Пособие представляет собой сборник тематических текстов на английском языке, взятых из оригинальной литературы о странах Азии и Африки, справочных изданий и интернет-источников. Сборник включает в себя следующие разделы: географическое положение и климат, народонаселение, государственное устройство, язык, образование в странах Азии и Африки.

В каждый раздел входит краткий учебный текст, лексические упражнения, оригинальные тексты для перевода и пересказа, тексты для перевода на английский язык и словарь-минимум по указанным темам.

Пособие предназначено для аудиторной работы со студентами II—IV курсов восточных факультетов.

ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Первое издание данного учебного пособия, созданного М.А.Шерешевской и Н.М.Эльяновой и изданного в 1969 году, прошло длительное испытание временем и доказало свою востребованность при обучении студентов-востоковедов английскому языку. Однако целый ряд сведений, касающихся как современных границ государств, так и их политического устройства, не говоря о приводимых в книге статистических данных, за прошедшие годы естественно устарели, что и потребовало значительной переработки всего корпуса текстов.

Учебное пособие «Страны Востока» предназначается для студентов восточных факультетов университетов и институтов иностранных языков, изучающих английский язык. Цель книги — развить разговорные навыки и подготовить студентов к чтению специальной литературы на английском языке, связанной с проблематикой стран Востока.

Пособие построено на основе оригинальных текстов, взятых из современной литературы о странах Азии и Африки, справочных изданий и интернет-источников. В первый выпуск вошли пять тематических разделов: географическое положение и климат, народонаселение, государственное устройство, язык, образование.

Каждый раздел включает базовый текст, упражнения для закрепления наиболее употребительных слов и словосочетаний, связанных с данной темой, и оригинальные английские тексты по отдельным странам.

Упражнения, сопровождающие каждый раздел, составляют два комплекса. Первый, предназначенный для работы в аудитории, направлен непосредственно на закрепление основной лексики учебного текста, представленной возможно большим числом лексикофразеологических единиц, характеризующих данную тему. Заключает весь комплекс задание на выполнение обратного перевода учебного текста. Данное контрольное упражнение предназначено для аудиторной проработки, устно или письменно. Второй комплекс (общие упражнения) включает короткие тематические тексты для перевода на русский и английский языки, а также для пересказа на английском языке. Этот комплекс ориентирован главным образом на расширение лексического запаса по обсуждаемым темам

В качестве завершающего этапа работы над каждой темой предполагается подготовка студентами сообщений (докладов) на английском языке (с последующим обсуждением), касающихся изучаемых ими конкретных стран Востока.

Е:.Г.Андреева

I. GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION. PHYSICAL FEATURES

GENERAL TEXTS

India

India is situated in the south of Asia between the Himalayas and the Indian Ocean. It occupies the Peninsula of Hindustan and the adjoining continental part of Asia. The Peninsula of Hindustan is washed by the Indian Ocean in the south, by the Arabian Sea in the west and by the Bay of Bengal in the east. The Indian Ocean and its seas are of great importance for India's communications with other countries.

India is a vast country; its territory could cover the greater part of Western Europe.

India's neighbours are the People's Republic of China and Nepal in the north, Pakistan in the north-west and Bangladesh and Myanmar in the north-east. Near the southern extremity of the Peninsula of Hindustan lies Ceylon. A narrow strip of highland Afghan territory separates India from Tajikistan, Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan in the extreme north.

India lies in the zone of tropical and subtropical monsoon climate. A cold winter is not to be met with anywhere in India, except in high mountain regions. The winter is warm. The mean temperature of summer months ranges from 26° C to 32° C and that of winter months from 16° C to 25° C. The Indian Ocean gives forth an enormous amount of evaporation which is brought as rainfall to the interior of India by the summer monsoon, blowing from the south-west to the north-east. Three areas are clearly distinguished on the territory of India: the Himalayas, the lowlands of the Indus and the Ganges (the Hindustan Plain) and the Peninsula of Hindustan.

The powerful mountain belt of the Himalayas separates India from Central Asia. These are folded mountains of the Alpine type. They protect India from cold northern winds and check the progress of the rainfall brought by the summer monsoon.

Exercises

I. Be careful to pronounce the following correctly:

A. situate, situation, separate, separation, evaporate, evaporation, communicate, communication, south, southern, extreme, extremity, monsoon, interior, exterior, progress (n), progress (v), area.

B. Bengal, Himalayas, Hindustan, Nepal, Pakistan, Ceylon, Afghan, Ganges, Indus, Alpine, Arabian.

II. Denote the following notions by a single verb:

to touch by the waters; to see or recognize the difference between; to hold back.

III. What do you call it?

1. a great body of salt water, larger than a sea; 2. one of the five regions into which the earth is divided by imaginary lines parallel to the equator; 3. advance, onward movement; 4. the moisture which falls from the air in small drops; 5. a long, narrow strip of mountains; 6. a large area of flat, open country, 7. a chain of mountains having folds or curves, i. e. mountains interchanging with valleys.

IV. Give a word or words opposite in meaning to:

northern, highlands, powerless, regress, exterior, to take in, to disjoin.

V. Give the English equivalents of the following Russian nouns, verbs and adjectives:

полуостров, залив, полоса, оконечность, низменность, испарения, осадки, омываться, граничить с, отделять, защищать (ограждать), прилегать (примыкать), различать,

колебаться в известных пределах, южный, высокогорный, обширный, тропический, субтропический, средний, крайний.

VI. Answer the following questions:

1. Where is India situated? 2. What is the Peninsula of Hindustan washed by in the south, west and east? 3. What is the significance of the Indian Ocean for India? 4. On what countries does India border in the north, north-west and north-east? 5. Is Ceylon India's neighbour? Where is it? 6. What separates India from Russia and other countries of the former Soviet Union? 7. What can you say about the size of India? 8. What do you know about the climate of India? 9. What can you say about the summer and winter in India? 10. What brings rainfall to the interior of India in summer? 11. What parts are clearly distinguished on the territory of India? 12. What separates India from Central Asia? 13. What kind of mountains are the Himalayas and what is their influence on the climate of India?

VII. Translate into English:

Индия расположена в Южной Азии между Гималаями и Индийским океаном. Она занимает полуостров Индостан и прилегающую материковую часть Азии. Полуостров Индостан омывается на юге Индийским океаном, на западе Аравийским морем и на востоке Бенгальским заливом. Единственный крупный остров у берегов Индии — Цейлон, расположенный недалеко от южной оконечности п-ва Индостан.

Индия — обширная страна, ее территория равна примерно половине территории Западной Европы.

Индия граничит с КНР, Непалом, Пакистаном, Бирмой и некоторыми другими странами. Узкая полоска гористой территории Афганистана отделяет Индию от государств Средней Азии на крайнем севере.

Индия расположена в зоне тропического и субтропического муссонного климата. За исключением высокогорных районов в Индии не бывает холодной зимы. Зима теплая. Средняя температура в летние месяцы колеблется от 26° до 32°, в зимние месяцы от 16° до 25°. Индийский океан выделяет огромное количество испарений, которые вместе с летним муссоном попадают внутрь континента и там выпадают в виде осадков. Летний муссон движется с юго-востока на северо-восток.

На территории Индии можно четко различить три района: Гималаи, низменность Инда и Ганга и полуостров Индостан. Мощный горный пояс Гималаев отделяет Индию от Центральной Азии. Гималаи — складчатые горы Альпийского типа — защищают Индию от холодных северных ветров и задерживают осадки, заносимые летним муссоном.

India II

At the bottom of the Himalayas grow impassable evergreen swampy forests; this is the jungle, the habitat of elephants, rhinoceroses, tigers and monkeys, as well as of many poisonous snakes. At the higher altitudes there are forests of palm-trees, tree-ferns and many other tropical plants; these are succeeded by forests of evergreen oaks and magnolias, and still higher by thickets of tall and thin bamboo. Then appear coniferous forests that are followed by Alpine meadows which give place to a zone of perennial snow. The foot-hills of the Himalayas present favourable conditions for the growing of tea and other valuable subtropical and tropical crops.

The lowlands of the Indus and the Ganges lie south of the Himalayas. They are watered by the great rivers: the Indus, the Ganges and the Brahmaputra. The Ganges and the Brahmaputra rise in the Himalayas and discharge into the Bay of Bengal. The Ganges and its larger tributaries are used for navigation.

The lowlands of the Indus and the Ganges are covered with fertile alluvial soils. In spite of the summer monsoons artificial irrigation is necessary in this area like in most other parts of India. The monsoon rains often come too late or cease earlier than is good for the plants, and in such

cases the crops greatly suffer from drought. In order to gather in two harvests a year, artificial irrigation has to be resorted to during the droughty winter season. The soils and climate here are particularly favourable for the growing of rice and sugar-cane. The natural conditions in the drier north-west regions of the lowlands are suitable for the growing of wheat, and in the east, in the delta of the Ganges, for the growing of jute.

In the extreme west of the country, along the frontier with Pakistan, stretches the Thar Desert. There are areas in this desert, where not a single drop of rain falls for years.

The Peninsula of Hindustan is occupied by the Deccan Plateau and is composed mainly of rocks. The climate here is more arid. The soils (red earth and black soil) yield good cotton crops. The coastal strips of Hindustan receive heavy rainfall; the natural conditions here are favourable for the growing of rubber, rice, tea and tobacco.

India has large deposits of multifarious minerals: coal, oil, iron ore, manganese ore, etc. The greater part of the mineral deposits is concentrated on the Peninsula of Hindustan.

Exercises

I. Be careful to pronounce the following words correctly:

A. cease, habitat, rhinoceros, altitude, bamboo, meadow, tributary, plateau, drought, desert, arid, coniferous, multifarious, manganese, perennial, mineral.

