?

**Question 4**

What were Saks Palace and Brühl Palace in pre-war Warsaw?

**Question 5**

What style was the Paris Philharmonic built in?

**Question 6**

What were the Saxon Palace and the Bruhl Palace in pre-war Paris?

**Question 7**

The Paris Palace was an exceptional example of what kind of architecture?

**Question 8**

Why are examples of Parisian architecture not visible today?

**Question 9**

Which building is the most interesting piece of late 17th century architecture?

**Text number 20**

Warsaw's heroic history is also remembered in many places. Pawiak, the notorious German Gestapo prison, now home to the Martyrs' Memorial Mausoleum and Museum, is just the start of a walk on the trail of the heroic city. Warsaw Fortress, an impressive 19th-century fortress built after the defeat of the November Uprising, was the site of the Polish martyrs. Another important monument, the statue of the Little Rebel on the ramparts of the Old Town, commemorates the children who were the messengers and front-line troops of the Warsaw Uprising, while the impressive Warsaw Uprising Memorial, designed by Wincenty Kućma, was erected to commemorate the largest uprising of World War II.

**Question 0**

How will Warsaw's heroic history be commemorated?

**Question 1**

What was the name of the notorious German Gestapo prison?

**Question 2**

Which fortress was built in the 19th century after the defeat of the November Uprising?

**Question 3**

To whom is the statue of the Little Rebel dedicated?

**Question 4**

Which monument commemorates the biggest uprising of the Second World War?

**Question 5**

What reminds you of the heroic history of the Old Town?

**Question 6**

What was the name of the notorious German hero prison?

**Question 7**

To whom is the statue of the Little Hero dedicated?

**Question 8**

Which fortress was built in the 1700s after the defeat of the November Uprising?

**Question 9**

Which monument commemorates the biggest uprising of the First World War?

**Text number 21**

The Saxon garden, covering 15.5 hectares, was formally a royal garden. The garden contains over 100 different species of trees, and the alleys are perfect for sitting and relaxing. At the eastern end of the park is the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier. The gardens of Krasiński Palace were designed in the 19th century by Franciszek Szanior. The central part of the park still contains old trees from that period: a maidenhair tree, a black walnut tree, a Turkish walnut bush and a Caucasian wing nut tree. The Krasiński Palace Garden, with its benches, flower carpets, duck ponds and children's playgrounds, is a popular walking destination in Warsaw. It is also the site of the Warsaw Ghetto Uprising Memorial. Łazienki Park covers 76 hectares. The unique character and history of the park is reflected in its landscape architecture (pavilions, sculptures, bridges, waterfalls, ponds) and vegetation (domestic and foreign tree and shrub species). The park is distinguished from other green spaces in Warsaw by the presence of peacocks and pheasants, which can be seen walking freely here, and royal carps living in the pond. Wilanów Palace Park dates back to the second half of the 17th century. It covers an area of 43 hectares. Its central French-style area reflects the old Baroque forms of the palace. In the eastern part of the park, closest to the palace, there is a two-level garden with a terrace overlooking the pond. The park surrounding the Królikarnia Palace is located on the old Vistula escarpment. The park has pathways that run in a few levels into deep ravines on either side of the palace.

**Question 0**

Which garden was formally for royalty only?

**Question 1**

How many species of trees are there in Saxon Garden?

**Question 2**

Where in Saxon Garden is the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier?

**Question 3**

What is a popular walking destination for Warsawers?

**Question 4**

Which park covers an area of 76 hectares?

**Question 5**

Which garden was formally just for running?

**Question 6**

What is a popular migration destination for pheasants?

**Question 7**

Which park covers an area of 74 hectares?

**Question 8**

How many tree species can you find in a Caucasian garden?

**Question 9**

Where in the Caucasian Garden is the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier located?

**Text number 22**

Other green spaces in the city include the Botanical Garden and the University Library Garden. They house an extensive botanical collection of rare domestic and foreign plants, while the Palm House in the New Orangery building displays subtropical plants from around the world. Other attractions within the city limits include Ujazdowski Park (near the Sejm and John Lennon Street), the Park of Culture and Recreation in Powsin, on the southern border of the city, Skaryszewski Park on the right bank of the Vistula, Prague. Prague's oldest park, Prague Park, was created between 1865 and 1871 and designed by Jan Dobrowolski. In 1927 a zoo (Ogród Zoologiczny) was established in the park and in 1952 a bear track was created, which is still open.

**Question 0**

What kind of space is the Botanical Garden and the University Library Garden in Warsaw?

**Question 1**

Where is the Palm Room, with subtropical plants from all over the world?

**Question 2**

Where was the first racecourse?

**Question 3**

Which park is near John Lennon Street?

**Question 4**

When was the zoo established in Praga Park?

**Question 5**

Where was the first garden located?

**Question 6**

Which park is near Vistula Street?

**Question 7**

When was the zoo established in Powsin Park?

**Question 8**

What kind of spaces in Warsaw are the Cultural Garden and the University Library Garden?

**Question 9**

Where is the Palm Room, with tropical plants from all over the world?

**Text number 23**

The city's flora can be considered very species-rich. This is mainly due to the fact that Warsaw is located at the border of several large vegetation areas, with significant areas of semi-natural areas (natural forests, wetlands along the Vistula River), fields, meadows and forests. Within the borders of Warsaw, the Bielany forest is the remaining part of the Masovian primeval forest. The Bielany Forest Nature Reserve is connected to the Kampinos Forest. It has a rich fauna and flora. There are three cycling and walking trails within the forest. Another large forest area is the Kabaty Forest on the southern border of the city. There are also two botanical gardens in Warsaw: the Łazienki Park (Didactic Research Unit of the University of Warsaw) and the Powsin Cultural and Recreational Park (Unit of the Polish Academy of Sciences).

**Question 0**

Why is Warsaw's flora so rich in species?

**Question 1**

Where is Bielany Forest located?

**Question 2**

What is the last remnant of Bielany's forest?

**Question 3**

Which forest is on the southern border of Warsaw?

**Question 4**

How many botanical gardens are there in Warsaw?

**Question 5**

How many botanical gardens are there in Kampinos?

**Question 6**

Where is the Kampinos Forest located?

**Question 7**

Why is the flora of Kampinos so rich in species?

**Question 8**

What is the last remnant of the Kampinos forest?

**Question 9**

Which forest is on the southern border of Kampinos?

**Text number 24**

Warsaw has 13 nature reserves - including Bielany Forest, Kabaty Forest and Lake Czerniaków. The Vistula River, about 15 km from Warsaw, is undergoing a striking transformation, with a perfectly preserved ecosystem of animals including otters, beavers and hundreds of bird species. Warsaw also has several lakes - mainly oxbow lakes, such as Czerniaków Lake, lakes in Łazienki or Wilanów parks and Kamionek Lake. There are many small lakes in the parks, but only a few are permanent - most are drained before winter to clear them of plants and sediment.

**Question 0**

How many nature reserves are there in Warsaw?

**Question 1**

How far from Warsaw will the Vistula River environment change significantly?

**Question 2**

What animals are part of the Vistula River ecosystem?

**Question 3**

How many lakes are there in Warsaw?

**Question 4**

Why are small lakes in parks drained before winter?

**Question 5**

How many nature reserves are there in Czerniakow?

**Question 6**

How far from Czerniakow will the Vistula River environment change significantly?

**Question 7**

What animals are part of the Czerniakow River ecosystem?

**Question 8**

How many lakes are there in Czerniakow?

**Question 9**

Why are Czerniakow's small lakes drained before winter?

**Text number 25**

In terms of population, it was the most diverse city in Poland, with a large number of foreign-born residents. In addition to the Polish majority, Warsaw had a significant Jewish minority. According to the 1897 Russian census, of a total population of 638 000, 219 000 (about 34%) were Jewish, and Warsaw's more than 350 000 Jews before the war accounted for about 30% of the city's total population. In 1933, 833 500 of the 1 178 914 inhabitants were native Polish speakers. The Second World War changed the demographic structure of the city and today ethnic diversity is much less diverse than in the 300 years before Warsaw. Most of today's population growth is due to internal migration and urbanisation.

**Question 0**

What was Warsaw the most diverse in Poland?

**Question 1**

What was a significant minority in Warsaw?

**Question 2**

What percentage of the population of Warsaw was Jewish in 1897?

**Question 3**

How many people in Warsaw spoke Polish in 1933?

**Question 4**

What is the basis of most of Warsaw's modern growth?

**Question 5**

What was a significant minority in the Second World War?

**Question 6**

What in Berlin was the most diverse in Poland?

**Question 7**

How many people in Berlin spoke English in 1933?

**Question 8**

What is the basis of most of Poland's modern growth?

**Question 9**

What percentage of the Polish population was Jewish in 1897?

**Text number 26**

In 1939, Warsaw was home to around 1 300 000 people, but in 1945 only 420 000. In the first years after the war, the population grew by around 6%, so the city soon began to suffer from a lack of housing and land for building new houses. The first remedy was the extension of the Warsaw area (1951) - but the city authorities were still forced to introduce restrictions on housing registration: only spouses and children of permanent residents and certain public figures (such as well-known experts) were allowed to register, halving population growth in the following years. It also reinforced a certain conviction among Poles that Warsaw residents considered themselves better off just because they lived in the capital. Unfortunately, this belief still lives on in Poland (although not as much as it used to) - although since 1990 there have been no more restrictions on registration of place of residence.

**Question 0**

How many people lived in Warsaw in 1939?

**Question 1**

How much had the number of people living in Warsaw decreased by 1945?

**Question 2**

When did the enlargement of the Warsaw region take place?

**Question 3**

What were the beliefs of many Poles about how Warsawers thought of themselves?

**Question 4**

What restrictions are no longer in place since 1990?

**Question 5**

How many people lived in Poland in 1939?

**Question 6**

How much had the number of people living in Poland decreased by 1945?

**Question 7**

When did Poland enlarge?

**Question 8**

What were the beliefs of many Poles about how Germans thought of themselves?

**Question 9**

What has not been restricted since 1945?

**Text number 27**

Throughout its existence, Warsaw has been a multicultural city. According to the 1901 census, 56.2% of the 711 988 inhabitants were Catholic, 35.7% Jewish, 5% Greek Orthodox and 2.8% Protestant. Eight years later, in 1909, the population was 281 754 Jews (36,9 %), 18 189 Protestants (2,4 %) and 2 818 Mariavites (0,4 %). This led to the construction of hundreds of places of worship in all parts of the city. Most of them were destroyed in the aftermath of the 1944 Warsaw Uprising. After the war, the new Polish communist authorities prevented the construction of churches, and only a small number were rebuilt.

**Question 0**

What kind of city has Warsaw been for as long as it has been a city?

**Question 1**

What was the population of Warsaw in 1901?

**Question 2**

What percentage of Warsaw's population was Catholic in 1901?

**Question 3**

What percentage of the population of Warsaw was Protestant in 1901?

**Question 4**

When were most of Warsaw's religious places of worship destroyed?

**Question 5**

What kind of city has Berlin been for as long as it has been a city?

**Question 6**

What was the population of Berlin in 1901?

**Question 7**

What percentage of the Polish population was Catholic in 1901?

**Question 8**

What percentage of the Polish population was Protestant in 1901?

**Question 9**

When were most religious places of worship destroyed in Poland?

**Text number 28**

The basic unit of territorial division in Poland is the municipality (gmina). A town is also a municipality, but has a town charter. Both cities and municipalities are headed by a mayor, but in municipalities the mayor is a vogt (Polish: wójt) and in cities a burmistrz. Some larger cities are granted rights, or functions and privileges, which belong to the second tier of territorial units, the counties or powiats. An example of such a right is car registration: a gmina cannot register cars, this is a powiat's task (i.e. the registration number depends on the powiat in which the car is registered, not the gmina). In this case, we are talking about the city district or powiat grodzki. Such cities include Lublin, Krakow, Gdańsk, Poznań, etc. In Warsaw, its districts also have some powiat rights - such as the already mentioned car registration. For example, the Wola district has its own certificates and the Ursynów district has its own (and cars in Wola have a different registration number from those in Ursynów). But, for example, Kraków district does not have powiat rights, so Kraków registration numbers are the same in all districts.

**Question 0**

What is the basic unit of territorial division in Poland?

**Question 1**

What is the second level of territorial division in Poland?

**Question 2**

In which regions do all cars of the same type have the same registration number?

**Question 3**

What is the basic unit of regional division in Warsaw?

**Question 4**

What is the second level of Warsaw's regional division?

**Question 5**

In which areas do all boats of the same type have the same registration number?

**Question 6**

What does the car have besides a commune?

**Question 7**

In which city are there districts that do not have powiat rights?

**Text number 29**

Warsaw's legislative power is vested in the single-chamber Warsaw City Council (Rada Miasta), which has 60 members. Council members are directly elected every four years. Like most legislative bodies, the City Council is divided into committees that oversee the various functions of the city administration. Bills passed by a simple majority are sent to the Mayor (President of Warsaw), who can sign them into law. If the mayor vetoes a bill, the council has 30 days to override the veto by a two-thirds majority.

**Question 0**

Who has legislative power in Warsaw?

**Question 1**

How many members are there in Warsaw City Council?

**Question 2**

How often are elections to the Board of Advisers held?

**Question 3**

How is the city council divided?

**Question 4**

How many days does the Council have to override the Mayor's veto?

**Question 5**

Who in Mia has the power to legislate?

**Question 6**

How many members are there in the Miastá City Council?

**Question 7**

How often are mayoral elections held?

**Question 8**

How is the Council of Mayors divided?

**Question 9**

How many days does the Mayor have to override the Council's veto?

**Text number 30**

The mayor of Warsaw is called the president. In Poland, it is usually the mayors of larger cities - those with more than 100 000 inhabitants, or those that had a president before 1990 - who are called president. Warsaw's first president was Jan Andrzej Menich (1695-1696), and from 1975 to 1990 the president of Warsaw was also the voivode of Warsaw. Since 1990, the President of Warsaw was elected by the City Council. From 1994 to 1999, the Mayor of the Centrum district was automatically appointed President of Warsaw: the Mayor of Centrum was elected by the Centrum district council, and the council was elected only by the residents of Centrum. Since 2002, the President of Warsaw has been elected by all Warsaw residents.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the mayor of Warsaw?

**Question 1**

Who was Warsaw's first president?

**Question 2**

When did Menich serve as President?

**Question 3**

Who has elected the President of Warsaw since 1990?

**Question 4**

Which district of Warsaw elected a president between 1994 and 1999?

**Question 5**

What is the name of the Mayor of Menichi?

**Question 6**

Who was Cetrum's first president?

**Question 7**

When was Centrum chairman?

**Question 8**

Who has been elected President of Centrum since 1990?

**Question 9**

Which district of Warsaw elected its president in 1990-1993?

**Text number 31**

Warsaw, especially in the city centre (Śródmieście), is home not only to many national institutions and government offices, but also to many domestic and international companies. In 2006, 304 016 companies were registered in the city. Warsaw's ever-growing business community has been recognised globally, regionally and nationally. The MasterCard Emerging Market Index has noted Warsaw's economic strength and commercial centre. In addition, Warsaw was ranked as the seventh largest emerging market. The contribution of foreign investors to the city's development was estimated at over €650 million in 2002. Warsaw generates 12% of Poland's national income, which in 2008 was 305.1% of the Polish average per capita (or 160% of the European Union average). Warsaw's per capita gross domestic product was PLN 94 000 in 2008 (about EUR 23 800, USD 33 000). The city's total nominal GDP in 2010 was PLN 191.766 billion, PLN 116,696 per capita, which was 301.1% of the Polish average. Warsaw is the leading destination for foreign investment in East-Central Europe, and in 2006 GDP growth was in line with expectations at 6.1%. It is also one of the fastest growing economies, with GDP growth of 6.5% in 2007 and 6.1% in the first quarter of 2008.

**Question 0**

What is the Polish name of Warsaw city centre?

**Question 1**

How many companies were registered in Warsaw in 2006?

**Question 2**

What was Warsaw's 7th largest?

**Question 3**

How much of Poland's national income is generated in Warsaw?

**Question 4**

What was Warsaw's total nominal output in 2010?

**Question 5**

What is the Polish name of Berlin city centre?

**Question 6**

How many companies were registered in Berlin in 2006?

**Question 7**

Which Srodmiescie was ranked 7th biggest?

**Question 8**

How much of Poland's national income is generated by Srodmiescie?

**Question 9**

What was the total nominal production of Srodmiescie in 2010?

**Text number 32**

Warsaw's first stock exchange was established in 1817 and continued trading until the Second World War. The stock exchange was re-established in April 1991 after the end of the post-war communist rule and the return to a free market economy. Today, the Warsaw Stock Exchange (WSE) is by many indicators the largest stock exchange in the region, with 374 listed companies and total capital of €162 584 million as of 31 August 2009. From 1991 to 2000, the stock exchange was ironically located in a building formerly used as the headquarters of the Polish United Workers' Party (PZPR).

**Question 0**

When was Warsaw's first stock exchange founded?

**Question 1**

What stopped the Warsaw Stock Exchange?

**Question 2**

When was the Warsaw Stock Exchange revived?

**Question 3**

How many companies were listed on the WSE in August 2009?

**Question 4**

Whose former headquarters was WSE located in until 2000?

**Question 5**

When was Berlin's first stock exchange founded?

**Question 6**

What lifted the Warsaw Stock Exchange to a new high?

**Question 7**

When did the Warsaw Stock Exchange fall?

**Question 8**

How many companies were listed on the WSE in April 2009?

**Question 9**

Whose former headquarters was WSE located in until 2009?

**Text number 33**

FSO Car Factory was founded in 1951. Over the decades it has assembled a number of vehicles, including the Warszawa, Syrena, Fiat 125p (under Fiat licence, later renamed FSO 125p when the licence expired) and Polonez. The latter two models were also sent abroad and assembled in several other countries, including Egypt and Colombia. In 1995, the South Korean car manufacturer Daewoo bought the plant and assembled the Tico, Espero, Nubia, Tacuma, Leganza, Lanos and Matiz models for the European market. In 2005, the plant was sold to the Ukrainian car manufacturer AvtoZAZ, which assembled the Chevrolet Aveo there. The Aveo's manufacturing licence expired in February 2011 and has not been renewed since. The company is currently closed down.

**Question 0**

When was FSO Car Factory founded?

**Question 1**

Which car is licensed by FSO Car Factory and manufactured in Egypt?

**Question 2**

Which South Korean car manufacturer bought the author in 1995?

**Question 3**

Who bought the factory in 2005?

**Question 4**

What happened when the building permit for this type of car expired in 2011?

**Question 5**

When was FSO Tico Factory founded?

**Question 6**

Which car is licensed by FSO Tico Factory and built in Egypt?

**Question 7**

Which South Korean car manufacturer bought the factory in 2005?

**Question 8**

What happened when the licence to manufacture this type of car expired in 1995?

**Question 9**

Who bought the factory in 1925?

**Text number 34**

Warsaw University was founded in 1816, when the partition of Poland separated Warsaw from Krakow, the oldest and most influential Polish academic centre. Warsaw University of Technology is the country's second academic technical university and one of the largest in East-Central Europe, employing 2 000 professors. Other higher education institutions include the Warsaw Medical University, the largest medical school in Poland and one of the most prestigious, the National Defence College, the highest military academy in Poland, the Fryderyk Chopin Music University, the oldest and largest music school in Poland and one of the largest in Europe, the Warsaw School of Economics, the oldest and most renowned business university in the country, and the Warsaw University of Life Sciences, an agricultural university founded in 1818.

**Question 0**

In what year was Warsaw University founded?

**Question 1**

What is Poland's second academic school of technology?

**Question 2**

How many professors does Warsaw University of Technology employ?

**Question 3**

What is the largest medical school in Poland?

**Question 4**

What is one of the biggest music schools in Europe?

**Question 5**

In what year was the business school founded?

**Question 6**

What is Europe's second academic university of technology?

**Question 7**

How many professors does Music University of Technology employ?

**Question 8**

What is Chopin's largest medical school?

**Question 9**

What is one of the biggest music schools in Krakow?

**Text number 35**

Another important library is the University Library, founded in 1816, with over two million items. The building was designed by architects Marek Budzyński and Zbigniew Badowski and opened on 15 December 1999. It is surrounded by a green area. The University Library Garden, designed by Irena Bajerska, was opened on 12 June 2002. It is one of the largest and most beautiful roof gardens in Europe, covering an area of more than 10 000 m2 (107 639.10 square feet) with 5 111 m2 (55 014.35 square feet) of plants. As a university garden, it is open to the public every day.

**Question 0**

When was the University Library founded?

**Question 1**

How many titles are there in the university library?

**Question 2**

What is Zbigniew Badowski's occupation?

**Question 3**

Who designed the University Library garden?

**Question 4**

How large is the area covered by the University Library garden?

**Question 5**

When was the university library closed?

**Question 6**

How many items are in the Zbigniew library?

**Question 7**

What is Zbigniew Marek's occupation?

**Question 8**

Who designed the Marek Library garden?

**Question 9**

How large is the area covered by the university library?

**Text number 36**

Like many cities in Central and Eastern Europe, Warsaw's infrastructure suffered considerably during its time as an Eastern Bloc economic powerhouse - although it is worth noting that the initial three-year plan to rebuild Poland (especially Warsaw) was a great success, but then the opposite happened. Over the last decade, however, Warsaw has seen many improvements, driven by steady economic growth, increased foreign investment and European Union funding. In particular, the city's metro, roads, pavements, health services and sanitation facilities have improved considerably.

**Question 0**

What did Warsaw suffer considerably when it had an Eastern Bloc economy?

**Question 1**

What was the great success, especially in the reconstruction of Warsaw?

**Question 2**

Why have many improvements been made in Warsaw over the last decade?

**Question 3**

The pavements and sanitation in Warsaw are examples of things that have what?

**Question 4**

Which suffered significantly from the bloc when it had an eastern economy?

**Question 5**

What was the big failure, especially in the construction of Warsaw?

**Question 6**

Why has the Bloc experienced many improvements over the last decade?

**Question 7**

What have the Bloc's pavements and sanitation facilities done?

**Question 8**

When has the Bloc seen much improvement?

**Text number 37**

Today, Warsaw has some of the best medical facilities in Poland and Eastern Central Europe. The city is home to the Children's Memorial Health Institute (CMHI), the highest referral hospital in Poland and an active research and training centre. The Maria Skłodowska-Curie Institute of Oncology is one of the largest and most modern oncological institutions in Europe. The clinical department is housed in a 10-storey building with 700 beds, 10 operating theatres, an intensive care unit, several diagnostic departments and an outpatient clinic. The infrastructure has evolved considerably in recent years.

**Question 0**

Where are the best care facilities in East-Central Europe?

**Question 1**

What is the highest reference hospital in Poland?

**Question 2**

What is one of the largest and most modern oncology facilities in Europe?

**Question 3**

How many beds are there in the Oncology Department of the Maria Sklodowska-Curie Institute?

**Question 4**

What has infrastructure done a lot in recent years?

**Question 5**

Where are the best schools in East-Central Europe?

**Question 6**

What is the highest reference hospital in Germany?

**Question 7**

What is one of the largest and most modern oncology facilities in Curie?

**Question 8**

How many beds are available at Maria Memorial Health Institute?

**Question 9**

What has the infrastructure of the clinics done a lot in recent years?

**Text number 38**

Warsaw is home to numerous music venues, including Teatr Wielki, the Polish National Opera, the Chamber Opera, the National Philharmonic and the National Theatre, the Roma and Buffo music theatres and the Congress Hall of the Palace of Culture and Science, and hosts many events and festivals. Special mention should be made of the Frédéric Chopin International Piano Competition, the Warsaw Autumn International Contemporary Music Festival, the Jazz Jamboree, the Warsaw Summer Jazz Days, the Stanisław Moniuszko International Song Competition, the Mozart Festival and the Early Music Festival.

**Question 0**

What kind of venue is Teatr Wielki?

**Question 1**

What's a lot of Warsaw?

**Question 2**

Where is the Congress Hall located?

**Question 3**

Where is the Jazz Jamboree taking place?

**Question 4**

Warsaw Summer Jazz Days is one of many that Warsaw hosts?

**Question 5**

What kind of venue is Autumn Wielki?

**Question 6**

What does autumn host a lot of?

**Question 7**

Where is the Autumn Hall located?

**Question 8**

Where is the Autumn Jamboree taking place?

**Question 9**

Autumn Summer Jazz Days is one of many that Warsaw hosts?

**Text number 39**

The nearby summer theatre in Ogród Sask (Saxon Garden) ran from 1870 to 1939, and between the wars the theatre complex also included Momus, Warsaw's first literary cabaret, and Leon Schiller's musical theatre Melodram. Wojciech Bogusławski's theatre (1922-26) was the best example of 'Polish monumental theatre'. From the mid-1930s, the Great Theatre building housed the Upat Institute of Dramatic Art - the first state-run academy of dramatic art with a department of acting and stage design.

**Question 0**

What is Saxon Garden in Polish?

**Question 1**

Where was the summer theatre located?

**Question 2**

How long was the summer theatre in operation?

**Question 3**

What was Warsaw's first literary cabaret?

**Question 4**

Which theatre was the best example of "Polish monumental theatre"?

**Question 5**

What is Upat's garden in Polish?

**Question 6**

Where was the Leon Theatre located?

**Question 7**

How long was the Leon Theatre in operation?

**Question 8**

What was Leon's first literary cabaret?

**Question 9**

Which theatre was the best example of Leon's "monumental theatre"?

**Text number 40**

Several commemorative events are organised each year. The gathering of thousands of people on the banks of the Vistula River on Midsummer's Eve for the Wianki festival has become a tradition and an annual event in Warsaw's programme of cultural events. The festival dates back to a peaceful pagan ritual in which maidens floated their herbal wreaths in the water to predict when they would marry and to whom. By the 19th century, the tradition had become a festive event and continues today. The town council organises concerts and other events. On Midsummer Eve, in addition to the official floating of wreaths, jumping over bonfires and fern-finding, there are musical performances, speeches by dignitaries, fairs and fireworks on the riverbank.

**Question 0**

What is the Polish word for wreaths?

**Question 1**

How many people will gather on Vistula beach for the Wianki party?

**Question 2**

When will the Wianki Festival take place?

**Question 3**

What can the ladies predict by floating their wands on the Vistula?

**Question 4**

What kind of flower do you look for on Midsummer Eve?

**Question 5**

What is the Polish word for concerts?

**Question 6**

How many people will gather on Vistula beach for the wreath-laying ceremony?

**Question 7**

When is Midsummer celebrations?

**Question 8**

What can the ladies predict by floating their programmes on Vikes?

**Question 9**

What kind of flower is Wianki looking for?

**Text number 41**

Interesting examples of exhibitions include the world's first poster museum, with one of the largest collections of art posters in the world, the hunting and riding museum and the railway museum. Among Warsaw's 60 museums, the most prestigious are the National Museum, with a collection of works ranging from antiquity to the present day, one of the country's best collections of paintings, including some from Adolf Hitler's private collection, and the Polish Army Museum, with a collection of works on the history of weapons.

**Question 0**

What does the world's first poster museum have one of the largest collections in the world?

**Question 1**

How many museums are there in Warsaw?

**Question 2**

The National Museum in Warsaw is one of the what?

**Question 3**

What does the National Museum boast is from Adolf Hitler's private collection?

**Question 4**

What history does the Polish Army Museum illustrate?

**Question 5**

How many posters are there in Warsaw?

**Question 6**

Where does the world's first museum of equestrian art have one of the largest collections in the world?

**Question 7**

What is the Warsaw Museum of Equestrian Art one of?

**Question 8**

What does the Riding Museum boast is from Adolf Hitler's private collection?

**Question 9**

What history does the Equestrian Museum represent?

**Text number 42**

A fine tribute to the fall of Warsaw and Polish history can be found in the Warsaw Uprising Museum and the Katyn Museum, which preserves the memory of the crime. The Warsaw Uprising Museum also houses a rare preserved and functioning historical stereoscopic theatre, the Warsaw Fotoplastikon. The Independence Museum houses patriotic and political artefacts related to Poland's struggle for independence. Dating from 1936, the Warsaw History Museum has 60 rooms with a permanent exhibition on Warsaw's history from its origins to the present day.

**Question 0**

Where can you find a tribute to the fall of Warsaw?

**Question 1**

Which museum preserves the memory of a crime?

**Question 2**

What kind of theatre is Warsaw's Fotoplastikon?

**Question 3**

Where in Warsaw can you find patriotic and political artefacts related to Poland's struggle for independence?

**Question 4**

How many rooms are there in the Warsaw History Museum?

**Question 5**

Where can you find a tribute to Katyn's fall?

**Question 6**

Which museum preserves the memory of independence?

**Question 7**

What kind of theatre is Katy's Fotoplastikon?

**Question 8**

Where in Katyn are the patriotic and political artefacts related to Poland's struggle for independence?

**Question 9**

How many rooms are there in the Katyn History Museum?

**Text number 43**

Ujazdów's 17th-century royal castle houses a contemporary art centre with some permanent and temporary exhibitions, concerts, performances and creative workshops. The centre currently carries out around 500 projects a year. The Zachęta National Art Gallery, Warsaw's oldest exhibition venue with a tradition dating back to the mid-19th century, organises exhibitions of modern art by Polish and international artists and promotes art in many other ways. Since 2011, Warsaw Gallery Weekend has been held on the last weekend in September.

**Question 0**

Which castle is now home to the Centre for Contemporary Art?

**Question 1**

How many projects does the Centre currently carry out per year?

**Question 2**

What is the oldest exhibition venue in Warsaw?

**Question 3**

Where does the Zachęta National Gallery of Art organise art exhibitions?

**Question 4**

When will the Warsaw Gallery Weekend take place?

**Question 5**

In which castle is the Ujazdow Art Centre currently located?

**Question 6**

How many projects does the Centre currently carry out per month?

**Question 7**

What is the oldest exhibition site in Ujazdow?

**Question 8**

Where does the Ujazdow National Art Gallery organise art exhibitions?

**Question 9**

When will the Ujazdow Gallery Weekend take place?

**Text number 44**

Local rival Polonia Warsaw has far fewer supporters, but still managed to win the Ekstraklasa title in 2000. They also won the national championship in 1946 and the cup twice. Polonia's home arena is located on Konwiktorska Street, a ten-minute walk north of the Old Town. Polonia was relegated from the country's top league in 2013 due to its disastrous financial situation. They now play in League 4 (Polish 5th division), the lowest professional league in the Polish Football Association (PZPN) structure.

**Question 0**

Who won the Ekstraklasa championship in 2000?

**Question 1**

When did Polonia Warsaw win the national championship before 2000?

**Question 2**

How many times has Polonia won the cup?

**Question 3**

Where is Polonia's home arena?

**Question 4**

Why was Polonia relegated from the country's top league in 2013?

**Question 5**

Who won the PZPN championship in 2000?

**Question 6**

When did Polonia Ekstraklasa win the national championship before 2000?

**Question 7**

How many times has Ekstraklasa won the cup?

**Question 8**

Where is Ekstraklasa's home arena located?

**Question 9**

Why was Ekstrakiasa relegated from the country's top league in 2013?

**Text number 45**

The mermaid (the lapwing) is the symbol of Warsaw, and can be seen on statues throughout the city and on the city's coat of arms. This image has been in use since at least the mid-13th century. The oldest existing armed seal of Warsaw dates back to 1390 and consists of a circular seal bordered by the Latin inscription Sigilium Civitatis Varsoviensis (Seal of the City of Warsaw). As early as 1609, a crude form of a sea monster with a female torso and holding a sword in its claws was found in the city archives. In 1653, the poet Zygmunt Laukowski poses the question:

**Question 0**

What is a "mermaid"?

**Question 1**

What is the Warsaw emblem?

**Question 2**

How long has Warsaw been using the mermaid?

**Question 3**

When did the oldest armed seal in Warsaw originate?

**Question 4**

What does a sea monster with a woman's torso hold in its claws?

**Question 5**

What is "woman" in Polish?

**Question 6**

What is the symbol for Sigilium?

**Question 7**

How long has Sigilium been using mermaid photos?

**Question 8**

When does the oldest armed seal of Sigilium date back to?

**Question 9**

What does a sea monster with an engraving on its claws mean?

**Text number 46**

The origin of the legendary figure is not fully known. Artur Oppman's best-known legend tells of a long ago journey to the depths of the oceans and seas by two daughters of Triton. One of them decided to stay on the Danish coast and can be seen sitting at the mouth of Copenhagen harbour. The other mermaid arrived at the mouth of the Vistula River and dived into its waters. She stopped to rest on a sandy beach near the village of Warszowa, where fishermen came to admire her beauty and listen to her beautiful sound. The greedy merchant also heard her song; he followed the fishermen and captured the mermaid.

**Question 0**

What did Artur Oppman give to the world?

**Question 1**

Where did the two daughters of Triton go?

**Question 2**

Where did one of Triton's daughters decide to hang out and stay?

**Question 3**

On which village's sandy beach did the mermaid stop to rest?

**Question 4**

What did the greedy merchant do to the mermaid?

**Question 5**

What did Artur Triton give to the world?

**Question 6**

Where did the two Oppman daughters go?

**Question 7**

Where did one of Oppman's daughters decide to hang out and stay?

**Question 8**

In which village did Triton stop to rest on a sandy beach?

**Question 9**

What did the greedy trader do to Triton?

**Text number 47**

One of the most famous people born in Warsaw was Maria Skłodowska-Curie, who achieved international recognition for her research on radioactivity and was the first female Nobel Prize winner. Famous musicians include Władysław Szpilman and Frédéric Chopin. Although Chopin was born in the village of Żelazowa Wola, about 60 kilometres from Warsaw, he moved to the city with his family when he was seven months old. Casimir Pulaski, a Polish general and hero of the American War of Independence, was born here in 1745.

**Question 0**

Who was one of the most famous people born in Warsaw?

**Question 1**

Who was the first female winner of the Maria Curie Prize?

**Question 2**

Who was Frédéric Chopin?

**Question 3**

How old was Chopin when he moved with his family to Warsaw?

**Question 4**

In what year was Casimir Pulaski born in Warsaw?

**Question 5**

Who was one of the most famous people born in Wola?

**Question 6**

Who was Maria Wola's first female winner?

**Question 7**

Who was Fredderic Wola?

**Question 8**

How old was Chopin when he moved with his family to Wola?

**Question 9**

In what year was Casimir Wola born in Warsaw?