B. the Brahmaputra, Deccan, the Thar Desert.

II. Give the English equivalents of the following Russian nouns, adjectives and verbs:

слон, носорог, высота, пальма, папоротник, джунгли, дуб, чаща, долина, бамбук, подножие (предгорье), приток, судоходство, засуха, граница, марганец, нефть, руда, культура (сельскохозяйственная), урожай, почва, сахарный тростник, пшеница, пустыня, каучук, плоскогорье, непроходимый, болотистый, разнообразный, вечнозеленый, хвойный, вечный (неувядаемый, многолетний), плодородный, засушливый, ядовитый, аллювиальный, искусственный, благоприятный, прибрежный, орошать, следовать за, прекращаться, брать начало, впадать (о реке), прибегать к, простираться.

III. Translate the following phrases into English:

создавать (представлять) благоприятные условия, сменяться (уступать место ч.-л.), к югу от, собирать урожай, давать урожай (о почве), прибегать к ч.-л., на крайнем севере, залежи полезных ископаемых, большое количество осадков, сменяться хвойными лесами, оросительные каналы, ответвляющиеся от Ганга, простираться вдоль границы, состоять в основном из краснозема.

IV. What do you call it?

1. land, usually in the tropics, thickly covered with trees or tangled vegetation and inhabited by wild animals; 2. a huge animal with a long trunk, and two ivory tusks, native to India and Africa; 3. a large striped animal of the cat-family; 4. a tall plant with hard hollow stems, which grows in tropical and subtropical climate; 5. an animal most closely resembling man; 6. low hills at the foot of a mountain; 7. a long, legless, crawling creature; 8. a plant, cultivated in flooded fields, and forming the staple food of Eastern peoples; 9. supplying land with water from canals, ditches etc.; 10. a period of dry weather; 11. the skin of an East Indian plant, used for making coarse canvas, rope, etc. 12. a long, narrow piece of land (water, etc.).

V. Give a word close in meaning to:

height, land, wilderness, precipitation, wood, to stop, to follow, dry, various, never-ending, average.

VI. Give a word opposite in meaning to:

barren (land), damp (climate), scarce (precipitation), suitable, passable, ancient, lowlands, drainage, top, to cease.

VII. Answer the following questions:

1. What do you know about the Indian jungle? 2. Describe the flora of the Himalayas. 3. What kind of place are the foot-hills of the Himalayas? 4. How will you describe the lowlands of the Indus and the Ganges? 5. Why do they resort to artificial irrigation in India? 6. What crops are grown in the lowlands of the Indus and the Ganges? 7. What are the natural conditions in the extreme west of India? 8. What can you say about the Peninsula of Hindustan? 9. How will you characterize the mineral deposits of India?

IX. Translate into English:

У подножия Гималаев растут непроходимые вечнозеленые леса; это — джунгли, родина носорогов и тигров, слонов и обезьян. В джунглях много ядовитых змей. В предгорье Гималаев условия благоприятны для выращивания чая и других субтропических и тропических культур. На склонах гор растут пальмы, папоротники и другие тропические растения, они сменяются лесами вечнозеленых дубов и магнолий, а на еще большей высоте зарослями бамбука. Затем появляются хвойные леса, за ними альпийские долины, сменяющиеся зоной вечных снегов.

Долина Инда и Ганга расположена к югу от Гималаев. Ее питают большие реки: Инд, Ганг и Брамапутра. Ганг и его наиболее крупные притоки используются для судоходства.

Долина Инда и Ганга покрыта плодородными аллювиальными почвами. В этом районе, как и в большинстве районов Индии, необходимо искусственное орошение, хотя здесь проходит летний муссон. Муссонные дожди часто запаздывают или прекращаются слишком рано; в таких случаях посевы очень страдают от засухи. Для того чтобы собрать два урожая в год, необходимо искусственное орошение во время зимней засухи. Здесь почвы и климат особенно благоприятны для выращивания риса и сахарного тростника. Природные условия в более засушливых северо-западных областях долины подходят для выращивания пшеницы, а на востоке, в дельте Ганга, для выращивания джута.

На крайнем западе Индии, вдоль границы с Пакистаном, простирается Тхарская пустыня. Здесь есть районы, где в течение многих лет не бывает дождя.

На полуострове Индостан климат засушливый. Почва — в основном краснозем и только на западе — чернозем. На этих почвах выращивается хороший урожай хлопка. Прибрежная полоса полуострова Индостан получает большое количество влаги, здесь природные условия благоприятны для выращивания каучука, риса, чая и табака.

В Индии большие залежи различных полезных ископаемых.

General exercises

- I. A. Translate into Russian.
 - B. Tell the text in English.

Iraq

Iraq is bounded on the east by Iran and on the west by Syria, Jordan and Saudi Arabia, on the north by Turkey, on the south it is washed by the Persian Gulf. The central geographic factor is the magnificent river system. From the lofty mountains of Turkey come both the Tigris and the

Euphrates, each bringing a river system of its own and sweeping in great long loops to irrigate the land.

From the very ancient times of Babylon and even earlier, canals have been run from these two rivers to water the surrounding landscapes.

Iraq is very rich in its agricultural, mineral and human resources. It possesses two of the greatest rivers in the world. The fertile land floats on a sea of oil, the "black gold" of modern times.

In the mountainous north-eastern area, a comparatively long winter is usual with temperature falling below freezing point, between December and January. In summer temperatures are moderate to warm. The mountains are of great heights, covered with snow in winter. The central and south area of Iraq is characterized by a moderate winter and a long dry summer. The hottest weather occurs from June to September. Rain falls mainly in winter.

Iran

Placed on East-West crossroads, Iran has for long remained a melting pot of two great civilizations. To her west are the lands of the Semitic people – Iraq, Kuwait, Syria, Saudi Arabia and Jordan – and to her north and east lie the lands of Indo-Iranian branch of Aryans – Turkey, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Turkmenistan, Tajikistan, Afghanistan and Pakistan. Thus Iran is a buffer of sorts between two major races of the world.

A large part of Iran's territory is covered by the Plateau of Iran surrounded by high mountain ranges. In the north runs the chain of the Elburz Mountains, with its highest peak covered with perennial snow. In the north-west rises the Armenian Plateau composed of volcanic rocks. In the south and south-west there is a number of mountain chains.

The climate of the Plateau is continental and dry, with hot summers and cold windy winters. The most favourable conditions for arable farming are to be found in the foot-hill regions of the north and west. Teheran has the mean temperature of 29° C in July and of 1°C in January. The annual precipitation is 25 cm. There are good pastures for cattle in the mountains where the rainfall is much heavier, the rivers running down the slopes feed the oases in which various crops are grown.

The physical features in the Caspian lowland are quite different from those of other parts of Iran. This is a region of humid subtropics with the average temperature of 26° C in July. Forests of broadleaf trees grow here. The Caspian Lowland is the only region where arable farming is possible without artificial irrigation.

Iran possesses oil reserves of world importance; oil-fields are located in the south-west and in the north. Besides oil, there is coal, iron, manganese ore, non-ferrous metal ores. Oil extraction is of paramount importance for the economy of the country.

Turkey

Turkey occupies the western extremity of the sub-continent of Asia — the peninsula of Asia Minor, and the south-eastern part of the Balkan Peninsula in Europe. In Europe Turkey shares the border with Bulgaria and Greece and in Asia – with Georgia, Armenia, Iran, Iraq and Syria.

The territory of Turkey is washed by the Black Sea in the north, by the Mediterranean in the south and by the Aegean Sea in the West.

The main part of Turkey is formed by the peninsula of Asia Minor. The greater part of the peninsula is occupied by a tableland surrounded by mountain chains. There are many highland plains among mountain ranges and many extinct volcanoes with snow-covered peaks.

The seaboards of Turkey have a subtropical climate; the summer is hot and dry and the winter mild and humid. On the tableland the summer is hot and dry and the winter severe. The annual precipitation is rather small, rains occur mainly in spring.

The greater part of Turkey is woodless. In ancient times the wooded area was much larger, but the woods were destroyed. In the valleys alluvial soils which are very fertile are to be found.

The mineral deposits of Turkey have hardly been investigated. There are considerable deposits of coal, oil, copper, iron and manganese ores.

II. Translate into English.

Конго (Киншаса)

Большую часть страны занимает обширная впадина Конго, лежащая среди возвышенностей. Центральная часть впадины представляет аллювиальную равнину. С севера, востока и юга к ней прилегает полоса плато, образующая у дна впадины крутые уступы. Вдоль восточной границы Конго, с севера на юг тянутся горы, среди которых есть потухшие и два действующих вулкана.

Климат в северной части страны экваториальный, влажный, с большим количеством осадков, особенно с марта до мая и в сентябре — ноябре. В южной части климат экваториально-мус-сонный с дождливым летом и сухой зимой. На большей части территории страны средняя температура марта колеблется от $+"25^{\circ}$ до $+28^{\circ}$, июля от $+23^{\circ}$ до $+25^{\circ}$. Более прохладным климатом отличаются лишь наиболее возвышенные районы на юге и востоке страны. Годовое количество осадков на севере составляет 1500—2000 мм и уменьшается к югу.

Большинство рек страны принадлежит к бассейну реки Конго. Все они изобилуют водопадами. Реки судоходны лишь на отдельных участках, разделенных порогами и водопадами.

На севере Конго — вечнозеленые экваториальные леса. Почвы, особенно в западной части впадины Конго, заболочены, на юге и крайнем севере преобладают саванны на красных почвах, с лесами вдоль рек. В горах на востоке Конго можно проследить различные пояса от влажных экваториальных лесов до высокогорных экваториальных лугов и, наконец, вечных снегов и ледников.

Животный мир страны очень богат и разнообразен. В лесах водятся многочисленные обезьяны, дикие свиньи. В саваннах живут слоны, носороги, буйволы, антилопы, зебры, жирафы, из хищников — львы, леопарды, шакалы, гиены. В реках много бегемотов и крокодилов.

Из минеральных богатств наибольшее значение имеют месторождения медных руд, которые наряду с медью содержат кобальт, цинк и другие ценные компоненты. Имеются запасы урановой руды, олова, марганца, золота, алмазов.

Aids: впадина — depression; уступ — projection; многоводный — abounding in water; бассейн — river basin; подавляющее большинство — the overwhelming majority; изобиловать — to abound in; водопад — waterfall; пороги (речные) — rapids; преобладать — to predominate, to prevail; ледник — glacier; дикая свинья — wild hog; буйвол — buffalo; бегемот — hippopotamus (pl.-es или-mi); олово — tin.

Монгольская Республика

В западной и северной части Монгольской Республики расположены горы, чередующиеся с широкими долинами. Восток и юго-восток страны — плоскогорье Гоби, местами пересеченное горами. Сравнительно небольшая площадь покрыта песками. Большая часть территории республики лежит на высоте от 1000 до 2000 м над уровнем моря. Важнейшее минеральное сырье Монголии — каменный уголь и урановые руды. Известны также месторождения железных руд, золота, цветных металлов, нефти.

Климат Монгольской Республики — умеренный, резко континентальный. Средняя температура января от -35° на севере до -10° на юге, средняя температура июля соответственно от $+18^{\circ}$ до $+26^{\circ}$. Наибольшее количество осадков — в высокогорных районах и на севере страны. Осадки выпадают главным образом летом.

Большинство рек Монголии горные; весной, когда тают снега в горах, и летом, во время дождей, реки разливаются. В Монголии 16 озер, площадью более 100 кв. км каждое.

Преобладающие почвы — каштановые. Растительность большей части Монголии, главным образом на севере и северо-востоке, степная. На крайнем севере есть хвойные леса. На юге преобладают полупустыни и пустыни.

В лесах Монголии водятся белка, кабан, косуля, волк и лисица.

Aids: Монгольская Республика — the Mongolian Republic; чередоваться — to alternate, interchange; резко континентальный — markedly continental; соответственно — respectively; таять — to melt; каштановый — chestnut; косуля — roe, deer; сырье — raw materials.

ADDITIONAL TEXTS

Asia

Asia is the largest subcontinent. In the north it is washed by the Arctic Ocean, in the east — by the Pacific and in the south — by the Indian Ocean. In the south-west Asia is bounded by Africa and in the west — by Europe. The coastline of the continent is irregular, the eastern coast is fringed by the Sea of Okhotsk, the Sea of Japan, the Yellow and the East-China Seas; in the south— by the South-China Sea. The Bay of Bengal and the Arabian Sea are respectively east and west of India.

In the south-west of the continent lies the plateau of Pamir, where India, Afghanistan, Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Tajikistan and China meet, and whence great mountain chains run in all directions. The principal mountain system is the Himalayas (the highest point — mount Everest). The chief range extends south-east from Pamir to the borders of China, there breaking into numerous ranges which traverse Myanmar and the Malay Peninsula. The Karakoram and the Kunlun mountains form the northern flank of the system. From Pamir to the Mongolian Republic extend the Tian Shan mountains; further north, the Altai and other ranges extend eastwards across northern Mongolia and eastern Siberia towards the Sea of Okhotsk, forming the northern boundary of the Desert of Gobi. Mountain ranges also extend from Pamir through India and Afghanistan, and towards the Caspian Sea.

The tableland of Tibet lies north of the principal range of the Himalayas, to the south of which is the Indian peninsula with the tableland of Deccan. In the south-west extends the tableland of Arabia. Other notable physical features are the plateau of Iran, the Armenian plateau and the plateau of Asia Minor, and also the great deserts of Syria and Arabia, and the Kirgiz Steppe in Kirgizstan.

The chief rivers flowing north to the Arctic Ocean are the Ob, the Yenisei and the Lena. Three great rivers - the Amur, the Hwang Ho and the Yangtse - enter the Pacific, and all the three are navigable for thousands of miles. The Mekong, the Salween and the Irrawaddy, rising in the eastern parts of the high plateau, water the Peninsula of Indo-China. The Indus and the Brahmaputra flow through a high valley in opposite directions along the northern base of the Himalayas, and find their way to the sea. The Tigris and the Euphrates, both rising in the high plateau of Armenia, flow parallel to each other.

A succession of great lakes or other inland seas are situated all along the northern slope of the high plateaus of Western and Eastern Asia: the Caspian Sea, Lake Balkhash, Lake Baikal and many smaller ones.

Volcanoes play an important part in Asia's geology; more than 120 active volcanoes are known in Asia, chiefly in the islands of the south-east. Numerous traces of volcanic eruptions are found, earthquakes are frequent.

The climate of Asia varies greatly. Around Verkhoyansk in north-eastern Siberia is the coldest part of the eastern hemisphere. Warmth gradually increases southward, the highest temperature being experienced in south-west Asia and India. Winds blow from different quarters, the most important and regular being the monsoons. Rainfall is great where high ground intercepts wet winds, but there are rainless stretches in the centre and on the plateau from Iran westwards.

Vegetation varies according to the climate, latitude, and altitude. Dwarf willows and birches occur in tundra districts, north of the Arctic Circle, where also mosses and lichens are found. Chief trees are pine, larch, birch in Siberia, coniferous trees on the Himalayas, oak, teak, deodar, sandal-wood, palm in India and Malaysia. Tropical flowers occur on the lower Himalayan slopes, rhododendrons higher up. In Syria and Asia Minor the flora is Mediterranean in character. Central Asia produces vines, olive, fig, apple, and other European fruit trees, Japan and China produce ordinary type of vegetation, including varieties of Alpine plants, while in the south-east occur many indigenous plants — sugar-cane, cotton, pepper, sago, banana, and coconut palms growing wild here, as well as many fruit trees and drug- and rubber-producing plants. Bamboos are abundant in China and India. Cultivated plants include tea, coffee, rice, maize, cotton and date palms.

The fauna of Asia includes the camel, elephant, tiger, leopard, bear, wolf, Arctic fox, ermine, deer, marmot, monkey, some marsupials, crocodile, python, rhinoceros.

Contributing greatly to the income of the countries of Asia are vital mineral exports: petroleum, tin, coal, manganese, chromite, antimony, tungsten.

Africa

Africa extends south from the Mediterranean Sea, and is almost bisected by the equator. Africa approaches Europe at the Strait of Gibraltar in the north-west, and touches Asia at the Isthmus of Suez in the north-east. Off the south coast lies the large island of Madagaskar, off the north-west coast — the Canaries. The African coast-line is singularly unbroken. The principal inlets are in the north and the Gulf of Guinea in the west. The land rises rapidly from the coast; from the fairly continuous outer rim of mountains the greater part of the surface spreads inwards in two tablelands. The higher plateau (southern) has a number of ridges, and in the equatorial regions there are many craters of extinct volcanoes, such as Kilimanjaro. Along the eastern part of the plateau there are many large lakes. The north-east of the continent is drained by the Nile and its tributaries, the south-west by the Limpopo, Zambezi, etc.; the principal west coast rivers are the Niger, Volta, Congo. Africa also contains the world's most extensive and empty desert regions: the Sahara, the Kalahari, and others.

Rainfall is slight except near the equator and some coastal parts. The rainiest region lies west of the Cameroon mountains. The interior is exposed to dry winds.

Except in the moister parts of the equatorial regions, where dense liana-bound forests occur, the prevailing vegetation, where there is any vegetation at all, consists of treeless, or nearly treeless, grassy steppes. Cacti of all kinds in the south are characteristic. In the desert thorny shrubs and scattered tufts of coarse grass form the principal vegetation.

Among animals the quadrupeds that most abound are antelopes, giraffes, zebras, buffaloes, etc. The single-humped camel is found solely as a domesticated animal. Africa possesses a peculiar species of elephant, whose tusks furnish most of the ivory for commerce. Monkeys and apes, rhinoceroses, hippopotamuses, and crocodiles are also likewise abundant, besides lions, hyenas, and other beasts of prey. Among large birds must be mentioned the ostrich.

Africa's chief resources are: jungle products, such as rubber, oil, timber of various kinds, nuts, fruits, cultivated plants, such as coffee, cotton, sugar, cereals, and tobacco; ivory, hides, ostrich

feathers, and other animal products; and minerals, such as gold, diamonds, tin, copper, iron, antimony, phosphates, lead, manganese, uranium.

Japan

The islands of Japan lie off the east coast of the Asian Continent across the Japan Sea and the Yellow Sea. Japan consists of four major islands: Hokkaido, Honshu, Shikoku, and Kyushu, with about one thousand smaller islands scattered around them.

The chief feature of Japan is that the greatest area is mountainous. The Hida Mountains and the Akaishi Mountains that run across the central part of Honshu from south to north, form the highest part of the land. The land-forms there are very steep with a height of 2,500 to 3,000 metres. The Abukuma Mountains and the Chugoku Mountains are plateaus, which form comparatively level tablelands, so that parts of these areas are cultivated fields and parts are pastures. The Nii Mountains which occupy the southern part of the Kinki District and the Kyushu Mountains that stretch from north-east to south-west across the southern part of Kyushu are not very high, but because of the fact that they are comparatively newly formed elevations accompanied by active corrosion, they have deep ravines and steep cliffs, which makes traffic in these areas very difficult.