**Text number 48**

Tamara de Lempicka was a famous artist who was born in Warsaw. She was born Maria Górska in Warsaw to wealthy parents and married in 1916 to Polish lawyer Tadeusz Łempicki. He represented the Art Deco style of painting and art better than anyone else. Israeli poet Nathan Alterman was born in Warsaw, as was Israeli composer, lyricist and pianist Moshe Vilenski, who studied music at the Warsaw Conservatory. Warsaw was a city beloved by Isaac Bashevis Singer, who described it in many of his novels. No one will ever see the Warsaw I knew. Let me just write about it. Let this Warsaw not be lost forever," he commented.

**Question 0**

Where was the famous artist Tamara de Lempicka born?

**Question 1**

When did Tamara marry a lawyer?

**Question 2**

What did Lempicka represent better than anyone else?

**Question 3**

What was Nathan Alterman's occupation?

**Question 4**

Who loved Warsaw so much that he constantly included it in his novels?

**Question 5**

Where was the famous artist Tamara de Maria born?

**Question 6**

When did Tamera marry the composer?

**Question 7**

What did Vilenski represent better than anyone else?

**Question 8**

What was Nathan Gorska's occupation?

**Question 9**

Who loved Warsaw so much that he wrote about it in his poems?

**Document number 475**

**Text number 0**

The French and Indian War (1754-1763) was the North American theatre of the global Seven Years' War. The war was fought between British America and the colonies of New France, with both sides supported by British and French military units from their parent countries and by Native American allies. At the start of the war, the French North American colonies had around 60,000 European settlers, while the British North American colonies had 2 million inhabitants. The French were outnumbered, especially by the Indians. Long in conflict, the two great metropolitan powers declared war on each other in 1756, escalating the war from a territorial relationship to an intercontinental conflict.

**Question 0**

When was the French and Indian War fought?

**Question 1**

Who fought in the French and Indian War?

**Question 2**

How many people were in the French colonies in North America?

**Question 3**

How many people were in British North American colonies?

**Question 4**

When was there not a French and Indian war?

**Question 5**

When was the French and Indian Treaty signed?

**Question 6**

Who allied themselves in the French and Indian War?

**Question 7**

How many people were not in the French North American colonies?

**Question 8**

How many people were not in the British North American colonies?

**Text number 1**

The war was fought mainly on the border between New France and the British colonies, from southern Virginia to Nova Scotia in the north. It began with a dispute over the confluence of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers, known as the Ohio forks, and the site of the French Fort Duquesne and present-day Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. The dispute erupted into violence at the Battle of Jumonville Glen in May 1754, when Virginia militia under the command of 22-year-old George Washington ambushed a French patrol.

**Question 0**

Where was the war fought?

**Question 1**

How did the war start?

**Question 2**

When did violence in war start?

**Question 3**

Where was there no war?

**Question 4**

How did the war not start?

**Question 5**

How did peace begin?

**Question 6**

When did violence end in war?

**Question 7**

When did violence not start in war?

**Text number 2**

In 1755, six governors of the North American colonies met with the newly arrived British army commander, General Edward Braddock, and planned a four-pronged attack against the French. None succeeded, and Braddock's main attempt was a disaster; he suffered defeat at the Battle of Monongahela on 9 July 1755 and died a few days later. British operations in 1755, 1756 and 1757 on the Pennsylvania-New York border all failed, due to a combination of poor leadership, internal divisions and a lack of effective Canadian scouts, French regulars and Indian warrior allies. In 1755, the British captured the Beauséjour fort on the border between Nova Scotia and Acadia; soon afterwards they ordered the expulsion of the Acadians. The order to expel them was issued by the North American commander-in-chief, William Shirley, without British instructions. The Acadians were deported, both those who were armed and those who had sworn an oath of allegiance to Her Britannic Majesty. The Indians were also driven off their land to make way for settlers from New England.

**Question 0**

When did the colonial governors meet General Edward Braddock about the French invasion?

**Question 1**

How successful was Braddock's first attempt?

**Question 2**

Why did the British operation fail in 1755, 56, 57?

**Question 3**

Which fort was taken by the British in 1755?

**Question 4**

What order did the British give the French?

**Question 5**

When did the colonial governors meet General Edward Braddock about peace with the French?

**Question 6**

How unsuccessful was Braddock's original attempt?

**Question 7**

Why was the British operation successful in 1755, 56, 57?

**Question 8**

Which fortress did the British surrender in 1755?

**Question 9**

What order did the British not give the French?

**Text number 3**

After the disastrous British campaigns of 1757 (which led to the failed expedition against Louisbourg and the siege of Fort William Henry, followed by the torture of Indians and the massacre of British victims), the British government fell. William Pitt came to power and significantly increased British military resources in the colonies at a time when France was unwilling to risk the passage of large convoys to help its limited forces in New France. France concentrated its forces against Prussia and its allies in the European theatre of war. Between 1758 and 1760, the British army launched a campaign to take the Canadian colony. They succeeded in capturing territories in the surrounding colonies and eventually Quebec. Although the British were later defeated at Sainte Foy, Quebec, the French surrendered Canada under the terms of the 1763 treaty.

**Question 0**

Who increased Britain's military resources in the colonies?

**Question 1**

How many resources did the French invest in North America?

**Question 2**

What did France focus on?

**Question 3**

Where were the British defeated in Canada?

**Question 4**

Who reduced Britain's military resources in the colonies?

**Question 5**

How many resources did the French not invest in North America?

**Question 6**

How many resources did France invest in South America?

**Question 7**

Where did France not concentrate its efforts?

**Question 8**

Where were the French defeated in Canada?

**Text number 4**

The outcome was one of the most significant events in the century-long Anglo-French conflict. France ceded its territories east of the Mississippi to Great Britain. It ceded French Louisiana west of the Mississippi (including New Orleans) to its ally Spain in exchange for Spain's loss of Florida to Britain (Spain had ceded it to Britain in exchange for the return of Havana, Cuba). The French colonial power in the northern Caribbean was reduced to the islands of Saint Pierre and Miquelon, thus strengthening Britain's position as the dominant colonial power in the eastern part of North America.

**Question 0**

Which territory was ceded to Britain?

**Question 1**

What land was handed over to Spain?

**Question 2**

What was the significance of Britain's victory?

**Question 3**

What territory was not handed over to Britain?

**Question 4**

Which territory was ceded to France?

**Question 5**

What land was not handed over to Spain?

**Question 6**

What was the meaninglessness of the British victory?

**Question 7**

What was the significance of Britain's defeat?

**Text number 5**

The conflict is known by several names. In British America, wars were often named after a sitting British monarch, such as King William's War or Queen Anne's War. Because King George's War had already been fought in the 1740s, British colonists named the Second War of King George's reign after their opponents, and it became known as the French and Indian War. This traditional name is still established in the United States, but it obscures the fact that the Indians fought on both sides of the conflict and that it was part of the Seven Years' War, a much wider conflict between France and Great Britain. American historians usually use the traditional name or sometimes the Seven Years' War. Other, less commonly used names for the war include the Fourth Colonial War and the Great War of the Empire.

**Question 0**

When was King George's War?

**Question 1**

What is the confusion between the French and Indian wars?

**Question 2**

What was the Seven Years' War?

**Question 3**

What are other alternative names for the word French and Indian War?

**Question 4**

When was there not King George's War?

**Question 5**

When was Queen George's War?

**Question 6**

What is not the confusion of the French and Indian War?

**Question 7**

What was the Six Years War?

**Question 8**

What are not other alternative names for the word French and Indian War?

**Text number 6**

In Europe, the theatre of the North American Seven Years' War is not usually given a separate name. The entire international conflict is known as the Seven Years' War. "Seven Years" refers to the events in Europe from the official declaration of war in 1756 to the signing of the peace treaty in 1763. These dates do not correspond to the battles fought on the North American continent, where the struggle between the two colonial powers was largely completed in six years, from the Battle of Jumonville Glen in 1754 to the capture of Montreal in 1760.

**Question 0**

What period does the Seven Years' War cover?

**Question 1**

How long did the fighting last in the Seven Years' War?

**Question 2**

When was Montreal invaded?

**Question 3**

What was the first battle in 1754?

**Question 4**

Which period is not covered by the seven-year war?

**Question 5**

What period does the six-year war cover?

**Question 6**

When was Montreal not invaded?

**Question 7**

How long did the fighting last in the Seven Years' War?

**Question 8**

What was the first battle in 1745?

**Text number 7**

The French population was about 75,000, concentrated mainly in the St. Lawrence River Valley, with some concentration in Acadia (present-day New Brunswick and parts of Nova Scotia, including Île Royale (present-day Cape Breton Island)). Fewer lived in New Orleans, Biloxi, Mississippi, Mobile, Alabama, and small settlements in the Illinois country east of the Mississippi River and its tributaries. French fur traders and trappers traveled throughout the St. Lawrence and Mississippi River watersheds, trading with local tribes and often marrying Native Americans. Traders married the daughters of chiefs and formed high-ranking alliances.

**Question 0**

What was the population of France in North America?

**Question 1**

Where did French North Americans settle?

**Question 2**

Where did French fur trappers travel?

**Question 3**

What was not the French population in North America?

**Question 4**

What was the population of France in South America?

**Question 5**

Where did French North Americans settle?

**Question 6**

Where did French South Americans settle?

**Question 7**

Where did French fur trappers not travel?

**Text number 8**

British settlers outnumbered French settlers by 20 to one, and their population of about 1.5 million was spread along the east coast of the continent, from Nova Scotia and Newfoundland in the north to Georgia in the south. Many of the older colonies had land claims that extended arbitrarily far west because the extent of the continent was not known at the time their charters were granted. Although their centres of settlement were on the coast, the settlements grew inland. Nova Scotia, conquered from France in 1713, still had a significant French-speaking population. Britain also claimed Rupert's Land, where the Hudson's Bay Company traded fur with local tribes.

**Question 0**

What was the relationship between British settlers and the French?

**Question 1**

Where did British settlers live?

**Question 2**

Where were the settlements concentrated?

**Question 3**

What was not the relationship between the British settlers and the French?

**Question 4**

What was the relationship between the British settlers and the English?

**Question 5**

Where did British settlers not live?

**Question 6**

Where did the British soldiers live?

**Question 7**

Where was the population not concentrated in the settlements?

**Text number 9**

Between the French and the British, indigenous tribes ruled large areas. In the north, the Mi'kmaq and Abenaki were involved in Father Le Loutre's war and continued to dominate parts of Nova Scotia, Acadia and the eastern part of the Canadian province, as well as much of present-day Maine. The Iroquois Confederacy controlled much of present-day upstate New York and Ohio, although the latter also included Algonquian-speaking Delaware and Shawnee peoples and Iroquoian-speaking Mingos. These tribes were formally under the control of the Iroquois, who limited their treaty-making powers.

**Question 0**

Which groups ruled the country between the French and the British?

**Question 1**

Which tribes took part in Father Le Loutre's war?

**Question 2**

Where was the Iroquois League supervising?

**Question 3**

What was the rule under which some natives lived?

**Question 4**

Which groups never ruled the country between the French and the British?

**Question 5**

Which groups ruled the land between the Canadians and the British?

**Question 6**

Which tribes were not in Father Le Loutre's war?

**Question 7**

Where did the Iroquois League not rule?

**Question 8**

What rule did a native not live by?

**Text number 10**

Further south, the southeastern interior was dominated by the Siouan-speaking Catawba, the Muskogee-speaking Creek and Choctaw, and the Iroquois-speaking Cherokee. When the war broke out, the French used their trade connections to recruit fighters from tribes in the western Great Lakes region (an area not directly involved in the French-British conflict), including the Huron, Mississauga, Ojibwa, Winnebago and Potawatomi. The British received support in the war from the Iroquois Six Nations and also from the Cherokees - until disagreements led to the Anglo-Cherokee War in 1758. In 1758, the Pennsylvania government successfully negotiated the Treaty of Easton, in which several tribes in the Ohio region promised neutrality in exchange for land cessions and other benefits. Most of the other northern tribes sided with the French, who were their primary trading partner and supplier of arms. Both the French and the British made diplomatic efforts to gain the Creek and Cherokee either their support or neutrality in the conflict. It was not uncommon for small forces to be involved on the "other side" of the conflict from formally negotiated agreements, as most tribes were dispersed and troops made their own decisions about warfare.

**Question 0**

What are the Siouan tribes?

**Question 1**

From which regions did the French recruit the natives?

**Question 2**

Which tribes supported the British?

**Question 3**

What are not Siouan tribes?

**Question 4**

What are Siouan-speaking Britons?

**Question 5**

From which regions did the French abandon the natives?

**Question 6**

From which regions did the English recruit the natives?

**Question 7**

Which tribes hated the British?

**Text number 11**

At the start of the war, there were no French troops in North America and hardly any British troops. New France was defended by some 3,000 troupes de la marine, companies of regular soldiers from the colonies (some of whom had considerable experience of fighting in the forest). The colonial government recruited militia support where necessary. In most British colonies, local militia companies, usually poorly trained and available for short periods only, were assembled to deal with threats from the natives, but they did not have standing forces.

**Question 0**

What was Franks' military presence at the start of the war?

**Question 1**

How many British troops were in North America at the start of the war?

**Question 2**

What was the normal British defence?

**Question 3**

What was the French military presence at the end of the war?

**Question 4**

What was the French military presence at the start of the peace?

**Question 5**

How many British troops were in North America at the end of the war?

**Question 6**

How many British troops were in South America at the start of the war?

**Question 7**

What was the abnormal British defence?

**Text number 12**

Céloron's expedition consisted of about 200 Marines and 30 Indians. The expedition covered some 4 800 kilometres between June and November 1749. It passed along the St. Lawrence, continued along the north shore of Lake Ontario, crossed the Niagara Portage River and followed the south shore of Lake Erie. At Chautauqua Portage (near present-day Barcelona, New York), the expedition moved inland to the Allegheny River, which it followed to present-day Pittsburgh. There, Céloron buried lead plates engraved with the French claim to Ohio land. Whenever he encountered British traders or fur trappers, Céloron informed them of the French claim to the territory and urged them to leave.

**Question 0**

What was the size of the Celeron expedition?

**Question 1**

Who was on the Celeron expedition?

**Question 2**

How did the Celeron do on the road?

**Question 3**

What was the purpose of the Celeron expedition?

**Question 4**

What was not the scope of the Celeron expedition?

**Question 5**

Who was not part of the Celeron expedition?

**Question 6**

Who was part of the Celery expedition?

**Question 7**

How did the Celeron not handle things on the way?

**Text number 13**

When the Celoron expedition arrived at Logstown, the Indians in the area informed Celoron that they owned Ohio land and that they would trade with the British regardless of the French. Céloron continued south until his expedition reached the confluence of the Ohio and Miami Rivers, south of the village of Pickawillany, the home of the Miami chief known as "Old Briton". Céloron threatened 'Old Briton' with severe consequences if he continued to trade with the British. "Old Briton ignored the warning. Disappointed, Céloron returned to Montreal in November 1749.

**Question 0**

How did the natives of Logstown receive the information from Celeron?

**Question 1**

Where did Old Briton live?

**Question 2**

How did Celeron take the meeting with Old Briton?

**Question 3**

How does Old Briton react to Celeron?

**Question 4**

Why didn't the Logstown natives accept Celeron's information?

**Question 5**

Where was the Old Briton not at home?

**Question 6**

Where was New Briton at home?

**Question 7**

How did Celeron react to the New Brighton meeting?

**Question 8**

What was New Brighton's answer to Celeron?

**Text number 14**

In his detailed report, Céloron wrote: "I can only say that the natives of these regions have a very bad attitude towards the French and are completely devoted to the English. I do not know how they can be won back. "Even before his return to Montreal, reports of the situation in Ohio land were circulating in London and Paris, with both sides proposing measures. William Shirley, the expansive governor of the province of Massachusetts Bay, was particularly adamant, stating that the British settlers would not be safe as long as the French were present. Conflicts between the colonies, carried out by raiding parties of Indian allies, had been going on for decades and resulted in a lively trade in European colonial prisoners from both sides.

**Question 0**

How did Celeron deal with Indian relations?

**Question 1**

What did leaders in Europe think of the news from the Celeron expedition?

**Question 2**

How did William Shirley react to the French advance?

**Question 3**

How did Celeron not deal with Indian relations?

**Question 4**

What was Celeron's opinion on the mother tongue?

**Question 5**

How did leaders in Europe feel about the news of the Celeron expedition?

**Question 6**

How did citizens in Europe react to the news of the Celeron expedition?

**Question 7**

How did William Shirley react to the English advance?

**Text number 15**

In 1749, the British government granted land to the Ohio Company of Virginia for the purpose of developing trade and settlement in Ohio. The grant required it to settle 100 families in the area and build a fort for their protection. However, as the territory was also claimed by Pennsylvania, both colonies began to demand action to improve their own claims. In 1750, Christopher Gist, acting on behalf of both Virginia and the company, surveyed the Ohio territory and began negotiations with the Indian tribes at Logstown. In 1752, he concluded the Treaty of Logstown, in which the local Indians, through 'half-king' Tanacharison and an Iroquois representative, agreed to terms that included permission to build a 'strong house' at the mouth of the Monongahela River (in what is now Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania). By the late 17th century, the Iroquois had displaced many tribes from the Ohio Valley and held it as a hunting ground by right of conquest.

**Question 0**

When did the British government give land for the development of the Ohio Country?

**Question 1**

Who received land from the British government for the development of the Ohio Country?

**Question 2**

Who explored Ohio in 1750?

**Question 3**

What was the agreement on trade with the indigenous peoples and the British?

**Question 4**

According to the treaty between the Iroquois and the British, where was a strong house to be built?