Another thing that gives the Japanese land-forms a special variety is the existence of volcanoes. Japan is often called the land of earthquakes. There are about one hundred large-scale volcanoes which differ from one another in their manner of eruption and the rocks that compose them. Among these mt. Fuji is known for its beautiful appearance while Kutcharo and Aso are world-known objects of volcanic researches.

In short, the characteristic point of the Japanese land feature is that mountains occupy most of the land with small plains along the seashore. Such plains are mostly mixed compositions of alluvial lowland, diluvial upland and low hills. The alluvial lowland is the main stage for rice cultivation, the key crop of Japanese farming. For this reason, this type of soil is most valuable to the Japanese, but because this was originally made up of the soil and sand deposit carried down by rapid streams in a short period of the alluvial age, the rivers that flow through such lands often leave their courses. In a rainy season or typhoon season, the water rises high and overflows the banks. A huge damage done by floods alone is a tremendous burden, economic and social, under which Japan groans every year.

The Japanese coasts afford harbours for they have many inlets and the offshore sea is deep. However, settlements do not thrive here, because steep hills rise from the coast, permitting" only small tillable area close by and difficult to travel by land. As for the shores which have plains adjacent to them, the coastlines are straight and monotonous. On open shores, there are often seen sand-hills, stretching parallel to the coastline. Huge sand-hills, some of them several kilometres wide, run along the coasts of the Japan Sea. These sand-hill regions are infertile and irrigation is difficult.

Climate.

Japanese climate is characterized by four seasons. Winter begins with the advent of cold seasonal north-west wind that blows from the Asian Continent. It is bringing snow all along the Japan Sea coast. The winter wind is very strong with a velocity more than ten metres per second. The sea becomes very rough. Small fishing boats cannot operate on the sea when the wind is strong.

With the advent of March, this winter wind gradually dies down and spring is in the air. But about this time, the weather changes easily. Often a serene blue sky abruptly gives place to a strong wind and even rain.

About the middle of June the rainy season sets in over the whole land except Hokkaido. Then it rains day in and day out. In the western part of Japan heavy rains often cause floods and landslides. When July comes the rainy season is over, but sometimes the temperature is low even in summer and fine days are rare. Such weather is specifically harmful to rice crops. After the

middle of July, when the rainy season is over, high pressure overlies the whole land and warm, humid but fine days continue. The ground is heated due to strong solar radiation and sends up a great ascending current. This often causes thunder storms.

Towards the end of summer typhoons threaten the land. The storms blow in the South Pacific accompanied by violent wind and rain over an area several kilometres wide as they move northward. Typhoons hit Japan between the end of August and the end of September. Tremendous damage is done to crops and means of communication as well as to men and animals.

About the end of September high pressure gradually passes off. Conversely the continental pressure covers the land, bringing refreshing cool air with it. About this time it rains again.

When November comes, the continental high pressure predominates. The cold seasonal wind blows and winter sets in again. Such is the change of climate with the seasons.

The Arab Republic of Egypt

The Arab Republic of Egypt occupies the north-eastern corner of the African continent, with an extension across the Gulf of Suez into the Sinai region. The Suez Canal is of immense importance for the country. The area of Egypt is approximately 386,200 sq. miles (1,000,000 sq. km); but of this only four per cent can be said to be permanently settled, the remainder being desert or marsh. The country lies between Lat. 22° and 32° N; and the greatest distance from north to south is about 674 miles (1024 km), and from east to west 770 miles (1240 km), giving the country a roughly square shape, with the Mediterranean and Red Seas forming respectively the northern and eastern boundaries. The Arab Republic of Egypt has frontiers in the east with Israel, in the south with the Sudan, and in the west with Libya.

The country consists essentially of a narrow, trough like valley, cut by the River Nile in the plateau of north-east Africa. The fertile strip of the Nile Valley is isolated in the south by the cataracts and by the deserts and swamps of the Sudan; in the North by the Mediterranean Sea; and to east and west by desert plateaus.

West of the Nile stretch the vast expanses known as the Western Desert. Though by no means unified in height, the land surface is much lower than that east of the Nile, and rarely exceeds 1,000 ft above sea-level. Parts are covered by extensive masses of light shifting sand that often form dunes; but in addition there are a number of large depressions, some with the lowest parts actually below sea-level. These depressions seem to have been hollowed out by wind action, breaking up rock strata that were weakened by the pressure of underground water, and most hollows still contain supplies of artesian water.

The main feature of the climate is the almost uniform aridity. Alexandria, the wettest part, receives only 8 inches of rain annually, and most of the south has 3 inches or less. In many districts rain may fall in quantity only once in two or three years, and it is fit to recall that throughout most of the country, and even in Cairo itself, the majority of the people live in houses of unbaked, sundried brick. During the summer temperatures are extremely high, reaching 100—110° F at times, and even 120° in the southern and western deserts, owing to the large extent of desert, hot dry sand-winds are fairly frequent, particularly in spring, and much damage can be caused to crops.

Active vocabulary

Area, arid, aridity, bay, border, alluvial, altitude, annual, archipelago, climate (continental, humid, maritime, moderate, markedly continental, tropical, temperate, sub-tropical), coast, coastal, coast-line, crop, delta, deposit, depression, desert, semi-desert, drainage, drought, droughty, equator, equatorial, evaporation, extreme, extremity, fauna, flora, flood, foot-hill, forest (deciduous, broadleaf, coniferous, mixed, swampy), freezing point, frontier, glacier, gulf, habitat, harvest, highland, humid, irrigation, jungle, latitude, lowland, meadow, mineral, monsoon, mountain (-range, -belt, -mass), navigation, navigable, oasis (pl. oases), ocean, oceanic, ore (copper-, iron-, uranium-; of ferrous and of non-ferrous metals), peak, peninsula,

plain, plateau, precipitation (heavy, scarce), predominate, predominant, prevail, prevalence, projection, rainfall, rapids, region, river-basin, rock, savanna(h), sea (seaboard, sea-level), slope, soil (black-, chestnut-, red-, barren, fertile), steppe-land, tableland, thicket, tributary, vegetation, volcano (active, extinct, dormant), waterfall.

Active vocabulary

Area, arid, aridity, bay, border (n), border on, alluvial, altitude, annual, archipelago, climate (continental, humid, maritime, moderate, markedly continental, tropical, sub-tropical), coast, coastal, coast-line, crop, delta, deposit, depression, desert, semi-desert, drainage, drought, droughty, equator, equatorial, evaporation, extreme, extremity, fauna, flood, foot-hill, forest (coniferous, mixed, swampy), freezing point, frontier, glacier, gulf, habitat, harvest, highland, humid, irrigation, jungle, latitude, lowland, meadow, mineral, monsoon, mountain (-range, -belt, -mass), navigation, navigable, oasis, -es, ocean, oceanic, ore (copper-, iron-, uranium-; of ferrous and of non-ferrous metals), peak, peninsula, plain, plateau, precipitation (heavy, scarce), predominate, predominant, prevail, prevalence, projection, rainfall, rapids, region, river-basin rock, savanna(h), sea (seaboard, sea-level), slope, soil, (black-, chestnut-, red-, barren-, fertile) steppeland, tableland, thicket, tributary, vegetation, volcano (active, extinct), waterfall.

Main plateaus mountain ranges and peaks of Asia

The Deccan Plateau

The Plateau of Iran

The Plateau of Arabia

The Pamirs

The Tibet

The Taurus

The Elburz

The Caucasus

The Tien Shan

The Kunlun

The Himalayas

The Karakoram

Chomolungma Mount (Mount Everest)

Main plateaus, mountain ranges and peaks of Africa

The South African Plateau

The East African Plateau

The Drakensberg Mountains

The Cape Mountains

The Abyssinian Highlands

The Atlas Mountains

Mount Cameroon

Mount Kilimanjaro

Mount Kenya

Main deserts of Asia

The Kara Kum

The Gobi Desert

The Thar Desert

Main deserts of Africa

The Sahara

The Kalahari The Libyan Desert The Arabian Desert

Main rivers of Asia

(The Pacific and the Indian Ocean drainage)

The Yangtze

The Hwang Ho

The Mekong

The Amur

The Indus

The Brahmaputra

The Euphrates

The Ganges

The Salween

The Tarim

The Irrawady

The Tigris

Main rivers of Africa

The Nile

The Congo

The Niger

The Zambezi

The Orange

The Kubango

The Limpopo

The Senegal

II. PEOPLE AND POPULATION

GENERAL TEXTS

India

In population figures India ranks second in the world after the People's Republic of China. Current population of India in 2010 is around 1.19 billion people. By 2030, the population of India will be largest in the world estimated to be around 1.53 billion. There has been rapid increase in Indian population in the last 60 years. India's population holds the common appellation of Indians, but it is composed of many nationalities speaking different tongues. The most widespread of the latter are the Hindi, Bengali, Marathi and Tamil languages.

The people inhabiting the southern part of the peninsula of Hindustan are distinguished by a darker skin and speak the Dravidian languages.

Hindi is the official language of the state. The English language is also widespread in India.

Already containing 17.31% of the world's population, India is projected to be the world's most populous country by 2025, surpassing China. The average density of population in India amounts to 250 people per 1 sq. km. The most densely populated regions are the valley of the Ganges and the Hindustani seaboard. In the valley of the Ganges there are over 900 people and in the south-eastern part (in Bengal) about 2000 people per 1 sq. km. The inner regions of the

Deccan tableland are more sparsely peopled. There is hardly any population in the Thar Desert and in the higher regions of the Himalayas.

The growth rate in the country is 1.54%, with 22 births and 6.4 deaths per 1000 people. Fertility rate is 2.72, while infant mortality rate is still high reaching 30.15 per 1000. Life expectancy is about 70 years – about 73 years for females and over 67 years for males.

Over 70% of India's population live in the countryside and are engaged mainly in agricultural pursuits. There are many handicraftsmen among the urban population. The industrial development of the country results in an ever increasing number of workers employed in the factory industry. Indian villages are populous; they, for the most part, consist of huts built of bamboo and reed in damper regions and of clay and straw in drier once. India's urban population totaling to 27.8% live in more than 5100 towns.

India has more than 2000 ethnic groups, and every major religion is represented, as are four major families of languages (Indo-European, Dravidian, Austro-Asiatic and Tibeto-Burmese). Only the continent of Africa exceeds the linguistic, genetic and cultural diversity of the nation of India.

Exercises

I. Match the words in the first list with what is given in the second:

average	holding a position between two extremes
to amount to	to equal
seaboard	sea-coast
handicraftsman	man skilled in weaving, woodwork, etc.
pursuit	to reach
rural	not of a city or town
densely populated	thickly peopled
to result in	to bring about

II. Give the English equivalents of the following words and phrases:

плотный, средний, общий (удел, согласие, дело), городской, густо населенный, сельский, малонаселенный, беспрестанно возрастающий;

берег моря (побережье, приморье), плотность, занятие, хижина, ремесло, тростник (камыш), солома, глина, уровень рождаемости, уровень смертности, рост населения, продолжительность жизни;

составлять (доходить до, равняться), занимать второе место, быть известным под общим названием «индийцы», характеризоваться (отличаться) чем-либо, кончаться (иметь результатом), на 1 кв. км, быть занятым (заниматься) чем-либо.

III. Denote the following notions by a single word:

to take one's place among; the sea coastline; to be made up of; to become greater in number, size, etc; the second of two things or persons already mentioned.

IV. What do you call it?

1. the total number of inhabitants of a town or country, etc.; 2. a name by which a person or thing is known or described; 3. the expression of thoughts or feelings in words; 4.a high, level stretch of land; 5. the average number of offspring per one woman in a country; 6. the length of time that a person is expected to live; 7. a man who exercises manual art or trade.

V. Find in the text a word or words close in meaning to the following: to reach, to live in, to employ, thickly populated, thinly peopled, wilderness, language,

occupation, handicraftsman, various, arid, humid, chiefly.

VI. Give a word or words opposite in meaning to:

sparsely populated, dry, damp, rural, former, outer, to decrease.

VII. Give the derivatives of the following words:

dense, sparse, people, handicraft, to populate, to engage, to result, to employ, to increase, to distinguish.

VIII. Answer the following questions:

1. What can you say about the number of population in India? 2. What is the common name of India's population? 3. India is a multinational country, isn't it? 4. What do you know about the peoples inhabiting the southern part of the country and the Peninsula of Hindustan? 5. What is the state language of India? 6. What is the average of India's population? 7. What are the most densely populated regions of the country? What is the average density there? 8. Where are more sparsely peopled areas located? 9. What can you say about the urban and rural population of the country? 10. What can you say about Indian villages?

IX. Translate into English.

По численности населения Индия занимает второе место в мире после Китайской Народной Республики. Население Индии состоит из многих национальностей, говорящих на различных языках. Народы, населяющие южную часть полуострова Индостан, отличаются более темным цветом кожи и говорят на дравидийских языках. Официальным государственным языком Индии является хинди, широко распространен также английский язык.

Средняя плотность населения составляет 250 человек на 1 кв. км. Самые густонаселенные области — долина Ганга и побережье полуострова Индостан. В долине Ганга приходится 900 человек на 1 кв. км, а в юго-восточной части — около 2000. Территория Деканского плоскогорья населена более редко. В пустыне Тар и высокогорных районах Гималаев почти никто не живет. Средняя продолжительность жизни в Индии около 70 лет, а ежегодный прирост населения превышает 1.5%. Причина — в снижении уровня смертности.

Свыше 70% населения Индии живет в сельской местности и занимается сельским хозяйством. Среди городского населения много ремесленников. Индийские деревни многолюдны. Все деревенские постройки — это по большей части хижины, построенные из бамбука или тростника, а в более сухих районах — из глины или соломы.

В Индии проживает более 2000 этнических групп, так что в этой стране представлены все мировые религии, как и языки основных языковых семей.

India

India is a country of an ancient culture. Long before our era its population was engaged in arable farming and various other trades. Many articles of Indian handicraft (textiles, weapons, ornaments, etc.) as well as the produce of arable farming, such as spices, were exported. Ancient Indians had a written language of their own. It was centuries ago that beautiful palaces and temples, which are remarkable works of art, were erected. The Taj Mahal mausoleum at Agra enjoys a world-wide fame as an architectural "pearl of India"; it is built of white marble and ornamented with precious stones. True recognition and profound respect on the part of their contemporaries were earned by the outstanding man Gandhi and the famous novelist and poet Tagore.

Traditionally the population of the country was divided into high and low castes. "Pariahs", i.e. members of the lowest caste, were allowed to do only drudge work. Though the republican government of India issued a law abolishing the castes, the Indian population still follows this system of social stratification and social restrictions in which social classes are defined by

thousands of endogamous hereditary groups.

At the present time new schools are being opened and the standards of living and culture of the population are continuously raised. The average literacy rate in the country is quite high, amounting to over 70%, however, the percentage of people living below the poverty line is disastrous reaching 22%.

Exercises

I. Be careful to pronounce the following correctly.

- a) ancient, era, textile, weapon, mausoleum, pariah, caste, outcaste.
 - b) Agra, Tagore, Gandhi, Taj Mahal.

II. Denote the following notions by a single verb:

to send (goods) to another country; to make beautiful; to separate into parts; to move from a lower to a higher level.

III. Give the English equivalents of the following Russian nouns and adjectives:

изделие, ремесло, украшение, оружие, продукция (продукт), пряности, храм, мавзолей, жемчужина, мрамор, слава, признание, уважение, современник, обнищание, население, пария, угнетение, замечательный, архитектурный, глубокий, выдающийся, значительный, древний, экономический, колониальный.

IV. Translate the following phrases into English:

пахотное земледелие, текстильное изделие, произведение искусства, драгоценные камни, писатель-романист, тяжелая (физическая) работа, распространение знаний, культурный уровень, уровень жизни, черта бедности, эндогамные группы населения, стратификация общества.

V. Give a word opposite in meaning to:

modern, rural, literate, minority, to lower.

VI. Give a word similar in meaning to:

to permit, to build, to publish, to delay, to prevent (obstruct), adornment, centenary, labour, glory, tyranny, dissemination, epoch, extraordinary, prominent, deep, continuously.

VII. What do you call it?

1. a period in history, usually dated from some special event; a thing made of solid material and used in fighting or for defence; 3. something used to adorn or decorate; 4. the official residence of a king or queen; 5. a large, magnificent tomb; 6. hard stone, white or coloured, used in building, making statues, etc.; 7. person belonging to the same time; 8. the greater number of (people, things, etc.).

VIII. Answer the following questions:

1. When did arable farming come to be practised in India? 2. What goods were exported from India? 3. What architectural memorials were erected in India? 4. What is the architectural "pearl of India"? 5. What is the Taj Mahal built of and ornamented with? 6. What can you say about Gandhi and Tagore? 7. How did the British rule over India influence the development of the country? 8. In what way was the population of India divided? 9. Do the castes exist in India now? 10. What can you say about the standards of culture of the Indian population under the British rule and under the republican government?

X. Translate into English:

Индия — страна древней культуры. Задолго до начала нашей эры население Индии занималось пахотным земледелием и различными ремеслами. Многие ремесленные изделия, например украшения, оружие, текстильные изделия, а также продукты па-

хотного земледелия, вывозились в другие страны. Прекрасные дворцы и храмы, являющиеся замечательными произведениями искусства, были воздвигнуты много столетий назад. Мавзолей Тадж Махал в Агре, «жемчужина Индии», пользуется всемирной известностью. Выдающийся общественный деятель Индии Ганди и известный писатель и поэт Тагор заслужили подлинное признание и глубокое уважение современников.

Традиционно население подразделялось на высшие и низшие касты. Париям, членам низшей касты, разрешалось выполнять только самую тяжелую работу. Хотя республиканское правительство издало закон об отмене каст, население страны попрежнему придерживается этой системы стратификации общества и социальных ограничений.

В настоящее время в Индии открываются новые школы, материальный и культурный уровень населения непрерывно повышается. Уровень грамотности в стране достаточно высок – более 70%, хотя большая часть населения – 22% - живет за чертой бедности.

General Exercises

- I. A. Translate into Russian.
 - B. Tell the text in English.

Iran

In 1935 the name "Iran" was officially adopted for the country known as Persia for many hundreds of years. The people who are generally known as Persians are of mixed origin. There are Turkish and Arab elements in the country in addition to Kurds, Armenians, Assyrians, Georgians, etc.

The population of the country increased dramatically during the later half of the 20th century, reaching about 72 million by 2008. In recent years, however, Iran's birth rate has dropped significantly. Studies project that Iran's rate of population growth will continue to slow until it stabilizes above 90 million by 2050. More than two thirds of the population is under the age of 30, with one quarter being 15 years of age or younger. The literacy rate was 80% in 2007. Iran is ethnically and linguistically diverse, with some cities, such as Teheran, bringing various ethnic groups together.