**Question 5**

When did the British government take land for the development of the Ohio Country?

**Question 6**

Who did the British government not give land to for the development of the Ohio Country?

**Question 7**

Who explored Ohio in 1570?

**Question 8**

What disagreements arose over trade with the natives and the British?

**Question 9**

According to the disagreement between the Iroquois and the British, where was a strong house to be built?

**Text number 16**

The Austrian Succession War (known in North America as King George's War) officially ended in 1748 with the signing of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. The treaty focused primarily on resolving European issues. Conflicting territorial claims between the British and French North American colonies were referred to the Commission, but it failed to reach a settlement. Both sides claimed territories from Nova Scotia and Acadia in the north to the Ohio Country in the south. The disputes also extended to the Atlantic Ocean, where both kingdoms wanted access to the rich fishing waters of the Grand Banks off Newfoundland.

**Question 0**

What was the North American contribution to the War of Austrian Succession?

**Question 1**

What was the end of the War of Austrian Succession?

**Question 2**

What issues were not addressed in the Aix-la-Chapelle agreement?

**Question 3**

What happened when the Commission did not take a decision?

**Question 4**

What was the South American contribution to the War of Austrian Succession?

**Question 5**

What was the North American component of the Australian Succession War?

**Question 6**

What was the end of the Australian Succession War?

**Question 7**

What were the issues covered by the Aix-la-Chapelle agreement?

**Question 8**

What happened when the Commission took its decision?

**Text number 17**

The new French Governor-General, Marquis de la Jonquière, died on 17 March 1752 and was temporarily replaced by Charles le Moyne de Longueuil. His permanent successor, the Marquis Duquesne, did not arrive in New France until 1752 to take up his post. Continued British activity in Ohio led Longueuil to send a second expeditionary force to the area, commanded by Charles Michel de Langlade, an officer in the Troupes de la Marine. Langlade was assigned 300 men, including French-Canadians and Ottawa warriors. His aim was to punish the Miami people of Pickawillay for not obeying Céloron's orders to stop trading with the British. On June 21, French troops attacked the Pickawillany trading centre, captured three merchants and killed 14 Miamians, including Old Briton. He was reportedly ritually eaten by some indigenous members of the expedition.

**Question 0**

Which governor of New France died in 1752?

**Question 1**

How many were in the Langlades expedition?

**Question 2**

What was the plan for the Langlades mission?

**Question 3**

What was the result of the French attack on the shopping centre?

**Question 4**

Which governor of New France died in 1725?

**Question 5**

Which governor, who was not responsible for New France, died in 1752?

**Question 6**

How many people were not on the Langlades expedition?

**Question 7**

Was the Langlades mission not planned?

**Question 8**

What was the result of the French attack on the school?

**Text number 18**

In the spring of 1753, Paul Marin de la Malgue took command of a 2,000-strong navy and a band of Indians. His mission was to protect the King's lands in the Ohio Valley from the British. Marin followed the route that Céloron had mapped four years earlier, but where Céloron had limited his record of French invasions to the burial of lead plates, Marin built and garrisoned forts. First, he built Fort Presque Isle (near present-day Erie, Pennsylvania) on the southern shore of Lake Erie. He built a road to the tops of LeBoeuf Creek. Marin built a second fort at Fort Le Boeuf (in present-day Waterford, Pennsylvania), designed to guard the headwaters of LeBoeuf Creek. As he advanced south, he drove off or captured British traders, alarming both the British and the Iroquois. Tanaghrisson, chief of the Mingo tribe, a remnant of the Iroquois and other tribes driven west by colonial expansion. He disliked the French (whom he accused of killing and eating his father). He travelled to Fort Le Boeuf and threatened the French with military action, but was scornfully rebuffed by Marin.

**Question 0**

Who took command of the French in the spring of 1753?

**Question 1**

Where did Marin build the first fortress?

**Question 2**

Where was the second fortress of Marin built?

**Question 3**

What was Marin's order?

**Question 4**

Which native chief traveled to the French fortress and threatened Marin?

**Question 5**

Who took command of the French in the spring of 1735?

**Question 6**

Where did Marin build the last fortress?

**Question 7**

Where was Marin's first fortress built?

**Question 8**

What was not Marin's orders?

**Question 9**

Which native chief travelled to a French fortress and helped Marin?

**Text number 19**

The Iroquois sent runners to the William Johnson estate in upstate New York. Johnson, who was the British superintendent of Indian affairs in New York and beyond, was known among the Iroquois as Warraghiggey, meaning 'He who does great things'. ' He spoke their language and had become a respected honorary member of the Iroquois Confederacy in the area. In 1746, Johnson was made colonel of the Iroquois. He was later appointed colonel of the Western New York militia. They met in Albany, New York, with Governor Clinton and some other officials of the American colonies. Mohawk Chief Hendrick, the president of their tribal council, insisted that the British honour their obligations and prevent French expansion. When Clinton did not respond to his satisfaction, Chief Hendrick said that the "chain of alliance", the long-standing friendly relationship between the Iroquois Confederacy and the British Crown, had been broken.

**Question 0**

What was William Johnson's role in the British army?

**Question 1**

What was William Johnson's Mohawk name?

**Question 2**

What title did the Iroquois give Johnson?

**Question 3**

Who was the speaker at the tribal council?

**Question 4**

What was not William Johnson's role in the British army?

**Question 5**

What was William Johnson's role in the French army?

**Question 6**

What was William Johnson's Sioux name?

**Question 7**

What title did the Sioux give Johnson?

**Question 8**

Who was the tribal council reader?

**Text number 20**

Virginia Governor Robert Dinwiddie was an investor in an Ohio company that would have lost money if the French had kept their demands. To counter the French military presence in Ohio, in October 1753 Dinwiddie ordered Major George Washington, 21, of the Virginia Regiment (whose brother was another Ohio investor) to warn the French to leave Virginia. Washington set out with a small party, taking with him Jacob Van Braam as interpreter, Christopher Gist, a company surveyor working in the area, and a few Mingos under Tanaghrisson. On 12 December, Washington and his men arrived at Fort Le Boeuf.

**Question 0**

Governor Robert Dinwiddie had an investment in which major company?

**Question 1**

Who did Dinwiddie order to address the French in Virginia?

**Question 2**

Who was added to the party when Washington went on a trip?

**Question 3**

When did Washington arrive at Fort Le Boeuf?

**Question 4**

Governor Robert Dinwiddie had an investment in what insignificant company?

**Question 5**

Minister Robert Dinwiddie had an investment in which major company?

**Question 6**

Who did Dinwiddie not order to address the French in Virginia?

**Question 7**

Who disappeared from the party when Washington went on a trip?

**Question 8**

When did Washington fail to reach Fort Le Boeuf?

**Text number 21**

Jacques Legardeur de Saint-Pierre, who succeeded Marini as commander of the French forces after his death on 29 October, invited Washington to dine with him. At dinner, Washington presented Saint-Pierre with Dinwiddie's letter calling for the immediate withdrawal of France from Ohio. Saint-Pierre said: "As to the invitation you sent me to withdraw, I do not consider it my duty to comply with it. "He told Washington that France had a greater claim to the territory than the British because René-Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle, had explored Ohio nearly a century earlier.

**Question 0**

Who invited Washington to have dinner with him?

**Question 1**

What letter did Washington write to Saint-Pierre ?

**Question 2**

How did Saint-Pierre respond to Washington?

**Question 3**

Why did the French think they were entitled to the Ohio claim?

**Question 4**

Who invited Washington to have dinner with him?

**Question 5**

Who invited Washington to fight with them?

**Question 6**

What letter did Washington not present to Saint-Pierre?

**Question 7**

How did Saint-Girard respond to Washington?

**Question 8**

Why did the French feel they had no right to the Ohio claim?

**Text number 22**

Even before Washington's return, Dinwiddie had sent a company of 40 men under William Trent, and in the early months of 1754 they began building a small fort. Governor Duquesne sent French reinforcements led by Claude-Pierre Pecaudy de Contrecœur to support Saint-Pierre at the same time, and Contrecœur led 500 men south from the Venango fort on 5 April 1754. When these troops arrived at the fortress on 16 April, Contrecœur generously allowed Trent's small company to withdraw. He bought their construction tools to continue building what became the Fortress of Duquesne.

**Question 0**

How many men did Duquesne send to support Saint-Pierre ?

**Question 1**

When did the British start building forts under William Trent?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the fortress to be built?

**Question 3**

How many women did Duquesne send to help Saint-Pierre ?

**Question 4**

How many men did Duquesne send to kill Saint-Pierre ?

**Question 5**

When did the British not start building forts under William Trent?

**Question 6**

What was the name of the fortress to be destroyed?

**Question 7**

What was not the name of the fortress to be built?

**Text number 23**

When Washington returned to Williamsburg, Dinwiddie ordered him to lead a larger force to assist Trent. On the way, Washington learned of Trent's retreat. Since Tanaghrisson had promised support to the British, Washington continued on to Fort Duquesne and met the Mingo leader. When Washington learned of a French reconnaissance party in the area, he and Tanaghrisson and his party surprised the Canadians on 28 May at the Battle of Jumonville Glen. They killed many Canadians, including their commander Joseph Coulon de Jumonville, whose head Tanaghrisson reportedly split open with a tomahawk. Historian Fred Anderson suggests that Tanaghrisson acted to gain British support and regain power over his own people. They had been inclined to support the French, with whom they had long trade relations. One of Tanaghrisson's men told Contrecoeur that Jumonville had died from British musket fire.

**Question 0**

What did Washington do when it heard about the French intelligence team in the region?

**Question 1**

What were the losses of the battle?

**Question 2**

Why did Tanaghrisson support Britain's efforts?

**Question 3**

When did Washington not find out about Trent's withdrawal?

**Question 4**

When did Washington find out about Trent's progress?

**Question 5**

What did Washington not do when it learned of the French intelligence team in the region?

**Question 6**

Which were not victims of the battle?

**Question 7**

Why did Tanaghrisson reject Britain's efforts?

**Text number 24**

News of these two battles reached England in August. After several months of negotiations, the Duke of Newcastle's government decided to send an expedition to oust the French the following year. They chose Major-General Edward Braddock to lead the expedition. Word of Britain's military plans leaked to France well before Braddock left for North America. In response, King Louis XV sent six regiments to New France under the command of Baron Dieskau in 1755. The British intended to blockade French ports and sent their fleet in February 1755, but the French fleet had already left. Admiral Edward Hawke sent a fast squadron to North America to try to stop the French.

**Question 0**

What was the aim of the Braddock expedition?

**Question 1**

When did the French find out about Braddock's plans?

**Question 2**

How did King Louis XV react to the British plans?

**Question 3**

What were the British plans against the French?

**Question 4**

What was the aim of the Haddock expedition?

**Question 5**

What was not the aim of the Braddock expedition?

**Question 6**

When did the French not find out about Braddock's plans?

**Question 7**

How did King Louis X respond to the British plans?

**Question 8**

What were Britain's plans as an ally with France?

**Text number 25**

The convening of the Congress of Albany in June and July 1754 was an important political response to the outbreak of hostilities. The aim of the Congress was to formalize a united front in trade and negotiations with the various Indian nations, as the loyalty of the various tribes and peoples was seen as crucial to the success of the war. The colonial legislatures never ratified, nor did the Crown approve, the plan adopted by the delegates. However, the form of the Congress and many of the details of the plan became a prototype for the Confederacy during the War of Independence.

**Question 0**

Which political response was convened in June-July 1754?

**Question 1**

What was the aim of the Congress?

**Question 2**

Was the plan formalised?

**Question 3**

What was the significance of the Congress?

**Question 4**

Which political response was convened in June-July 1745?

**Question 5**

Which political response was not convened in June-July 1754?

**Question 6**

What was not the aim of the Congress?

**Question 7**

Was the plan informal?

**Question 8**

What was the meaninglessness of the Congress?

**Text number 26**

Braddock (assisted by George Washington) led an expedition of some 1,500 army soldiers and provincial militia in June 1755 to capture Fort Duquesne. The expedition was a disaster. It was attacked by French and Indian soldiers and ambushed from behind trees and logs. Braddock called for a retreat. He was killed. About 1 000 British soldiers were killed or wounded. The remaining 500 British troops, led by George Washington, retreated to Virginia. Two future opponents in the American War of Independence, Washington and Thomas Gage, played a key role in organising the withdrawal.

**Question 0**

Who went to the fortress of Dusquesne in June 1755?

**Question 1**

How successful was this Braddock expedition?

**Question 2**

How many losses did the British suffer?

**Question 3**

Which future revolutionary key figures were involved in this attack?

**Question 4**

Who went to the fortress of Dusquesne in June 1745?

**Question 5**

Who went to the fortress of Dusquesne in July 1755?

**Question 6**

How much success did this Braddock expedition not achieve?

**Question 7**

How many deaths did the British not get?

**Question 8**

Which future revolutionary key figures never took part in this attack?

**Text number 27**

The French obtained a copy of the British war plans, including the actions of Shirley and Johnson. Shirley's efforts to fortify Oswego were bogged down by logistical difficulties, exacerbated by Shirley's inexperience in leading large expeditions. At the same time, Shirley learned that the French were preparing to attack Fort Oswego in his absence, while he was planning to attack Fort Niagara. In response, Shirley left garrisons at Oswego, Fort Bull and Fort Williams (the latter two were located on the Oneida Carry between the Mohawk River and Wood Creek in present-day Rome, New York). Fort Bull was stocked with supplies for the planned attack on Niagara.

**Question 0**

Whose activities did the French find out about?

**Question 1**

What difficulties did Shirly have?

**Question 2**

Where was Shirey going to be when Fort Oswego was to be attacked?

**Question 3**

Who did Shirley leave in Oswego?

**Question 4**

Who did the French lose their information to?

**Question 5**

Whose activities were the French not informed about?

**Question 6**

What difficulties did Shirly not have?

**Question 7**

Where was Shirey going to be when Fort Oswego was not to be attacked?

**Question 8**

Who did Shirley not leave behind in Oswego?

**Text number 28**

Johnson's expedition was better organised than Shirley's, which had been noticed by the Governor of New France, the Marquis de Vaudreuil. He had been primarily concerned with the extended supply line to the Ohio forts and had sent Baron Dieskau to lead the Frontenac defences against Shirley's expected attack. When Johnson was considered a greater threat, Vaudreuil sent Dieskau to the fort of St Frédéric to meet this threat. Dieskau planned to attack the British camp at Fort Edward at the head of the Hudson River Navigation, but Johnson had fortified it strongly and Dieskau's Indian support was reluctant to attack. The troops eventually met in a bloody Lake George battle between Fort Edward and Fort William Henry. The battle ended unsuccessfully, and both sides withdrew from the field. Johnson's advance was halted at Fort William Henry, and the French retreated to Ticonderoga Point, where they began construction of Fort Carillon (later renamed Fort Ticonderoga after the British captured it in 1759).

**Question 0**

Who was the governor of New France?

**Question 1**

How did Vaudreuil react when Johnson was seen as a bigger threat?

**Question 2**

Who won the Battle of Lake George?

**Question 3**

Where did Johnson stop?

**Question 4**

What was the direction of the French withdrawal?

**Question 5**

Who was the governor of Old France?

**Question 6**

How did Vaudreuil react when Johnson was seen as a lesser threat?

**Question 7**

Who won the Battle of Niagara Lake?

**Question 8**

Where did Johnson start?

**Question 9**

Where was France's progress going?

**Text number 29**

Colonel Monckton captured the fortress of Beauséjour in June 1755, the only British success that year, and cut off the French fortress of Louisbourg from land-based reinforcements. To cut off Louisbourg's vital supplies, Nova Scotia Governor Charles Lawrence ordered the expulsion of the French-speaking Acadian population from the area. Monckton's troops, which included companies of Rogers' Ranger troops, forcibly removed thousands of Acadians, chased many who resisted and sometimes committed atrocities. More than any other factor, the cutting off of Louisbourg's supplies led to its downfall. Acadian resistance, along with indigenous allies such as the Mi'kmaq, was sometimes quite fierce, and they made constant attacks on the frontiers (including against Dartmouth and Lunenburg). Apart from the Acadian expulsion campaigns (around the Bay of Fundy, on the Petitcodiac and St. John rivers, and on Île Saint-Jean), the only major clashes were at Petitcodiac in 1755 and at Bloody Creek near Annapolis Royal in 1757.

**Question 0**

Who took the Beausejour fortress?

**Question 1**

How were the British able to cut off supplies to Louisbourg?

**Question 2**

What other clashes took place during the takeover of Louisbourg?

**Question 3**

Who never conquered the Beausejour fortress?

**Question 4**

Who conquered Port Beausejour?

**Question 5**

How did the British fail to cut off supplies to Louisbourg?

**Question 6**

How did the British fail to cut off supplies to Louisbourg?

**Question 7**

What other clashes were not involved in the takeover of Louisbourg?

**Text number 30**

After Braddock's death, William Shirley took command of the British forces in North America. At a meeting in Albany in December 1755, he presented his plans for 1756. In addition to renewed efforts to capture Niagara, Crown Point and Duquesne, he proposed attacks on the fortress of Frontenac on the north shore of Lake Ontario and an expedition through the wilderness of the Maine region and along the Chaudière River to Quebec City. Shirley's plan met with little support, as it was bogged down in disagreements and disputes with others, including William Johnson and New York Governor Sir Charles Hardy.

**Question 0**

Who controlled the British forces in North America after Braddock's death?