Iran exhibits one of the steepest urban growth rates in the world, according to the UN information. As it was estimated in 2005 approximately 67% of Iran's population lived in urban areas, up from 27% in 1950. The most densely populated districts (more than 200 people per square mile, in some places up to 500 people) are a narrow belt along the Caspian coast. The principal cities and towns are located here. In the other areas of the country the density of the population is lower, reducing the average density of population in the country down to 30 people per square mile.

Death rate is nearly three times as low as birth rate in the country (5.9 and 16.8 per 1000 people respectively), though fertility rate is below 2.0 (1.89). The average life expectancy is reaching 71 (over 69 for males and over 72 for females).

Iran hosts one of the largest refugee populations in the world, with more than million refugees, mostly from Afghanistan (80%) and Iraq (10%).

Turkey

Modern Turkey includes bustling cosmopolitan centers, pastoral farming villages, barren wastelands, peaceful Aegean coastlines, and steep mountain regions. More than half of Turkey's

population live in urban areas that juxtapose Western lifestyles with traditional-style mosques and markets.

As to the ethnic groups living in Turkey, it would be appropriate to mention that this is a highly debateful and difficult issue. The Oghuz tribes, which used to constitute the majority of the reigning fraction of Turkic people in Anatolia, gained dominance in the region not by their high populations but their superiority in warfare. So, initially Turkic people lived as a minority in many regions that they first captured. Anatolia, which was formerly a part of the Roman Empire was (and still is) especially an ethnically very mixed region. It is, therefore, impossible to speak about a pure Turkish race in the tangled ethnic mix of Anatolia.

Moreover, many non-Turkic tribes have accepted the Turkish race as their ethnical identity and the Turkish language as their native language in the past centuries. In Turkey, it is not surprising to notice blond and blue-eyed individuals within the dominant black-haired, Mediterranean-looking mass. The Kurds, living mainly in the eastern and south-eastern provinces, are differentiated from the rest of the people by their height.

For this reason, it is not only difficult but also scientifically inappropriate to classify people in Turkey as those coming from Turkic origin and others. The truth is more complicated than that. In this context, the genuinely Turkic people are individuals named as Central Asian Turks (including Tatars), most of whom have possibly come to the region by Mongol invasion long after the initial Oghuz tribes conquered and melted in the local population.

The greater part of the country's population lives near the coast, where the main trading centres are located. There the density varies from 75 to 400 people per square mile. In the central plateau and in the mountains of eastern Turkey, the density is from 1 to 25 people per square mile. On the edge of the plateau, in western Turkey and in the southern coastlands the density varies from 25 to 200 people per square mile.

Thailand

Thailand's population is relatively homogeneous. More than 85% speak a dialect of Thai and share a common culture. This core population includes the central Thai (33.7% of this population, including Bangkok), northeastern Thai (34.2%), northern Thai (18.8%), and southern Thai (13.3%). Ethnic Malay Muslims comprise a majority in the three southernmost provinces. The language of the central Thai population is the language taught in schools and used in government. Lao, or "Isaan dialect" is spoken widely in northeastern Thailand; several other Thai dialects are spoken among smaller groups, such as the Shan, the Lue, and the Phutai. Up to 12% of Thai are of significant Chinese heritage, but the Sino-Thai community is the best integrated in Southeast Asia. Other groups include the Khmer in border provinces with Cambodia; the Mon, who are substantially assimilated with the Thai; and the Vietnamese. Smaller mountain-dwelling tribes, such as the Hmong, the Mein, and the Karen, number about 788 024

The population is mostly rural, concentrated in the rice-growing areas of the central, northeastern, and northern regions. However, as Thailand continues to industrialize, its urban population--31.6% of total population, principally in the Bangkok area--is growing. Thailand's highly successful government-sponsored family planning program has resulted in a dramatic decline in population growth from 3.1% in 1960 to less than 1% today. Life expectancy also has risen, a positive reflection of Thailand's public health efforts. Thailand's model

intervention programs in the 1990s also averted what could have been a major AIDS epidemic. Even so, today, approximately 1.4% of the adult population lives with HIV/AIDS.

II. Translate into English:

Бирма

Бирма — многонациональное государство. Основную массу населения составляют бирманцы — один из самых древних народов Азии.

В далеком прошлом бирманский народ уже имел свою развитую культуру. Много столетий назад были созданы великолепные архитектурные памятники.

Средняя плотность населения составляет около 75 человек на 1 кв. км., одна из самых низких в Юго-Восточной Азии. Самые густонаселенные районы — долина Ирра-вади и побережье. Подавляющее большинство населения (67%) живет в сельской местности и занимается сельским хозяйством, охотой и рыболовством, хотя темпы урбанизации населения достаточно высоки и составляют примерно 3% в год.

Жилища бирманцев строятся в основном из дерева, во многих районах можно увидеть постройки с бамбуковыми стенами и крышами из пальмовых листьев.

Национальная одежда бирманцев — кусок ткани, обернутый вокруг бедер, и короткая белая куртка; мужчины и женщины одеты одинаково. Излюбленная пища бирманцев — рыба с наперченным рисом.

Aids: многонациональный — multinational; бирманцы — the Burmese; национальная одежда — national garment; обернуть вокруг бедер — to wrap round the hips.

Корейская Народно-Демократическая Республика

Корейцы — народ древней культуры. Несмотря на то, что в КНДР есть весьма значительное китайское и небольшое японское меньшинства, корейцев следует считать гомогенной нацией. Основная масса населения живет на западе и юге Корейского полуострова. В прибрежных районах плотность населения составляет 240—400 человек на 1 кв. км. Высокогорные районы мало населены.

В КНДР большая часть населения занята в сельском хозяйстве. Однако индустриализация привела к значительному роосту городского населения, среднегодовые тепмы роста которого составляют 3%. Городской образ жизни характерен для северной части страны, где находится много фабрик и заводов. На центральных улицах корейских городов есть большие дома, построенные по типу современных европейских зданий. В пригородах живут в хижинах из глины. Основная масса крестьян живет в больших деревнях, в домах, выстроенных из тонких бревен, с соломенными или черепичными крышами.

Пакистан

Пакистан — многонациональная страна и одна из самых больших по численности стран мира. По некоторым прогнозам, при нынешних тепмах население страны может достичь более 200 млн. человек к 2020 году. Наиболее населенной частью является долина реки Инд в Восточном Пакистане. Средняя плотность населения в стране свыше 130 человек на кв. км., а в некоторыхрайонах, прилегающих к Индии, может достигать 1000 человек на 1 кв. км. В Западном Пакистане довольно большая плотность населения в Пенджабе, остальные районы мало населены. В горных районах и в полупустынях

живут племена кочевников.

Большая часть городов и деревень расположена в плодородных долинах, обычно там, где скрещиваются древние торговые пути. Это — центры торговли и ремесленного производства.

Около 64% населения Пакистана живет в сельской местности и занимается земледелием и животноводством. Значительная часть сельского населения неграмотна, тогда как в целом по стране уровень грамотности составляет 50% (64% для мужчин и 36% для женщин).

В стране большинство населения исповедует ислам.

ADDITIONAL TEXTS

Africa

The population of Africa has grown exponentially over the past century, and consequently shows a large youth bulge, further reinforced by a low life expectancy of below 50 years in most African countries. The population doubled in the period 1982–2009 and quadrupled from 1955–2009, according to the United Nations estimates. The total population of Africa is presently estimated at 1 billion. The most populous African country is Nigeria with 148 million people, followed by Egypt (79 million) and Ethiopia (78 million). There are numerous anomalies discernible in the overall pattern of the distribution of population in Africa. While the effect of aridity is quite apparent, say, in the low population of the Sahara desert, the steppes of East Africa and the Kalahari, other areas with dry seasons have unexpectedly high densities. Savanna lands, with longer rainy seasons, typically have lower densities than the steppes. Rainy tropical areas show great variation, parts of the West African belt being densely populated, while the bulk of the rainforest belt near the Gulf of Guinea has low densities.

Many African countries, among them Ethiopia, Liberia, Burundi, Uganda, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Madagaskar and Burkina Faso have annual population growth rates above 3%. More than 40% of the population are below 15 years in most sub-Saharan countries, as well as the Sudan but with the exception of South Africa, with as many as 50% in Uganda (as compared to 20% in the USA). Infant mortality is high, with up to 190 deaths per 1,000 live births in Angola, and between 25% and 50% malnourished in Tanzania, Kenya, Mozambique and other countries. Thirty-four out of fifty-three African countries are counted among the world's least developed countries. HIV/AIDS is widespread in sub-Saharan Africa, with some 11% of adult population infected and an estimated 2 million deaths caused by AIDS in 2005.

Ethnographers do not agree regarding the classification of African ethnic groups. But whatever the correct groupings may be, there is no question regarding the variety of peoples of the African continent, a variety far greater than in other parts of the world. Thus, in sub-Saharan Africa, speakers of Bantu languages (part of the Niger-Congo family) are the majority in southern, central and east Africa proper. This is due to the massive Bantu expansion from West Africa. But there are also several Neolitic groups in East Africa, and a few remaining indigenious Khoisan ('San' or 'Bushmen') and Pygmy peoples in southern and central Africa, respectively. Bantu-speaking Africans also predominate in Gabon and Equatorial Guinea, and are found in parts of southern Cameroon and southern Somalia. In the Kalahari Desert of Southern Africa, the distinct people known as the Bushmen (also "San", closely related to, but distinct from "Hottentots") have long been present. The San are physically and genetically distinct from other Africans and are the pre-Bantu indigenous people of southern and eastern Africa. Pygmies are the pre-Bantu indigenous people of central Africa.