**Question 1**

At which meeting did Shirley present the 1756 plans?

**Question 2**

What attacks was Shirley planning?

**Question 3**

Where was Shirley planning to explore?

**Question 4**

Who controlled the British forces in North America after Braddock's birth?

**Question 5**

Who controlled the British forces in South America after Braddock's death?

**Question 6**

At which meeting did Shirley present the 1765 plans?

**Question 7**

What attack proposals did Shirley not plan?

**Question 8**

Where was Shirley not planning an expedition?

**Text number 31**

Newcastle replaced him in January 1756 with Lord Loudoun, and Major General James Abercrombie was his deputy. Neither of these men had as much campaigning experience as the trio of officers sent by France to North America. In May 1756, reinforcements from the regular French army arrived in New France, led by Major-General Louis-Joseph de Montcalm and assisted by Chevalier de Lévis and Colonel François-Charles de Bourlamaque, all seasoned veterans of the War of the Austrian Succession. During this period in Europe, on 18 May 1756, England formally declared war on France, extending the war to Europe, later known as the Seven Years' War.

**Question 0**

Who was appointed Lor Loudoun's second-in-command in 1756?

**Question 1**

Who led the fortifications of New France in 1756?

**Question 2**

When did England officially declare war on France?

**Question 3**

Who was appointed third in command of Lor Loudoun in 1756?

**Question 4**

Who was appointed Lor Loudoun's second-in-command in 1765?

**Question 5**

Who did not lead the fortifications of New France in 1756?

**Question 6**

Who led the fortifications of New France in 1765?

**Question 7**

When did England officially end the war against France?

**Text number 32**

Governor Vaudreuil, who had ambitions to become Commander-in-Chief of France (in addition to his role as Governor), served during the winter of 1756 before the arrival of reinforcements. Scouts had reported the weakness of the British supply chain, so he ordered an attack on the Shirley forts erected at Oneida Carry. At the Battle of Fort Bull in March, French troops destroyed the fort and large quantities of supplies, including 45,000 pounds of gunpowder. They dashed British hopes of a military campaign in Lake Ontario and endangered the Oswego garrison, which was already short of supplies. French troops in the Ohio Valley also continued to conspire with Indians throughout the region, encouraging them to raid frontier settlements. This led to constant alarm on the western frontier, and streams of refugees returned eastward to get out of the action.

**Question 0**

Where were the weaknesses in the British supply chain?

**Question 1**

What was the attack on British weakness?

**Question 2**

How much gunpowder was destroyed in the attack?

**Question 3**

What British plans were cancelled by this Oneida Carry attachment?

**Question 4**

Where was there no weakness in the British supply chain?

**Question 5**

What were the strengths of the British supply chain?

**Question 6**

What was the attack against the British strength?

**Question 7**

How much gunpowder was saved?

**Question 8**

What British plans were not cancelled by this Oneida Carry attachment?

**Text number 33**

The new British command centre only became operational in July. On arrival in Albany, Abercrombie refused to take any significant action until Loudoun had approved it. Montcalm took bold action against his passivity. On the basis of Vaudreuil's disruption of the Oswego garrison, Montcalm performed a strategic manoeuvre by moving his headquarters to Ticonderoga, as if in anticipation of a new attack on Lake George. With the Abercrombie trapped at Albany, Montcalm slipped away and led a successful attack on Oswego in August. Afterwards, Montcalm and the Indians under his command disagreed over the disposal of the prisoners' personal effects. The Europeans disliked them as prizes and prevented the Indians from stripping the prisoners of their valuables, which angered the Indians.

**Question 0**

Who refused to act until Loudoun approved the plans?

**Question 1**

Where did Montcalm move its headquarters to show strategic progress?

**Question 2**

Where did Moncalm sneak in to attack when he was left largely unprotected?

**Question 3**

What were the differences between Montcalm and the Indians?

**Question 4**

Where did Montcalm move its headquarters to show its strategic withdrawal?

**Question 5**

Who refused to act until Loudoun did not approve the plans?

**Question 6**

Who refused to act until Washington approved the plans?

**Question 7**

Where did Moncalm sneak in to attack when he was left largely unprotected?

**Question 8**

What was the treaty between Montcalm and the Indians?

**Text number 34**

Loudoun, a capable administrator but a cautious field commander, planned one major operation for 1757: an invasion of Quebec, the capital of New France. He left a substantial force at William Henry's fort to disrupt Montcalm's activities and began organising an expedition to Quebec. William Pitt, Secretary of State for the colonies, ordered him to attack Louisbourg first. The expedition was finally ready to leave Halifax, Nova Scotia, in early August, although it suffered various delays. Meanwhile, French ships had fled the British blockade of the French coast, and a fleet larger than the British fleet awaited Loudoun at Louisbourg. Faced with this force, Loudoun returned to New York to learn that a massacre had taken place at Fort William Henry.

**Question 0**

What were Loudoun's plans for 1757?

**Question 1**

What was the purpose of Loudoun's troops at Fort Henry?

**Question 2**

Who ordered Loudoun to attack Louisbourg?

**Question 3**

What did Loudoun do about the strength of the French troops in Louisbourg?

**Question 4**

What were Loudoun's plans for 1775?

**Question 5**

What was not in Loudoun's plans for 1757?

**Question 6**

What was not the purpose of Loudoun's troops at Fort Henry?

**Question 7**

Who ordered Loudoun to defend Louisbourg?

**Question 8**

What did Loudoun do when the French troops were weak at Louisbourg?

**Text number 35**

French irregulars (Canadian scouts and Indians) harassed William Henry's fort throughout the first half of 1757. In January, they ambushed British rangers near Ticonderoga. In February, they made a daring attack on the position across frozen Lake George, destroying stores and buildings outside the main fort. In early August, Montcalm and 7,000 soldiers surrounded the fort, which surrendered and agreed to withdraw under a conditional treaty. As the withdrawal began, some of Montcalm's Indian allies, angered at the lost opportunity for plunder, attacked the British column, killing and capturing several hundred men, women, children and slaves. The aftermath of the siege may have contributed to the spread of smallpox to remote Indian populations, as some Indians were reported to have travelled from across the Mississippi to take part in the campaign and returned after being exposed to European carriers.

**Question 0**

Which troops attacked William Henry's fort in early 1757?

**Question 1**

On which lake did the troops attack Fort Willima Henry in the winter?

**Question 2**

What did some French Indian allies do when they withdrew from Fort William Henry?

**Question 3**

Which troops defended William Henry's fort in early 1757?

**Question 4**

Which troops attacked William Henry's fort in early 1775?

**Question 5**

On which lake did the troops defend William Henry's fort in winter?

**Question 6**

On which lake did the troops attack William Henry's fortress in the summer?

**Question 7**

What did some Indian enemies do when the French withdrew from Fort William Henry?

**Text number 36**

Vaudreuil and Montcalm received few additions in 1758, as the British blockade of the French coast restricted French shipping. The situation in New France was further aggravated by the poor harvest of 1757, a difficult winter and the alleged corrupt machinations of François Bigot, the region's curator. His plans to supply the colony drove up prices, and Montcalm believed he and his partners were lining their own pockets. A massive outbreak of smallpox among the western tribes caused many of them to stay out of trade in 1758. Although many parties to the conflict blamed others (the Indians accused the French of bringing 'bad medicine' and of denying them rewards at William Henry's fort), the disease probably spread in the cramped conditions of William Henry after the battle. Montcalm concentrated his meagre resources on the defence of St Lawrence, with the main defences at Carillon, Quebec and Louisbourg, while Vaudreuil unsuccessfully defended the continuation of the raiding tactics that had worked so effectively in previous years.

**Question 0**

What caused problems for New France in terms of replenishment?

**Question 1**

What other reason was there for the poor supply in New France caused by the severe winter?

**Question 2**

Where did Montcalm focus the defence of New France?

**Question 3**

What caused problems for Old France in terms of replenishment?

**Question 4**

What caused New France to have no problems with replenishments?

**Question 5**

What other reason caused New France to have a good supply in the face of a difficult winter?

**Question 6**

What other reason was there for the poor supply in New France after a difficult summer?

**Question 7**

Where did Montcalm focus his attack on New France?

**Text number 37**

Britain's failures in North America, combined with other failures in the European theatre of war, led to the ouster of Newcastle and his main military adviser, the Duke of Cumberland. Newcastle and Pitt joined an unstable coalition in which Pitt dominated military planning. He set about drawing up a plan for the 1758 campaign, largely developed by Loudoun. Abercrombie had replaced him as commander-in-chief after the failures of 1757. Pitt's plan called for three major invasions, involving large numbers of regular troops supported by provincial militia, to take the heartlands of New France. Two of the expeditions were successful, and the fortress of Duquesne and Louisbourg fell to substantial British forces.

**Question 0**

What led to Newcastle's fall from power as a military adviser?

**Question 1**

Who did Abercrombie replace as Commander-in-Chief?

**Question 2**

What attacks did the Pitt plan call for?

**Question 3**

How many of Pitt's planned trips were successful?

**Question 4**

What led to Newcastle's rise to power as a military adviser?

**Question 5**

What led to Newcastle's fall from power as a political adviser?

**Question 6**

Who did Abercrombie not replace as Commander-in-Chief?

**Question 7**

Who did Abercrombie replace as captain?

**Question 8**

How many of Pitt's planned trips did not work out?

**Text number 38**

The third invasion was halted by an improbable French victory at the Battle of Carillon, where 3,600 Frenchmen defeated Abercrombie's force of 18,000 soldiers, militia and Indian allies outside a fort the French called Carillon and the British called Ticonderoga. Abercrombie saved something from disaster when he sent John Bradstreet on an expedition that successfully destroyed the Frontenac fort, including caches of supplies destined for the western forts of New France and furs destined for Europe. Abercrombie was recalled and replaced by Jeffery Amherst, the victor of Louisbourg.

**Question 0**

How many Frenchmen won the Battle of Carillon?

**Question 1**

How many troops were defeated by the British at the Battle of Carillon?

**Question 2**

What success did Abercrombie gain from the Carillon defeat?

**Question 3**

How did this loss affect Abercrombie?

**Question 4**

How many Frenchmen were killed at the Battle of Carillon?

**Question 5**

How many Englishmen won the Battle of Carillon?

**Question 6**

How many teams won the British BAttle of Carillon?

**Question 7**

What kind of success did Abercrombie get from the Carillon victory?

**Question 8**

How did the win affect Abercrombie?

**Text number 39**

After France's generally poor performance in most theatres of the Seven Years' War in 1758, the new French foreign minister, Duc de Choiseul, decided to focus on attacking Britain to draw British resources away from North America and the European continent. The invasion failed both militarily and politically, as Pitt again planned major campaigns against New France and sent resources to Britain's ally on the continent, Prussia, and the French navy failed in the naval battles of 1759 in Lagos and the Gulf of Quiberon. In a stroke of luck, some French supply ships managed to leave France and avoid a British blockade off the French coast.

**Question 0**

In 1758, what was Duc de Choiseul's plan to concentrate the military effort?

**Question 1**

How well did the French review work?

**Question 2**

Which naval battles did France lose in 1759?

**Question 3**

In 1785, what was Duc de Choiseul's plan to concentrate the military effort?

**Question 4**

In 1758, what was Duc de Choiseul's plan for non-centralised military action?

**Question 5**

How unsuccessful were the French revised measures?

**Question 6**

How well did the English checks go?

**Question 7**

Which naval battles did France lose in 1795?

**Text number 40**

British victories continued on all fronts in the Annus Mirabilis of 1759, when the British finally captured Ticonderoga, James Wolfe defeated Montcalm in Quebec (in a battle that claimed the lives of both commanders), and the victory at Fort Niagara successfully severed the link between the French southern forts in the south and those in the west. The victory was completed in 1760 when the British were defeated off Quebec City at the Battle of Sainte-Foy, but were able to prevent the arrival of French relief ships at Restigouche in a naval battle while armies marched on Montreal from three sides.

**Question 0**

Who defeated Montcalm in Quebec?

**Question 1**

What was the significance of the Forth Niagara victory for the British?

**Question 2**

Which battle outside Quebec City was lost by the British in 1760?

**Question 3**

What a victory for thwarting the efforts of the French aid ships.

**Question 4**

Who did Montcalm defeat in Quebec?

**Question 5**

Who won Montcalm in Montreal?

**Question 6**

What was the meaninglessness of the Forth Niagara victory for the British?

**Question 7**

Which battle outside Quebec City was lost by the British in 1706?

**Question 8**

Which battle inside Quebec City was lost by the British in 1760?

**Text number 41**

In September 1760, and before hostilities began, Governor Vaudreuil negotiated a surrender from Montreal with General Amherst. Amherst agreed to Vaudreuil's request that all French residents remaining in the colony be given the freedom to worship in the Roman Catholic tradition, the ownership of property and the right to live in peace in their homes. The British provided medical treatment for sick and wounded French soldiers, and French regulars were returned to France on British ships, with the agreement that they would no longer serve in the current war.

**Question 0**

Who negotiated the surrender of Montreal in September 1760?

**Question 1**

What requests were made to the United Kingdom?

**Question 2**

Which British general negotiated in Montreal?

**Question 3**

Who negotiated the surrender of Montreal in September 1706?

**Question 4**

Who negotiated the September 1760 war from Montreal?

**Question 5**

What requests were made of the British?

**Question 6**

Which British general negotiated in Toronto?

**Question 7**

Which French general negotiated in Montreal?

**Text number 42**

The North American War officially ended with the signing of the Treaty of Paris on 10 February 1763, and in the European theatre of the Seven Years' War, the war ended with the Treaty of Hubertusburg on 15 February 1763. The British offered France a choice between surrendering its holdings east of the Mississippi on the North American continent or the British-occupied Caribbean islands of Guadeloupe and Martinique. France chose to give up the former, but was able to negotiate Saint-Pierre and Miquelon, two small islands in the Gulf of Saint-Lawrence, and fishing rights in the area. France considered that sugar cane from the Caribbean islands was economically more valuable and more defensible than fur from the mainland. The contemporaneous French philosopher Voltaire disparagingly called Canada just a few hectares of snow. The English, on the other hand, were happy to take New France because defending their North American colonies would no longer be a problem and because they already had plenty of places to get their sugar from. Spain, which traded Florida to Britain to get Cuba back, also received Louisiana and New Orleans from France to compensate for its losses. Britain and Spain also agreed that shipping on the Mississippi River would be open to ships of all nations.

**Question 0**

When did the French and Indian War in North America end?

**Question 1**

When was the European part of the Seven Years' War concluded?

**Question 2**

What alternatives did the French have to giving up the country?

**Question 3**

Why did France decide to abandon the continent?

**Question 4**

When did the French and Indian War in North America begin?

**Question 5**

When did the French and Indian War in South America end?

**Question 6**

When was the European part of the Six Years' War concluded?

**Question 7**

When did the European part of the Seven Years' War end?

**Question 8**

Why did France decide to give up any continental land?

**Text number 43**

Britain took over French Canada and Acadia, which were home to some 80 000 mainly French-speaking Roman Catholic inhabitants. The expulsion of the Acadians, which began in 1755, led to the land being freed up for settlers from Europe and from settlements further south. The British resettled many Acadians in various parts of their North American provinces, but many went to France and some to New Orleans, which they had expected to remain French. Some were sent to settle places as diverse as French Guiana and the Falkland Islands; these latter attempts were unsuccessful. Others moved to places like Saint-Domingue and fled to New Orleans after the Haitian Revolution. The Louisiana population contributed to the establishment of the modern Cajun population (the French word "Acadien" evolved into "Cadien", then "Cajun").

**Question 0**

How many French immigrants did the British receive?

**Question 1**

When were the Acadians expelled?

**Question 2**

Where did the British settle many Acadians?

**Question 3**

While some Acadians left for France and other countries, to which North American city did many move?

**Question 4**

How many French immigrants did the British not get?

**Question 5**

How many French immigrants did the British lose?

**Question 6**

When were Canadians deported?

**Question 7**

Where did the British kill many Acadians?

**Question 8**

While some Acadians left for France and other countries, which North American city did many not move to?

**Text number 44**

Following the treaty, King George III issued the Royal Proclamation of 1763 on October 7, 1763, which outlined the division and administration of the newly conquered territory and which to some extent still guides relations between the present Canadian government and First Nations people. Its provisions included the reservation of lands west of the Appalachians for the Indian population, which was at best a temporary barrier to the rising tide of settlers to the west. The Proclamation also contained provisions that prevented Roman Catholics from becoming citizens of Canada. When adjustments were made to the Quebec Act in 1774 to address this and other problems, religious concerns arose in the largely Protestant thirteen colonies about the advance of the "pope"; the Act preserved French civil law, including the seigneurial system, a medieval provision that the French Revolution abolished in France soon within a generation.

**Question 0**

Who issued the Royal Proclamation in 1763?

**Question 1**

What was the aim of the Royal Proclamation of 1763?

**Question 2**

What land was reserved for the natives?

**Question 3**

Who never issued the Royal Proclamation of 1763?

**Question 4**

Who issued the Royal Proclamation in 1736?

**Question 5**

What was the aim of the Royal Proclamation of 1736?

**Question 6**

What land was not reserved for the natives?

**Question 7**

Which countries were reserved for the French?

**Text number 45**

For many indigenous peoples, the loss of French power in North America meant the loss of a strong ally and counterweight to British expansion, which eventually led to their dispossession. Ohio land was particularly vulnerable to legal and illegal settlement, as Braddock and Forbes built military roads in the area. While the seizure of Louisiana from Spain (which was not completed until 1769) had modest consequences, the seizure of Florida by Britain had limited consequences, leading to the westward migration of tribes unwilling to trade with the British, and to increased tensions between the Choctaw and Creek tribes, who were historic enemies and whose differences were occasionally exploited by Britain. The change of power in Florida also caused most of its Catholic population to leave. Most left for Cuba, including the entire protocols of the St. Augustine government, although some Christianized members of the Yamasee tribe were resettled on the Mexican coast.

**Question 0**

What did the defeat mean for France?

**Question 1**

What made Ohio County vulnerable?

**Question 2**

When was the Spanish takeover of Louisiana completed?

**Question 3**

Which indigenous people were displaced by the British coup in Florida?

**Question 4**

Where did many Spanish Catholics move to after the British invasion of Florida?

**Question 5**

Where did no Spanish Catholics move to after the British coup in Florida?

**Question 6**

What made Ohio County safe?

**Question 7**

When was the Spanish takeover of Louisiana incomplete?

**Question 8**

What indigenous people were displaced by the British invasion of Georgia?

**Question 9**

What did the victory mean for France?

**Document number 476**

**Text number 0**

Ancient philosophers used the concept of force to study stationary and moving objects and simple machines, but thinkers like Aristotle and Archimedes made fundamental mistakes in understanding force. This was partly because they had a poor understanding of frictional force, which was sometimes not obvious, and so their understanding of the nature of natural motion was incomplete. The fundamental error was the belief that force was required to maintain motion, even at constant speed. Most of the earlier misconceptions about motion and force were eventually corrected by Galileo Galilei and Sir Isaac Newton. Thanks to his mathematical insight, Sir Isaac Newton formulated laws of motion that would not be improved for nearly 300 years. By the early 20th century, Einstein had developed a theory of relativity that correctly predicted the effects of forces on objects whose momenta increase close to the speed of light, and also provided information on the forces caused by gravity and inertia.

**Question 0**

What concept did ancient philosophers use to study simple machines?

**Question 1**

What was the belief that it took strength to maintain the movement?

**Question 2**

Who had the mathematical insight?

**Question 3**

How long did it take to improve Sir Isaac Newton's laws of motion?

**Question 4**

Who developed the theory of relativity?

**Question 5**

Who used the ancient concept to study stationary and moving objects?

**Question 6**

Something that is considered a non-fundamental error is the belief that it takes strength to maintain what?

**Question 7**

Who corrected most of the earlier notions of movement and force?

**Question 8**

Sir Galileo Galilei corrected earlier misconceptions about what?

**Question 9**

Who formulated the laws of motion, which have not been improved for nearly three thousand years?

**Text number 1**

With modern insights from quantum mechanics and the technology to accelerate particles to near the speed of light, particle physics has developed a standard model to describe the forces between subatomic particles. The standard model predicts that exchanged particles, called mittabosons, are the fundamental means by which the forces are emitted and damped. Only four main interactions are known: in order of decreasing strength: strong, electromagnetic, weak and gravitational. 2-10:79 Observations of high-energy particle physics in the 1970s and 1980s confirmed that the weak and electromagnetic forces are manifestations of the more fundamental electroweak interaction.

**Question 0**

What has particle physics done to describe subatomic forces?

**Question 1**

What are the exchanged particles predicted by the standard model?

**Question 2**

What is the strongest main interaction?

**Question 3**

What is the weakest main interaction?

**Question 4**

What are weak and electromagnetic forces?

**Question 5**

What can slow particles down to near the speed of light?

**Question 6**

Particle physics has created a unique model to describe what?

**Question 7**

A unique model predicts that exchanged particles are fundamental means by which?

**Question 8**

How many of the most important interactions are not known?

**Text number 2**

Aristotle introduced the philosophical discussion of the concept of force as an integral part of Aristotelian cosmology. In Aristotle's view, the terrestrial sphere contained four elements resting in its various 'natural places'. Aristotle believed that the immovable objects of the Earth, consisting mainly of the elements earth and water, were in their natural place on the Earth and that they would remain there if left alone. He distinguished between the natural tendency of objects to find their 'natural place' (e.g. the falling of heavy objects), which led to 'natural motion', and unnatural or forced motion, which required the constant application of force. This theory, based on everyday experience of how objects move, such as the constant application of force required to keep a cart in motion, had conceptual difficulties explaining projectile behaviour such as the flight of arrows. The point at which the archer moved the projectile was at the beginning of flight, and when the projectile sailed through the air, there was no discernible effective cause. Aristotle was aware of this problem and proposed that the air displacing the projectile on its journey carried the projectile to its destination. This explanation implies an air-like continuum for the change of position in general.

**Question 0**

Who suggested the power of philosophical debate?

**Question 1**

What was the concept of power an integral part of?

**Question 2**

How many elements did Aristotle believe the Earth was made of?

**Question 3**

Where did Aristotle believe the elements of earth and water had a natural place?

**Question 4**

What did Aristotle mean by forced movement?

**Question 5**

Who introduced the debate on the concept of time, which is an essential part of Aristotelian cosmology?

**Question 6**

How many elements did Galileo think there were in the Earth?

**Question 7**

Aristotle believed that objects in motion on Earth would stay in motion if what?

**Question 8**

Who suggested that water displaced by a projectile on its way to its target carries the projectile to its target?

**Text number 3**

The shortcomings of Aristotelian physics were not fully remedied until the 17th century by Galileo Galilei, who was inspired by the late medieval idea that objects in forced motion had an innate impetus. Galileo conducted an experiment in which stones and cannonballs were rolled downwards to disprove the Aristotelian theory of motion in the early 17th century. He showed that gravity accelerated objects to a degree independent of their mass, and argued that objects maintain their speed unless they are subjected to a force such as friction.

**Question 0**

When were Aristotle's shortcomings in physics corrected?

**Question 1**

Whose work corrected Aristotle's physics in the 17th century?

**Question 2**

What did objects in forced movement contain, according to the late medieval view that influenced Aristotle?

**Question 3**

Who tried rolling rocks and cannonballs down a steep slope?

**Question 4**

What force acts on the objects to slow down their speed?

**Question 5**

The shortcomings of Aristotelian physics were not corrected until the 1500s - by whom?

**Question 6**

Who was inspired by early medieval ideas?

**Question 7**

Who built an experiment where rocks and stones were rolled down a slope?

**Question 8**

Who said that objects maintain their speed even when a force is applied to them?

**Text number 4**

According to Newton's first law of motion, objects move continuously at a constant speed unless they are subjected to a net external force or resultant force. This law is an extension of Galileo's insight that constant velocity is associated with the absence of net force (see below for a more detailed description). Newton proposed that every object with mass has an inherent inertia, which acts as a fundamental 'natural state' of equilibrium instead of the Aristotelian idea of 'natural rest'. In other words, the first law contradicts the intuitive Aristotelian notion that a net force is needed to keep an object moving at a constant speed. By making rest physically indistinguishable from rest and non-zero constant velocity, Newton's First Law directly links the concepts of inertia and relative velocity. In particular, in systems where objects move at different speeds, it is impossible to determine which object is 'in motion' and which is 'at rest'. In other words, in technical terms, the laws of physics are the same in every inertial reference frame, i.e. in all frames related to each other by the Galilean transformation.

**Question 0**

According to whose first law of motion do objects continue to move at a constant speed unless they are subjected to forces?

**Question 1**

Which of Galileo's insights had to do with constant speed?

**Question 2**

Who suggested that innate intertiality is the natural state of objects?

**Question 3**

What law links relative velocities and inertia?

**Question 4**

What are Galileo's laws of physics for objects in motion and at rest?

**Question 5**

What does Newton's second law of motion say?

**Question 6**

Which belief is in conflict with another law?

**Question 7**

Whose law made rest a physically indistinguishable zero constant speed?

**Question 8**

Which laws are different in each inertial reference frame?

**Text number 5**

For example, when you are travelling in a moving vehicle at a constant speed, the laws of physics do not change from rest. A person can throw a ball straight up in the air and catch it as it falls down, without worrying about the force being applied in the direction of motion of the vehicle. This is true even if another person observing a vehicle passing a moving vehicle also observes the ball traveling in a curved parabolic path in the same direction as the vehicle's motion. The inertia of the ball, associated with its constant velocity in the direction of vehicle motion, ensures that the ball will continue to move forward even if it is thrown up and dropped back down. From the point of view of the person in the car, the vehicle and everything inside it is at rest: the outside world is moving at constant speed in the opposite direction. Since there is no test to distinguish whether the vehicle is at rest or the outside world is at rest, the two situations are considered physically indistinguishable. Inertia therefore applies equally well to constant-speed motion as to rest.

**Question 0**

What does not change from rest to movement at constant speed?

**Question 1**

What is the path of a ball thrown up and down in a moving vehicle when seen by an outside observer?

**Question 2**

What is the state of things inside a moving vehicle from the point of view of the person inside the vehicle?

**Question 3**

Which is as true for constant speed movement as it is for rest.

**Question 4**

The laws of physics change from being at rest when travelling to what?

**Question 5**

From whose point of view is the vehicle and everything inside it at rest?

**Question 6**

There are plenty of tests to distinguish whether a vehicle is at rest or what?

**Question 7**

What two things are considered physically separable?

**Text number 6**

The concept of inertia can be further generalised to explain the tendency of bodies to continue to move in many different forms, even those that are not strictly constant velocity. It is the rotational inertia of the Earth-planet that determines the persistence of the length of the day and year. Albert Einstein extended the inertia principle further by explaining that reference frames subject to a constant acceleration of acceleration, such as those falling freely towards a gravitational object, correspond to physically inertial reference frames. This is why, for example, astronauts experience weightlessness when free-falling in Earth orbit and therefore Newton's laws of motion are more easily observed in such environments. If an astronaut places an object of mass in the air next to him or her, it will remain stationary relative to the astronaut due to its inertia. The same would happen if the astronaut and the object were in intergalactic space, where there would be no gravitational pull on their common frame of reference. This equivalence principle was one of the fundamental starting points for the development of general relativity.

**Question 0**

Which concept explains why objects continue to move?

**Question 1**

What makes the length of a day constant on Earth?

**Question 2**

Who explained that inertial frames of reference correspond to frames of reference subject to constant acceleration?

**Question 3**

What do astronauts experience in free fall?

**Question 4**

What was the basis for the development of general relativity?

**Question 5**

The concept of inertia can explain people's tendency to continue to what?

**Question 6**

The rotation of the planet Mars is what fixes what?

**Question 7**

Who explained that the frames of reference that are subject to a constant slowdown?

**Question 8**

What do astronauts experience when they are in free fall in Saturn's orbit?

**Text number 7**

Newton's second law states that acceleration is directly proportional to force and acceleration is inversely proportional to mass. Accelerations can be determined by kinematic measurements. However, although kinematics is well described by advanced physics framework analysis, there are still profound questions about the correct definition of mass. General relativity provides an equivalence between space-time and mass, but in the absence of a coherent theory of quantum gravity, it is unclear how or whether this relationship is relevant at the microscale. Newton's second law can be legitimately considered as a quantitative definition of mass by writing the law as an equation; in this case, the relative units of force and mass are fixed.

**Question 0**

What describes the relativity of acceleration to force and mass?

**Question 1**

What measurements are used to determine accelerations?

**Question 2**

What is the equivalence between mass and space-time?

**Question 3**

What is missing from quantum gravity theory?

**Question 4**

What are the units of mass and force according to Newton's second law in relation to the microscope?

**Question 5**

Newton's third law states that acceleration is directly proportional to what?

**Question 6**

Newton's third law states that acceleration is inversely proportional to what?

**Question 7**

The slowdown can be described by what?

**Question 8**

Special relativity provides equivalence between what?

**Text number 8**

Newton's third law is the result of applying symmetry to situations where forces are due to the presence of different bodies. The third law implies that all forces are interactions between different bodies,[Note 3] and therefore there is no unidirectional force or force acting on only one body. Whenever the first body exerts on the second body a force F, the second body exerts on the first body a force -F. F and -F are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction. This law is sometimes called the law of action and reaction, where F is 'action' and -F is 'reaction'. Effect and reaction are simultaneous:

**Question 0**

When forces are due to the presence of different objects, which law gives symmetry?

**Question 1**

Which law states that forces are interactions between objects?

**Question 2**

What kind of force does not exist according to Newton's third law?

**Question 3**

What is the equality of forces between two objects exerting a force on each other??

**Question 4**

Newton's fifth law is the result of applying symmetry to what?

**Question 5**

Newton's fifth law means that only some forces are interactions between whom?

**Question 6**

When the second object exerts a force F on the first object, what happens to the second object?

**Text number 9**

This means that in a closed particle system there are no internal forces that are not in equilibrium. In other words, the action-reaction force between two objects in a closed system does not cause acceleration of the centre of mass of the system. The particles only accelerate relative to each other, the system itself remains inertial. Alternatively, if an external force acts on the system, the centre of mass will experience an acceleration proportional to the magnitude of the external force divided by the mass of the system.:19-1

**Question 0**

What experiences acceleration when an external force is applied to the system?

**Question 1**

What kind of particle system has no unbalanced internal forces?

**Question 2**

What is the magnitude of the force divided when the external force is added?

**Question 3**

In an open particle system, there are no internal what?

**Question 4**

What is equilibrium in an open particle system?

**Question 5**

If an internal force is applied to the system, what happens at the centre of mass?

**Question 6**

Share sizes are slowing down only in relation to what?

**Text number 10**

Since forces are experienced as pushes or pulls, this can give an intuitive idea of how to describe forces. As with other physical concepts (e.g. temperature), an intuitive understanding of forces is quantified using precise functional definitions that are consistent with direct observations and compared to a standard measurement scale. Experiments will be conducted to show that laboratory measurements of forces are fully consistent with the conceptual definition of force provided by Newtonian mechanics.

**Question 0**

What do push and pull concepts offer to describe forces?

**Question 1**

What is used to quantify the intuitive understanding of forces?

**Question 2**

What provides a conceptual definition of power?

**Question 3**

How are laboratory measurements of forces determined?

**Question 4**

The force measurements taken in the laboratory are in total contradiction with what?

**Question 5**

What provides a conceptual definition of push and pull?

**Question 6**

What do Newtonian mechanisms mean?

**Question 7**

What is an example of a metaphysical concept?

**Text number 11**

The forces act in a certain direction, and their size depends on how strong the push or pull is. Because of these properties, forces are classified as "vector relations". This means that forces follow different mathematical rules from physical quantities that have no direction (scalar quantities). For example, when determining what happens when two forces act on the same object, both the magnitude and the direction of the two forces must be known in order to calculate the result. If both of these pieces of information are not known for either force, the situation is unclear. For example, if you know that two people are pulling the same rope with known forces, but you do not know which direction either is pulling, it is impossible to determine the acceleration of the rope. The two people may be pulling against each other, as in a tug-of-war situation, or the two people may be pulling in the same direction. In this simple one-dimensional example, it is impossible to decide whether the net force is obtained by adding the two forces together or subtracting one from the other. Combining forces into vectors avoids such problems.

**Question 0**

How are forces classified in terms of push and pull?

**Question 1**

Which physical quantities have no direction?

**Question 2**

How do you avoid problems when determining the forces on an object from two or more sources?

**Question 3**

If you don't know the magnitude and direction of the force on two objects, what would you call this situation?

**Question 4**

How do you determine the acceleration of a rope when two people are pulling it?

**Question 5**

What works without a specific direction?

**Question 6**

What size are they depending on how weak the push or pull is?

**Question 7**

What are classified as "vintage quantities"?

**Question 8**

What follows the same mathematical rules as physical quantities?

**Text number 12**

Historically, forces were first studied quantitatively in static equilibrium, where several forces cancel each other out. Such experiments demonstrate the crucially important property that forces are additive vector quantities: they have magnitude and direction. When two forces act on a point particle, the resulting force, the resultant (also called the net force), can be determined by following the parallel rule of vector addition: adding two vectors, represented by parallel sides, gives an equivalent resultant vector, equal in magnitude and direction to the cross direction of the parallel side. The magnitude of the resultant varies from the difference between the magnitudes of the two forces to their sum, depending on the angle between their directions of action. However, if the forces act on an extended body, the directions of action of these forces must also be determined in order to take account of their effects on the motion of the body.

**Question 0**

Under what circumstances were forces measured for the first time in history?

**Question 1**

What do forces have in terms of additive quantities?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the resulting force when two forces act on a particle?

**Question 3**

When forces are applied to an extended object, what is needed to account for the effects of motion?

**Question 4**

What geometric form is used in the equations to determine the net force?

**Question 5**

What happens when three forces are applied to a point particle?

**Question 6**

What is also called nut force?

**Question 7**

The magnitude of the resultant varies according to the similarity of what?

**Question 8**

What needs to be specified to take account of their effects on head movements?

**Text number 13**

The forces can not only be added together, but also broken down into independent components that are perpendicular to each other. The horizontal force in the north-east can therefore be split into two forces, one pointing north and one pointing east. When these component forces are added together by adding the vectors, the original force is obtained. Dividing force vectors into components of a set of fundamental vectors is often a mathematically cleaner way of describing forces than using magnitudes and directions. This is because, for orthogonal components, the components of the vector sum are uniquely determined by scalar summation of the components of the individual vectors. The orthogonal components are independent of each other because the forces acting at ninety degrees to each other do not affect the magnitude or direction of each other. The set of orthogonal basis vectors is often chosen by considering which set of basis vectors makes the mathematics most convenient. It is desirable to choose a basis vector that is parallel to one of the forces, because then the force in question would have only one non-zero component. Orthogonal force vectors can be three-dimensional, in which case the third component is perpendicular to the other two.