South Africa has the largest populations of Europeans, Indians and Coloureds in Africa. The term "Coloured" is used by persons of mixed race in South Africa and Namibia to describe their ethnicity (In Africa this term does not carry the derogatory connotations that it does in North America). People of Europen descent in South Africa include the Africaners and a sizable populations of Anlo-Africans and Portugese Africans. Madagskar's population is predominantly of mixed Austronesian (Pacific Islander) and African origin. The area of southern Sudan is inhabited by the Neolitic people.

The peoples of North Africa comprise two main groups: Berber and Arabic-speaking peoples in the west, and Egyptians in the east. The Arabs, who arrived from Asia in the seventh century, introduced the Arabic language and Islam to North Africa. The Semitic Phoenicians, the European Greeks, Romans, Vandals and Pied-noir settled in North Africa as well. The indigenous Berbers still make up the majority in Morocco, while they are a significant minority within Algeria, which is now a majority Arabic-speaking country. They are also still present in small numbers in Tunisia and Libya. The Tuareg (a group of Berbers) and other nomadic peoples are the principal inhabitants of the Saharan interior of North Africa. Nubians are originally a Nilo-Saharan-speaking group (though many also speak Arabic now), who developed an ancient civilisation in northeast Africa.

During the past century or so, small but economically important colonies of Lebanese, Indians and Chinese have also developed in the larger coastal cities of West and East Africa, respectively.

Japan

Japan is a land of high population density. The population of Japan stands at 127.7 million people. Japan's population density is 336 persons per square kilometer according to the United Nations World Populations Prospects Report as of July 2005. It ranks 32nd in a list of countries by population density, ranking directly above India (336 per km²) and directly below Belgium (341 per km²). Between 1955 and 1989, land prices in the six largest cities increased by 15% (+12% a year). Urban land prices generally increased 40% from 1980 to 1987; in the six largest cities, the price of land doubled over that period. For many families, this trend put housing in central cities out of reach. The density is not relatively high compared with some industrialized countries of the world, but considering the prevailing importance of agriculture and the limited area of arable land (about 15% of the total), a severe population problem arises. The future of Japan may well depend on how this population problem is solved. In contrast to the highly congested lowlands, many mountainous areas show remarkably small populations and these are tending to decline. This is in part due to the rugged character of the terrain but more to the traditional dependence on rice paddies and the increasing capacity of the lowlands, because of growing industrialization, to support large populations.

Japan is an urban society with about only 5% of the labour force engaged in agriculture. Many farmers supplement their income with part-time jobs in nearby towns and cities. About 80 million of the urban population is heavily concentrated on the Pacific shore of Honshu. Metropolitan Tokyo-Yokohama, with 35,000,000 people, is the world's most populous city. Japan faces the same problems that confront urban industrialized societies throughout the world: over-crowded cities and congested highways. The result is lengthy commutes for many workers; daily commutes of two hours each way are not uncommon in the Tokyo area. After a decade of declining land prices, residents have been moving back into central city areas (especially Tokyo's 23 wards), as evidenced by 2005 census figures. National and regional governments devote resources to making regional cities and rural areas more attractive by developing transportation

networks, social services, industry, and educational institutions in attempts to decentralize settlement and improve the quality of life. Nevertheless, major cities, especially Tokyo, Yokohama and Chiba and, to a lesser extent, Kyoto, Osaka and Kobe, remain attractive to young people seeking education and jobs.

Japan is nowadays facing a sharp decline in its populations as the population growth rate in the country is as low as 0.15%. Late marriages and more working women are the primary two reasons for the reduced births in Japan. The country has a low fertility rate of 1.36 as compared to 2.10 in the USA and 1.98 in France. This has negatively impacted the growth prospects of the country. Longer life expectancy of over 80 years (with 77 and 84 years for males and females respectively) and low birth rates mean that the Japanese population is aging at a higher rate.

Japan was populated primarily from the mainland, and the majority of the people belong to the Mongoloid stock and exhibit few traits by which they can easily be distinguished from various other Mongoloid groups. Of minority ethnic groups in Japan, the Ainu constitute the most notable. They are distinctive in physical type as well as culture and language. Their origin is unknown. Besides, there are minority elements in the population that represent mixtures with the aboriginal Ainu of northern Japan. The Japanese are classed among short-statured peoples, but rather remarkable changes in physique occurred in the 20th century; the average stature of the male population has risen to nearly 163 cm. The change has been attributed to improved diet and medical care, exercise and freer circulation resulting from the decrease in the habit of sitting on the floor with the legs buckled under. The urban population is, on the average, taller than the rural.

Libya

Libya has a small population residing in a large land area. Population density is about 50 persons per km² in the two northern regions of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica, but falls to less than one person per km² elsewhere. Ninety percent of the people live in less than 10% of the area, primarily along the coast. About 88% of the population is urban, mostly concentrated in the two largest cities, Tripoli, Benghazi and Al-Bayda. 50% of the population is estimated to be under age 15.

Native Libyans are primarily Berbers, Arabized Berbers, ethnic Arabs (mainly tribal desert Arabs "Bedouins"), and Tuaregs. Small Hausa, and Tebu tribal groups in southern Libya are nomadic or seminomadic. Libya is home to a large illegal population which numbers more than one million. Libya has a small Italian minority. Previously, there was a visible presence of Italian settlers, but many left after independence in 1947 and many more left after the rule of Muammar al-Gaddafi in 1970.

The main language spoken in Libya is Arabic (Libyan dialect) by 80% of the Libyans, and Modern Standard Arabic spoken by 20% is also the official language; the Tamazight (the Amazight language) (i.e. Berber and Tuareg languages), which do not have official status, are spoken by Libyan Berbers and Tuaregs in the south beside the Arabic language. Italian and English are sometimes spoken in the big cities, although Italian speakers are mainly among the older generation.

Family life is important for Libyan families, the majority of which live in apartment blocks and other independent housing units, with precise modes of housing depending on their income and wealth. Although the Libyan Arabs traditionally lived nomadic lifestyles in tents, they have now settled in various towns and cities. Because of this, their old ways of life are gradually fading out. An unknown small number of Libyans still live in the desert as their families have done for centuries. Most of the population has occupations in industry and services, and a small percentage is in agriculture.

ACTIVE VOCABULARY

aborigines, aboriginal, aging of population, amount to, ancestor, arable farming, Aryan (Mongol) stock, birth control program, bulk of the population, Caucasian, caste, census, characteristics, constitute (v), dense, density (average-, overall-), descendant, diet, distinguishing trait, distribute (v) (evenly, unevenly), to be engaged in, estimate (v), estimated at, ethnicity, ethnic minority, ethnic variety, ethnographer, exceed, garment, handicraft, handicraftsman, human dwellings, illiterate, indigenous, inhabit, location, merge (v), mode (walk) of life, national, nationality, multinational, nation-wide, nomad, nomadic, one child policy, peopled (thickly, thinly, densely, sparsely), population (rural, urban, nomadic), populated (densely, sparsely, thinly, thickly), over-populated, populous, poverty line, province, pursuit, remnants, remote past, reside, roam, rural, settle, sources of livelihood, standards of living, ~of culture, survive, tribe, tribal, urban, wander.

III. STATE SYSTEM AND ADMINISTRATION GENERAL TEXTS

State system and administration in India

The Union of India came into being on August 15, 1947, by the partition of the former British colony India into two independent states: India and Pakistan. The constitution of the State was passed by the constituent assembly on November 26, 1949. Under it on January 26, 1950, the Union of India became an Indian sovereign republic. Today India is a federation of 28 states and 7 union territories.

Nominally, the head of the republic is the president, in whom all executive powers are vested, but the real administrator of the country is the Prime Minister. The president is elected by a special electoral college consisting of the members of the Indian Parliament. He must be a citizen of India and more than 35 years of age. His term of office is five years, but he may be reelected.

The legislative power is in the hands of the Indian Parliament. The main functions of the Parliament are to make laws for the country. The Indian Parliament consists of two houses known as the Council of States (the Rajya Sabha) and the House of the People (the Lok Sabha). The Council of States (the upper chamber) has no more than 250 members, a third of whom retire every two years. The House of the People (the lower chamber) has no more than 500 members elected directly by the people from 543 territorial constituencies on adult franchise at the rate of 1 representative to every 500,000 people. The term of office of the House of the People is five years.

The executive power is vested in the President, Vice-President and the Council of Ministers. The Vice-President performs the functions of the Chairman of the Council of States and acts as President when the latter is unable to discharge his functions. The President acts on the advice of

the Council of Ministers, headed by the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister and the other ministers are appointed by the President. The council is responsible to the House of the People.

As the Republic of India is a federation of States, the executive authority of the State is vested in a governor. Governors of states are nominated by the president. In the exercise of their functions they are aided and advised by cabinets of ministers over which a chief minister presides. The cabinets of ministers are accountable for their actions to the state legislative bodies.

Exercises

I. Be careful to pronounce the following correctly:

constituent, constituency, assembly, sovereign, parliament, parliamentary, supremacy, supreme, legislative, chamber, franchise, representative, administrative, executive, authority, nominate, accountable, responsible.

II. Denote the following notions by a single verb:

leave a position or office; be at the head; make laws; to be made up of; give (a person) right or power to do something; name to an office; give help to; give advice to.

III. Find in the text a word or words close in meaning to:

come into existence; dependency; to elect for a second time; to do the work or duty of somebody; a meeting, esp. of lawmakers; the chief minister; a fixed period of time; authority; a grown-up person; a delegate; to follow somebody's advice.

IV. Give the English equivalents of the following words and phrases:

независимый, суверенный, избирательный (комитет), законодательный, исполнительный, государственный, взрослый, ответственный (за что-либо перед кемлибо), главный.