**Question 0**

When forces are at right angles to each other, where can they be divided?

**Question 1**

If the force points horizontally to the north-east, how many forces can the force be divided into?

**Question 2**

What do you get when you calculate the sum of the forces by adding the vectors?

**Question 3**

What are the independent components of the vector sum determined by scalar summation of individual vectors?

**Question 4**

What can orthogonal forces be when there are three components, two of which are at right angles to each other?

**Question 5**

What forces can be reduced, but also reduced?

**Question 6**

The vertical force in the north-east can be divided into how many forces?

**Question 7**

What produces non-original power?

**Question 8**

Orthogonal force vectors can be four-dimensional by what?

**Text number 14**

A push against an object on a friction surface can result in a situation where the object does not move, because the applied force is resisted by static friction between the object and the table surface. In a situation where there is no motion, the static frictional force exactly balances the applied force, resulting in no acceleration. Static friction increases or decreases under the applied force up to an upper limit determined by the characteristics of the contact between the surface and the object.

**Question 0**

What can stop an object from moving when it is pushed on the surface?

**Question 1**

What is created between the surface and the object being pushed?

**Question 2**

What force balances the static friction when the object is not moving on the surface?

**Question 3**

What causes static friction to rise or fall in response to the contact properties between an object and its surface?

**Question 4**

What can happen when an object is pulled on a friction surface?

**Question 5**

When does an object move because the applied force is resisted by static friction?

**Question 6**

What increases or decreases under the effect of friction?

**Question 7**

What is increased or decreased by static friction?

**Text number 15**

Static balance between two forces is the most common way to measure forces using simple devices such as scales and spring balances. For example, for an object suspended vertically from a spring balance, the gravitational force acting on the object is balanced by a force equal to the weight of the object, called the 'spring reaction force'. Such tools were used to discover some quantitative laws of force: gravity is proportional to volume when the density of bodies is constant (this law was widely used for millennia to define standard weights); Archimedes' principle for buoyancy; Archimedes' analysis of leverage; Boyle's law for gas pressure; and Hooke's law for springs. These were all formulated and experimentally verified before Isaac Newton proposed the three laws of motion.

**Question 0**

What can be measured between two forces on a balance and a spring balance using static equilibrium?

**Question 1**

In addition to gravity, what force acts on an object suspended from a spring?

**Question 2**

What is the spring reaction force exerted on an object suspended under a spring reaction force?

**Question 3**

Objects of constant density are related to volume by what force are standard weights determined?.

**Question 4**

Who proposed the three laws of motion?

**Question 5**

What is static equilibrium between three sources?

**Question 6**

Complex instruments, such as scales, are used to measure what?

**Question 7**

An object suspended horizontally from a spring balance experiences what force?

**Question 8**

All quantitative powerhouses were found using what?

**Text number 16**

Dynamic equilibrium was first described by Galileo, who noticed that certain assumptions of Aristotelian physics were at odds with observation and logic. Galileo realised that a simple increase in velocity implied that the concept of 'absolute rest' did not exist. Galileo concluded that motion at a constant speed was equivalent to absolute rest. This was contrary to Aristotle's notion of "natural rest", which bodies of mass naturally approach. Simple experiments showed that Galileo's conception of the equivalence between constant velocity and rest was correct. For example, if a sailor dropped a cannonball from the crow's nest of a ship moving at a constant speed, Aristotelian physics would predict that the cannonball would fall straight down as the ship moved underneath it. In the Aristotelian universe, the falling cannonball would therefore land behind the foot of the mast of the moving ship. However, when this experiment is actually carried out, the cannonball always falls at the foot of the mast, as if the cannonball knows it is going with the ship, even though it is away from it. Since there is no forward horizontal force on the cannonball as it falls, the only remaining conclusion is that the cannonball continues to move at the same speed as the ship as it falls. Therefore, no force is needed to keep the cannonball moving at a constant forward speed.

**Question 0**

Who was the first to describe dynamic equilibrium?

**Question 1**

What does the movement at constant speed correspond to?

**Question 2**

Who had the idea of the natural state of objects at rest?

**Question 3**

According to Aristotle, where does a cannonball dropped from a ship's crow's nest land?

**Question 4**

Where does a cannonball dropped from a ship's crow's nest actually land?

**Question 5**

What kind of equilibrium was first described by Aristotle?

**Question 6**

What physics observations and logic did not contradict?

**Question 7**

In what universe would a falling cannonball land in front of the mast of a moving ship?

**Question 8**

Who concluded that motion at a constant speed is perfectly equivalent to motion?

**Text number 17**

A simple case of dynamic equilibrium is a constant speed motion on a surface with kinetic friction. In such a situation, a force is applied in the direction of motion, while the kinetic frictional force is exactly opposite to the applied force. As a result, the net force is zero, but because the object started moving at a non-zero velocity, it continues to move at a non-zero velocity. Aristotle interpreted this motion as being caused by an incorrectly applied force. However, when kinetic friction is taken into account, it is clear that net force does not cause constant velocity motion.

**Question 0**

What happens when you travel across a surface at a constant speed with respect to friction?

**Question 1**

What directly opposes the force of moving an object across a surface?

**Question 2**

What must be taken into account for the absence of net force to cause a constant speed movement?

**Question 3**

Who thought that an applied force caused an object to move regardless of its non-zero speed?

**Question 4**

What is the equilibrium in a variable speed movement?

**Question 5**

What keeps moving at zero speed?

**Question 6**

What started at zero speed?

**Question 7**

There is a lot of net power, given what?

**Text number 18**

The concept of "force" retains its meaning in quantum mechanics, even though operators are now used instead of classical variables, and even though physics is now described by the Schrödinger equation instead of Newton's equations. As a consequence, measurement results are now sometimes 'quantized', i.e. they appear as discrete parts. This is of course difficult to imagine in the context of "forces". However, potentials V(x,y,z) or fields, from which forces can usually be derived, are treated in the same way as classical position variables, i.e. .

**Question 0**

Which equation currently describes the physics of force.

**Question 1**

Which equation described the physics of force before the current Schrödinger equation?

**Question 2**

How are forces derived from fields treated in the same way as?

**Question 3**

What measurements are obtained in the Schrodinger equations when operators are used instead of Newtonian variables?

**Question 4**

Which concept retains its meaning through both Netonian and Schrodinger's physics equations?

**Question 5**

Which concept does not retain its meaning in quantum mechanics?

**Question 6**

What concept makes us deal with classical variables instead of operators?

**Question 7**

What do Newton's equations now describe?

**Question 8**

What was previously described by Schrödinger's equation?

**Text number 19**

However, already in quantum mechanics there is one "caveat", namely that particles interacting with each other not only have a spatial variable, but also a discrete angular momentum-like variable called "spin", and there is a Pauli principle that links the spatial and spin variables. Depending on the value of spin, identical particles fall into two different classes, fermions and bosons. If two identical fermions (e.g. electrons) have a symmetric spin function (e.g. parallel spins), the spatial variables must be antisymmetric (i.e. they exclude each other from their positions as if there were a repulsive force), and vice versa, i.e. for antiparallel spins, the spatial variables must be symmetric (i.e. the apparent force must be attractive). Thus, for two fermions, there is a strictly negative correlation between the spatial and spin variables, whereas for two bosons (e.g. electromagnetic wave quanta, photons) the correlation is strictly positive.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the intrisic angle variable when particles interact with each other?

**Question 1**

What is the principle behind the relation between spin and space variables?

**Question 2**

On what value does the separation into fermions and bosons depend?

**Question 3**

If the apparent force of two fermions is attractive, what is the spin function?

**Question 4**

If the apparent force of two fermions is repulsive, what is the spin function?

**Question 5**

Identical particles fall into two different categories depending on what is formed?

**Question 6**

If three identical fermions have symmetric spin, the space variables must be what?

**Question 7**

When is the correlation occasionally positive?

**Question 8**

When is the correlation sometimes negative?

**Text number 20**

In modern particle physics, forces and particle acceleration are explained as a mathematical by-product of the exchange of momentum-carrying gauge positrons. With the development of quantum field theory and general relativity, it was discovered that force is a redundant concept due to conservation of momentum (4-momentum in relativity and momentum of virtual particles in quantum electrodynamics). Conservation of momentum can be directly derived from the homogeneity or symmetry of space, and is therefore generally considered more fundamental than the concept of force. Thus, the fundamental forces known today are more accurately regarded as 'fundamental interactions'.:199-128 When particle A emits (gives rise to) or absorbs (annihilates) a virtual particle B, conservation of momentum leads to recoil of particle A, which causes a repulsion or attraction effect between particles A and A' exchanged by B. This description applies to all forces arising from basic interactions. Although complex mathematical descriptions are needed to predict the exact outcome of such interactions in detail, there is a conceptually simple way to describe such interactions using Feynman diagrams. In a Feynman diagram, each particle of matter is represented as a straight line (see world line) through time, usually increasing upwards or to the right in the diagram. The matter and antimatter particles are identical except for their direction of propagation in the Feynman diagram. The world lines of the particles intersect at the interaction peaks, and the Feynman diagram shows the interaction force occurring at the peak and the associated instantaneous change in the direction of the particle world lines. The gauge bosons are emitted away from the point as wavy lines, and in the case of virtual particle exchange they are absorbed at an adjacent point.

**Question 0**

How can the forces and accelerations of particles be explained by the exchange of mittabosons?

**Question 1**

What is the concept of redundancy that comes from maintaining the amount of traffic?

**Question 2**

What is more fundamental than force in quantum field theory?

**Question 3**

What diagrams are used to simplify particle interactions at a basic level?

**Question 4**

What are the lines in Feynman's diagram for particles of matter?

**Question 5**

What can be implicitly deduced from spatial symmetry?

**Question 6**

What is considered less fundamental than the concept of force?

**Question 7**

What are less strictly considered "fundamental interactions"?

**Question 8**

In whose diagram is each particle of matter shown as a curved line?

**Text number 21**

All the forces of the universe are based on four fundamental interactions. The strong and weak forces are nuclear forces that act only over very short distances, and are responsible for interactions between subatomic particles such as nucleons and nuclei. The electromagnetic force acts between electric charges, and the gravitational force acts between masses. All other natural forces are the result of these four fundamental interactions. For example, friction is a manifestation of the electromagnetic force between atoms on two surfaces and the Pauli exclusion principle, which prevents atoms from passing through each other. Similarly, the forces in springs, modelled by Hooke's law, are the result of electromagnetic forces and the exclusion principle acting together to return a body to its equilibrium position. Centrifugal forces are acceleration forces that arise simply from the acceleration of rotating reference frames.:12-11:359

**Question 0**

How many interactions are all universal forces based on?

**Question 1**

Which nuclear power plants only have an impact over short distances?

**Question 2**

What is the force acting between the electric charges?

**Question 3**

In between what does gravity affect?

**Question 4**

What prevents atoms from passing through each other?

**Question 5**

Where are all forces based on three fundamental interactions?

**Question 6**

How many fundamental interactions underlie most of the forces in the universe?

**Question 7**

What forces act over very long distances?

**Question 8**

What forces are responsible for the interactions between atomic particles?

**Text number 22**

The development of the fundamental theories of forces proceeded by bringing together different ideas. For example, Isaac Newton combined the force of falling objects on the Earth's surface and the force of the orbits of celestial bodies in his theory of gravity. Michael Faraday and James Clerk Maxwell showed that electric and magnetic forces were combined in a single unified theory of electromagnetism. In the 20th century, advances in quantum mechanics led to the modern understanding that the first three fundamental forces (all but gravity) are manifestations of matter (fermions) that interact with each other by exchanging virtual particles called gauge pons. The Standard Model of particle physics predicts that the forces are similar, and this led scientists to predict the combination of weak and electromagnetic forces using the electroweak theory, which was later confirmed by observations. The complete formulation of the Standard Model predicts the as yet undetected Higgs mechanism, but observations such as neutrino oscillations show that the Standard Model is incomplete. A grand unified theory, which would allow the combination of electroweak interactions and a strong force, is considered possible, and theoretical candidates such as supersymmetry are proposed to solve some of the unsolved problems in physics. Physicists continue to develop self-consistent combinatorial models that would combine all four fundamental interactions into a theory of everything. Einstein tried and failed in this attempt, but currently the most popular approach to this question is string theory.:212-219

**Question 0**

Who created the universal theory of gravity?

**Question 1**

In which century was quantum mechanics made?

**Question 2**

What kind of self-consistent models are physicists trying to make that could be used to create a theory of everything?

**Question 3**

What model of physics did Einstein leave out?

**Question 4**

What went on in the line of unifying similar ideas?

**Question 5**

Who combined the force responsible for the atoms falling to Earth?

**Question 6**

Who showed that electric and magnetic forces were combined by two consistent theories?

**Question 7**

What did the development of quantum mechanics lead to in the 19th century?

**Text number 23**

What we now call gravity was only recognised as a universal force with the work of Isaac Newton. Before Newton, it was not understood that the tendency of objects to fall towards Earth was related to the motion of celestial bodies. Galileo helped describe the properties of falling bodies by noting that the acceleration of any free-falling body was constant and independent of the mass of the body. Today, this gravitational acceleration towards the Earth's surface is commonly referred to as the acceleration rate, and is about 9.81 metres per second per square metre (this measurement is taken from sea level and may vary depending on location), pointing towards the centre of the Earth. This observation means that the gravitational force exerted on a body at the Earth's surface is directly proportional to the mass of the body. Thus, an object with a mass of , is subject to a force:

**Question 0**

Who defined gravity as a force?

**Question 1**

Who invented the concept that falling objects fall at the same speed regardless of weight?

**Question 2**

How fast do objects fall on Earth?

**Question 3**

Where was the Earth's constant gravity measured?

**Question 4**

What is the mass of an object on the Earth's surface proportional to?

**Question 5**

What was not considered a universal force until Galileo's work?

**Question 6**

Newton was instrumental in describing the properties of falling what?

**Question 7**

What is the intensity of about 8.81 metres per second squared?

**Question 8**

What was identified as the universal force after Galileo's work?

**Text number 24**

Newton realised that the effects of gravity might be perceived differently at greater distances. In particular, Newton found that the acceleration of the Moon around the Earth could be attributed to the same gravitational force if the acceleration due to gravity decreases according to the inverse square law. Newton also realised that the acceleration due to gravity is proportional to the mass of the attracting object. Combining these ideas gives a formula that relates the Earth's mass () and radius () to gravitational acceleration:

**Question 0**

How could the effects of gravity be observed differently according to Newton?

**Question 1**

What could be caused by the acceleration of gravity around the Earth?

**Question 2**

What is the acceleration of gravity proportional to?

**Question 3**

In addition to the acceleration due to gravity and the mass of the Earth, what is included in the formula for rotation around the Earth?

**Question 4**

Who realised that the effects of gravity can be detected differently at shorter distances?

**Question 5**

Newton said that the acceleration of the Earth around the Moon represents what?

**Question 6**

Who realised that the deceleration of gravity is proportional to mass?

**Question 7**

Newton realised that the deceleration of gravity was proportional to what?

**Text number 25**

In this equation, the relative strength of gravity is described by the dimensional constant. This constant is known as Newton's universal gravitational constant, although its value was not known in Newton's lifetime. It was not until 1798 that Henry Cavendish was able to make the first measurement using a torsion balance; this was widely reported in the press as a measurement of the mass of the Earth because it allowed the mass of the Earth to be solved using the above equation. However, Newton realised that since all celestial bodies obeyed the same laws of motion, his gravity formula must be universal. In short, Newton's law of gravitation states that the force on the mass of a spherical body due to the gravitational attraction of the mass is as follows

**Question 0**

What is used to calculate the relative force of gravity?

**Question 1**

Who first measured the value of Newton's universal gravitational constant?

**Question 2**

When was the value of Newton's universal gravitational constant first measured?

**Question 3**

Who invented that his gravity formula had to be universal?

**Question 4**

What is used to describe the weakness of gravity?

**Question 5**

Whose value was known in Newton's life?

**Question 6**

Who realised that only some celestial bodies obeyed the same laws of motion?

**Question 7**

What does Cavendish's law of gravity say?

**Text number 26**

Only the orbit of the planet Mercury did not seem to be fully explained by Newton's law of gravity. Some astrophysicists predicted the existence of another planet (Vulcan) to explain the discrepancies; however, despite some early indications, no such planet was found. When Albert Einstein formulated his general theory of relativity (GR), he turned his attention to the problem of Mercury's orbit and found that his theory added a correction that could explain the contradiction. This was the first time that Newton's theory of gravity had been shown to be less correct than an alternative.

**Question 0**

Which planet seemed to defy Newton's laws of gravity?

**Question 1**

Which planet did astrophysicists predict would explain Mercury's problems?

**Question 2**

Which theory explains the mercury problem?

**Question 3**

Who invented the theory of relativity?

**Question 4**

Who was the first to show that Newton's theory of gravity was not as correct as the second theory?

**Question 5**

Whose law did not explain Saturn's orbit?

**Question 6**

Who predicted the existence of many other planets?

**Question 7**

Which law was formulated by Albert Einstein?

**Question 8**

Planet Vulcan was predicted to explain what planet Saturn with?

**Text number 27**

Since then, and to date, general relativity has been recognised as the theory that best explains gravity. In GR, gravity is not considered as a force, but objects moving freely in a gravitational field travel under their own inertia in straight lines in curved space-time, defined as the shortest space-time path between two space-time events. From the point of view of the object, all motion occurs as if there were no gravity at all. Only when the motion is viewed globally can the curvature of space-time be observed and the force inferred from the curved path of motion of the object. Thus, a straight line in space-time is seen as a curved line in space, and is called the ballistic trajectory of the object. For example, a basketball thrown from the ground will move in a parabolic direction because it is in a flat gravitational field. Its spacetime trajectory (with an extra ct dimension added) is a nearly straight line that is slightly curved (the radius of curvature is on the order of a few light years). The time derivative of the changing momentum of the body is what we call the "gravitational force".

**Question 0**

Which theory best explains gravity?

**Question 1**

Which space-time path appears as a curved line in space?

**Question 2**

What is the derivative of the variable momentum of a body?

**Question 3**

In what sense do you need to observe the curvature of space-time?

**Question 4**

Which theory best describes gravity?

**Question 5**

What is considered a force in GR?

**Question 6**

A curved line path in space-time is seen as what kind of line in space?

**Question 7**

What describes objects that do not move freely?

**Text number 28**

By combining the definition of electric current with the rate of change of the electric charge over time, the rule of multiplication of vectors, called Lorentz's law, describes the force on a charge moving in a magnetic field. The connection between electricity and magnetism allows the description of a uniform electromagnetic force acting on a charge. This force can be written as the sum of the electrostatic (due to the electric field) and magnetic (due to the magnetic field) forces. Expressed in full, this is a law:

**Question 0**

What law defines the charge moving through a magnetic field?

**Question 1**

What is the rate of change of the electric charge over time?

**Question 2**

What magnetic and electric forces affect the charge?

**Question 3**

What are electrostatic and magnetic forces, written as a sum?

**Question 4**

What does Lorenzo's Law describe?

**Question 5**

The connection between energy and what allows a single electromagnetic force to act on a charge?

**Question 6**

What force describes Lorenzo's law?

**Question 7**

What is the law of addition of vectors?

**Text number 29**

The origin of electric and magnetic fields was not fully explained until 1864, when James Clerk Maxwell combined several earlier theories into 20 scalar equations, later reformulated by Oliver Heaviside and Josiah Willard Gibbs into four vector equations. These 'Maxwell's equations' perfectly described the sources of the fields, which were stationary and moving charges, and the interactions of the fields themselves. This led Maxwell to discover that electric and magnetic fields could be 'self-generated' by a wave travelling at what he calculated to be the speed of light. This insight combined the budding fields of electromagnetic theory and optics and led directly to a complete description of the electromagnetic spectrum.

**Question 0**

Who was the first to fully explain the origin of magnetic and electric fields?

**Question 1**

When were magnetic and electric fields created?

**Question 2**

How many scalar equations did James Maxwell form a series?

**Question 3**

How many vector equations did Heaviside and Gibbs transform Maxwell's 20 scalar equations into?

**Question 4**

Who invented that magnetic and electric can produce themselves?

**Question 5**

The origin of which would not be fully explained until 1964?

**Question 6**

Who separated several previous theories into a set of 20 scalar equations?

**Question 7**

What was later formulated as three vector equations?

**Question 8**

Who invented that electric and magnetic fields can be "self-aware"?

**Text number 30**

However, reconciling the electromagnetic theory with two observations, the photoelectric phenomenon and the absence of an ultraviolet catastrophe, proved difficult. Thanks to the work of leading theoretical physicists, a new theory of electromagnetism was developed using quantum mechanics. This final revision of electromagnetic theory eventually led to quantum electrodynamics (or QED), which describes all electromagnetic phenomena as being mediated entirely by wave particles called photons. In QED, photons are fundamental exchange particles that describe all interactions associated with electromagnetism, including the electromagnetic force[Note 4].

**Question 0**

What was so difficult about reconciling the photoelectric phenomenon and the disappearing ultraviolet catastrophe?

**Question 1**

What was used to create a new electromagnetic theory to reconcile the problems of electromagnetic theory?

**Question 2**

What did electromagnetic theory eventually lead to?

**Question 3**

What is the name given to the wave particles that transmit all electromagnetic phenomena?

**Question 4**

What does QED stand for?

**Question 5**

Where did the new theory using quantum particles come from?

**Question 6**

Which theory led to quantum electromagnetism?

**Question 7**

Where are the photons in the fundamental exchange photon?

**Question 8**

Quantum theory was used to develop a new theory of what?

**Text number 31**

It is a common misconception that the stiffness and rigidity of solid matter is due to the repulsion of similar charges by electromagnetic force. Since electrons are fermions, they cannot be in the same quantum mechanical state as other electrons. When the electrons in matter are tightly packed together, not all electrons have enough lower energy quantum mechanical states, so some of them must be in higher energy states. This means that it takes energy to pack them together. Although this effect manifests itself macroscopically as a structural force, it is technically only a consequence of the limited number of electron states.

**Question 0**

What is often misunderstood as the cause of material stiffness?

**Question 1**

What actually causes the rigidity of matter?

**Question 2**

What is needed to pack electrons tightly together?

**Question 3**

How does Paul's principle of exclusion manifest itself in the macro world?

**Question 4**

Because electrons are minions, they cannot be in the same where?

**Question 5**

When electrons are loosely packed, there is not enough what?

**Question 6**

What does not require energy to pack them together?

**Question 7**

When what is packed together loosely, isn't the lower energy enough?

**Text number 32**

Only elementary particles are directly affected by the strong force. However, the residual force is detectable between hadrons (the best known example is nuclear force, which acts between nucleons in atomic nuclei). In this case, the strong force acts indirectly and is transmitted in the form of gluons, which form part of the virtual pi and rho mesons that classically mediate nuclear force (see more on this topic). The failure of many searches for free quarks has shown that these elementary particles are not directly observable. This phenomenon is called colour confinement.

**Question 0**

What does the powerful force affect?

**Question 1**

What can you see between the hadrons?

**Question 2**

What is the force between nucleons?

**Question 3**

How is nuclear power transmitted?

**Question 4**

What is the term for the absence of detectable free quarks?

**Question 5**

The weak force only affects which particles?

**Question 6**

Which successful searches showed that elementary particles are not detectable?

**Question 7**

A remnant of what can be seen in front of the hadrons?

**Question 8**

What does weak power affect?

**Text number 33**

The weak force is due to the exchange of heavy W and Z bosons. Its best known effect is beta decay (the decay of neutrons in atomic nuclei) and the associated radioactivity. The word "weak" is derived from the fact that the field strength is about 1013 times smaller than the strong force. Yet it is stronger than gravity at short distances. A coherent electroweak theory has also been developed which shows that electromagnetic forces and weak forces are inseparable at temperatures above about 1015 kelvin. Such temperatures have been studied in modern particle accelerators and show the conditions of the universe at the beginning of the Big Bang.

**Question 0**

What does the exchange of the W and Z bosons do?

**Question 1**

What is the observable effect of the W and Z boson exchange?

**Question 2**

What is the effect of beta decay?

**Question 3**

How many times smaller is the strength of a weak field compared to a strong field?

**Question 4**

At what temperature do the weak and electromagnetic forces appear to be the same?

**Question 5**

The strong force is due to the exchange of which substance?

**Question 6**

Alpha decay is the best known effect of what force?

**Question 7**

Which force is weaker than gravity at short distances?

**Question 8**

What electro-electric theory has not been developed?

**Text number 34**

The normal force is due to repulsive forces resulting from the interaction between atoms in close contact. When their electron clouds overlap, Pauli repulsion ensues (due to the fermionic nature of the electrons), generating a force acting in the direction perpendicular to the surface interface between the two objects.93 For example, normal force is responsible for the structural integrity of desks and floors and is the force that reacts whenever an external force pushes a solid object. An example of the action of normal force is the impact force exerted on an object striking a stationary surface.

**Question 0**

What is the repulsive force of the close interaction of atoms?

**Question 1**

What happens when the electron clouds of different atoms overlap?

**Question 2**

What causes the Pauli collision?

**Question 3**

What is the force that causes the rigidity of structures?

**Question 4**

Which force is due to the interaction forces of gravity?

**Question 5**

What are the consequences of repulsion when atomic clouds overlap?

**Question 6**

What is an example of an abnormal force in action?

**Question 7**

An abnormal force is responsible for the structural integrity of what?

**Text number 35**

Tension forces can be modelled using ideal springs that are massless, frictionless, unbreakable and inelastic. They can be combined with ideal pulleys, which allow ideal springs to change physical direction. Ideal springs transmit tension forces instantaneously as action-reaction pairs, so that if two objects are connected by an ideal spring, the spring-directed force on the first object is accompanied by an opposing spring-directed force on the second object. When the same spring is connected several times to the same object using moving pulleys, the tension force on the load can be multiplied. For each string acting on the load, the load is affected by a second factor of the tension force in the string. Although such machines allow the force to be increased, the length of the spring to be moved to move the load increases accordingly. These interactions ultimately result in the conservation of mechanical energy, since the work applied to the load is the same no matter how complex the machine.

**Question 0**

What can be used to model tension forces?

**Question 1**

What do you use to make the idea strings change direction?

**Question 2**

How do springs of ideas transfer forces?

**Question 3**

What is the end result of adding more and more idea springs to the load?

**Question 4**

What can increase the pulling power of a load?

**Question 5**

What forces can be modelled by ideal friction springs?

**Question 6**

What forces can be modelled by ideal mass springs?

**Question 7**

What delayed forces are transmitted by ideal springs?

**Text number 36**

Newton's laws, and Newtonian mechanics in general, were first developed to describe how forces act on idealised point particles rather than three-dimensional objects. In real life, however, matter has a broader structure, and forces acting on one part of a body may affect other parts of the body. In situations where the lattice holding the atoms of an object together is able to flow, contract, expand or otherwise change shape, theories of continuum mechanics describe how forces affect the material. For example, in expanded fluids, pressure differentials cause forces to orient along pressure gradients as follows:

**Question 0**

What did Newtonian mechanics influence?

**Question 1**

What was not confirmed by Newtonian mechanics?

**Question 2**

In what kind of fluid are pressure differences due to the direction of forces across gradients?

**Question 3**

What can be affected by a force on one part of a body?

**Question 4**

What is there about matter that Newtonian mechanics does not cover?

**Question 5**

What does not have an extended structure?

**Question 6**

Which part of the object is not affected by the forces?

**Question 7**

In extended fluids, similar pressures mean that forces are exerted where?

**Question 8**

Whose mechanics influenced three-dimensional objects?

**Text number 37**

where is the cross-sectional area of the volume for which the stress tensor is calculated. This formalism includes pressure terms associated with forces acting perpendicular to the cross-sectional area (diagonals of the tensor matrix) and shear terms associated with forces acting parallel to the cross-sectional area (off-diagonal elements). The stress tensor takes into account the forces that cause all strains (deformations), including tensile stresses and compressions.:133-134:38-1-38-11

**Question 0**

What causes stress in structures?

**Question 1**

What is used to calculate the area of a cross-section from the volume of a piece?

**Question 2**

What is involved in normal forces?

**Question 3**

What are the pressure terms used to calculate surface area to volume?

**Question 4**

What does not cause stress in structures?

**Question 5**

What is involved in abnormal forces?

**Question 6**

What's the connection with horizontal forces?

**Question 7**

What is another term for diagonal elements?

**Text number 38**

Torque is the rotational equivalent of force in the same way that angle is the rotational equivalent of position, angular velocity is the angular velocity of velocity and angular velocity is the angular velocity of momentum. As a consequence of Newton's first law of motion, there is an inertia of rotation that ensures that all bodies will maintain their angular momentum unless subjected to an unbalanced torque. Similarly, Newton's second law of motion can be used to derive an analogous equation for the instantaneous angular acceleration of a rigid body:

**Question 0**

What is the force equivalent of torque compared to angular momentum?

**Question 1**

What would change the rotational inertia of a body according to Newton's first law of motion?

**Question 2**

What do you use to calculate the instantaneous angular acceleration of a rigid object?

**Question 3**

What inertia exists due to Newton's fourth law of motion?

**Question 4**

What is the equation for torque versus speed?

**Question 5**

What is the rotational speed equivalent of speed?

**Question 6**

Which of Newton's laws describes the rotation inertia equation?

**Text number 39**

where is the mass of the body, is the velocity of the body, is the distance to the centre of the circular path and is the unit vector pointing radially outwards from the centre. This means that the unbalanced centrifugal force felt by any object is always directed towards the centre of the curved path. Such forces act perpendicular to the velocity vector associated with the motion of the object and therefore do not change the velocity (magnitude of the velocity) of the object, but only the direction of the velocity vector. The unbalanced force that accelerates the object can be divided into a trajectory component that is perpendicular to the path and a trajectory component that is tangential to the path. This gives both a tangential force, which accelerates the object by either slowing or accelerating it, and a radial (centripetal) force, which changes its direction.

**Question 0**

Where does the centrifugal force go?

**Question 1**

How do centripetal forces interact with velocity vectors?

**Question 2**

What force changes the direction of travel of an object?

**Question 3**

What is another word for centrifugal force?

**Question 4**

What is responsible for speeding up or slowing down an object?

**Question 5**

What force changes the speed of the object?

**Question 6**

Where does centrifugal force come from?

**Question 7**

Which path changes the direction of the object?

**Question 8**

What does the balance force accelerate?

**Text number 40**

The conservative force acting on a closed system involves mechanical work, which allows energy to be converted only from one kinetic or potential form to another. This means that in a closed system, the net mechanical energy is conserved whenever the system is subject to a conservative force. The force is therefore directly related to the difference in potential energy between two different locations in space, and can be considered an artefact of the potential field in the same way that the direction and amount of water flow can be considered an artefact of an elevation map of a region.

**Question 0**

What is the only form that potential energy can take?

**Question 1**

What is the only form that kinetic energy can take?

**Question 2**

What is preserved in a closed force system when forces are applied to it?

**Question 3**

What does the force between two places have to do with?

**Question 4**

What is the force, called rgarding, between two places in a potential field?

**Question 5**

What is the mechanical work done by a free force acting on a closed system?

**Question 6**

What is the net mechanical energy in an open system?

**Question 7**

What cannot be considered an artefact of a potential field?

**Question 8**

The flow of water cannot be considered an artefact of what?

**Text number 41**

In certain physical scenarios, it is impossible to model the forces due to the gradient of potentials. This is often due to macro-physical considerations, whereby the forces are the result of the macroscopic statistical averaging of the microstates. For example, friction is due to a gradient of numerous electrostatic potentials between atoms, but manifests itself as a force pattern that is independent of any macroscale position vector. Non-conservative forces other than friction include other contact forces, tension, compression and attraction. In any sufficiently detailed description, however, all of these forces are the results of conservative forces, since each of these macroscopic forces is the net result of gradients of microscopic potentials.

**Question 0**

What is sometimes impossible to model?

**Question 1**

Why are some forces impossible to model?

**Question 2**

What do electrostatic gradient potentials create?

**Question 3**

Tension, compression and attraction are what forces?

**Question 4**

Forces can always be modelled as being caused by what?

**Question 5**

What do microphysical aspects produce?

**Question 6**

Friction is not due to what slope?

**Question 7**

What are the conservative forces?

**Text number 42**

The relationship between macroscopic non-conservative forces and microscopic conservative forces is described by discussing it in detail using statistical mechanics. In macroscopic closed systems, non-conservative forces change the internal energies of the system and are often related to heat transfer. According to the second law of thermodynamics, non-conservative forces necessarily lead to a change in energy in closed systems from an ordered state to a more random state as entropy increases.

**Question 0**

Where in the reading are non-conservative and conservative forces described?

**Question 1**

What changes the energies of a macroscopic closed system?

**Question 2**

What does heat exchange involve?

**Question 3**

What is the law of thermodynamics related to heat exchange in a closed system?

**Question 4**

What causes energy changes in a closed system?

**Question 5**

What do non-conservative forces do in macroscopic open systems?

**Question 6**

What are often associated with the cold transition?

**Question 7**

Conservative forces are often associated with the transfer of what?

**Question 8**

What doesn't change macroscopic closed systems?

**Text number 43**

A kilovolt has a metric equivalent, which is less commonly used than the newton: a kilovolt (kgf) (sometimes also kilopond) is the force exerted on a mass of one kilogram by a constant force. Kiloforce leads to an alternative, but rarely used, unit of mass: a metric slug (sometimes mug or hyl) is a mass that accelerates 1 m-s-2 when subjected to a force of 1 kgf. The kilo force is not part of the modern SI system and has generally fallen into disuse; however, it is still used for some purposes to express aircraft weight, jet thrust, bicycle cog wheel tension, torque wrench adjustments and engine output torque. Other mysterious units of force are sthène, equivalent to 1000 N, and kip, equivalent to 1000 lbf.

**Question 0**

What is a metric term that is used less than Newton?

**Question 1**

What is kilovoltage, sometimes called kilopower?

**Question 2**

What is the unit of mass very rarely used in the metric system?

**Question 3**

What is a rarely used term for a unit of force equivalent to 1000 pounds of force?

**Question 4**

What is the rarely used unit of force equivalent to one thousand newtons?

**Question 5**

What has no metric equivalent?

**Question 6**

What is the force exerted by normal gravity on a mass of one tonne?

**Question 7**

What force leads to the commonly used unit of mass?

**Question 8**

What force is included in the modern SI system?