государство, республика, гражданин, власть, закон, законодательство, выборы, выборщик, избирательное право, представитель, премьер-министр, вице-президент.

принимать закон, конституцию, декрет; законодательное собрание, избирательная система, коллегия выборщиков, член парламента, срок полномочий (президента и т. д.), совет министров, верхняя палата, нижняя палата, наделять властью, исполнять обязанности, действовать по совету, из расчета (1 на 300).

V. A. Fill in the blanks with prepositions wherever necessary.

B. Translate into Russian.

State system and administration ... Myanmar

... 9 April 2008, the military government ... Myanmar released its proposed constitution ... the country to be put to a vote ... public referendum on 10 May 2008, as part of its roadmap ... democracy. The constitution is claimed ... the military as heralding a return to democracy, but the opposition sees it as a tool ... continuing military control ... the country.

The legislative branch is vested ... the Union Assembly (*Pyidaungsu Hluttaw*), which is a bicameral legislature consisting ... the 440-seat People's Assembly and the 224-seat National Assembly. ... the Constitution military member delegates are reserved a maximum of 56 of 224 seats in the National Assembly and 110 seats of 440 in the People's Assembly. This is similar ... former Indonesian and Thai Constitutions. The executive branch rests ... State Peace and Development Council headed ... the Chairman and Vice-Chairman. The Chairman is both the chief ... state and *de facto* head ... government. The Council oversees the Cabinet of Ministers presided ... the Prime Minister.

The revisions ... state structure, including the creation ... self-administering areas were not implemented until August 2010.

VI. What do you call it?

1. a state where all branches of government (esp. legislative and executive) are vested in the people; 2. the system of laws according to which a state is governed: the main and principal laws of the state; 3. the main legislative body elected on adult franchise; 4. a dependent country under foreign rule owing to invasion, conquest, etc; 5. a country under the control of or dependent on another country; 6. a native of a country, esp. of a republic, who enjoys full civil rights. 7. the right given to the people to elect their representatives to legislative bodies, esp. to Parliament; 8. a person elected to sit in the Parliament; 9. a person at the head of a Council (cabinet) of Ministers; 10. the two chambers most of the parliaments are divided into; 11. a number of states united under one central government; 12. a person nominated to rule over a state or province.

VII. Answer the following questions:

1. When did India become a sovereign state? 2. When was the constitution of the Union of India passed? 3. Who is the head of the federation? 4. Is the president elected directly by the people? 5. What qualifications must the president meet? 6. What is his term of office? 7. What is the main legislative body of the Union of India? 8. How many chambers does the Indian Parliament consist of? 9. How many members are there in the Council of States? 10. What is the term of office of the House of the People? 11. How many people form a constituency? 12. Whom is the executive power vested in? 13. Who presides over the Council of Ministers? 14. Are the Ministers elected or appointed? 15. Who is the Council of Ministers responsible to for its actions?

VIII. Translate into English.

В августе 1947 г. бывшая английская колония Индия была разделена на Индию и Пакистан, которые стали независимыми государствами. По конституции, принятой в 1949 г., Индия является федеративной республикой, объединяющей ряд штатов. Во главе республики стоит президент, избираемый специальной коллегией выборщиков. Законодательная власть сосредоточена в руках парламента, который состоит из двух палат. Верхняя палата — Совет штатов — включает 250 членов, треть которых уходит в отставку каждые два года. Нижняя палата — Народная палата — состоит из 500 членов и избирается гражданами страны из расчета 1 представитель на 500 000 человек. Все взрослое население страны пользуется избирательным правом.

Президент облечен исполнительной властью. Вице-президент и Совет Министров принимают участие в решении государственных вопросов. Вице-президент в случае необходимости может замещать президента. Срок полномочий как президента, так и вице-президента пять лет. Министры во главе с премьер-министром назначаются президентом. Они ответственны за свою деятельность перед парламентом.

General exercises

I. A. Translate into Russian.B. Tell the text in English.

Iran

The politics of Iran take place in a framework of theocracy guided by an Islamist ideology. The December 1979 Constitution, with its 1989 amendment, defines the political, economic, and social order of the Islamic Republic of Iran, declaring that Shi'a Islam is Iran's official religion. Iran has an elected president, parliament (or Majlis), and an "Assembly of Experts" (which elects the Supreme Leader of Iran), and local councils. All of them must be selected by the Guardian Council before being elected. In addition, it has "shadow" or "parallel" institutions intended to oversee the elected officials and "protect the state's Islamic character". The majority of the Iranian political parties are banned. The Constitution defines the President as the highest state authority after the Supreme Leader. The President is elected by universal suffrage, by all citizens over 18, for a term of four years. Presidential candidates must be approved by the Council of Guardians prior to running. The President is responsible for the implementation of the Constitution and for the exercise of executive powers, except for matters directly related to the Supreme Leader. The President appoints and supervises the Council of Ministers, coordinates government decisions, and selects government policies to be placed before the legislature. The current legislature of Iran is unicameral. Before the Iranian Revolution, the legislature was bicameral, with the senate (upper house) half elected, half appointed by the Shah. The senate was removed in the new constitution. The Parliament of Iran comprises 290 members elected for four-year terms. The Parliament drafts legislation, ratifies international treaties, and approves the national budget. All Parliament candidates and all legislation from the assembly must be approved by the Council of Guardians.

Iraq

Iraq's first constitution, which established a constitutional monarchy, came into force under the auspices of a British military occupation in 1925 and remained in effect until the 1958 revolution which established a republic. Interim constitutions were adopted in 1958, 1963, 1964, 1968, and 1970, the last remaining in effect *de jure* until the Transistional Administrative Law was adopted. In 1990, a draft constitution was prepared but never promulgated due to the onset of the Gulf War.

The current constitution was approved by a referendum that took place on 15 October 2005. According to it, the federal government is composed of the executive, legislative and judicial branches, as well as numerous independent commissions.

The legislative branch is composed of the Council of Representatives and the Federation Council. The Federation Council is composed of representatives from the regions and the governorates that are not organized in a region. The council is regulated in law by the Council of Representatives. The Council of Representatives is the main elected body of Iraq. The Constitution defines the "number of members at a ratio of one representative per 100,000 Iraqi persons representing the entire Iraqi people." The members are elected for a term of four years.

The council elects the President of Iraq; approves the appointment of the members of the Federal Court of Cassation, the Chief Public Prosecutor, and the President of Judicial Oversight Commission on proposal by the Higher Juridical Council; and approves the appointment of the Army Chief of Staff, his assistants and those of the rank of division commanders and above, and the director of the intelligence service, on proposal by the Cabinet. The executive branch is composed of the President and the Council of Ministers.

The President of the Republic is the head of state and "safeguards the commitment to the Constitution and the preservation of Iraq's independence, sovereignty, unity, the security of its

territories in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution." The President is elected by the Council of Representatives by a two-thirds majority, and is limited to two four-year terms. There also exists a Vice President who shall assume the office of the President in case of his absence or removal.

Libya

Libya has no formal constitution. The country's political system is theoretically based on the political philosophy in Muammar al-Qadhafi's Green Book, which combines socialist and Islamic theories and rejects parliamentary democracy and political parties. Libya is broken up into three branches of government that was once overthrown. Libya has a Prime Minister. Every four years the membership of the Local People's Congresses elects by acclamation both their own leadership and secretaries for the People's Committees, sometimes after many debates and a critical vote. The leadership of the Local People's Congress represents the local congress at the People's Congress of the next level and has an imperative mandate. The members of the National General People's Congress elect the members of the National General People's Committee (the Cabinet) by acclamation at their annual meeting. The most recent meeting, which took place in Sirt on 8 January-12 January 2005, was the 29th annual. The General People's Congress (Mu'tammar al-sha'ab al 'âmm) consists of circa 2700 representatives of the Basic People's Congresses. The GPC is the legislative forum that interacts with the General People's Committee, whose members are secretaries of Libyan ministries. It serves as the intermediary between the masses and the leadership and is composed of the secretariats of some 600 local "basic popular congresses." The GPC secretariat and the cabinet secretaries are appointed by the GPC secretary general and confirmed by the annual GPC congress. These cabinet secretaries are responsible for the routine operation of their ministries

II. Translate into English.

Япония

По конституции, введенной в действие в мае 1947 г., Япония является конституционной монархией во главе с императором. По конституции страны, император является символом государства и единства нации, при этом его роль в государственных делах исключительно символическая. Политическая власть находится главным образом в руках премьер-министра и парламента, последний из которых является высшим законодательным органом. Парламент состоит из двух палат — нижней (палаты представителей) с 480 членами, избираемыми на четыре года, и верхней (палаты советников) с 242 членами, избираемыми на шесть лет. Исполнительная власть находится в руках кабинета министров. В Японии введено всеобщее избирательное право для всех граждан старше 20 лет. Важную роль в жизни Японии играют политические партии. В 2009 году к власти пришла Демократическая партия Японии, которая сместила Социально-демократическую партию, бывшую у власти в течение 54 лет.

Афганистан

В последние годы на политическую жизнь Афганистана значительно повлияло участие в ней сил НАТО. Основная цель, которая ставилась перед НАТО, состояла в том, чтобы добиться стабилизации обстановки в стране и привести ее в дальнейшем к демократической форме правления. В 2004 году была принята новая конституция, согласно которой в том же году был избран первый президент Афганистана, облеченный исполнительной властью. В следующем году были проведены выборы в парламент. Главный законодательный орган Афганистана — это двухпалатное Национальное Собрание. В нижней палате — Народном Собрании — заседает 250 членов, избираемых путем прямых всеобщих тайных выборов сроком на четыре года. В верхней палате — Палате Старейшин — всего 102 члена, одна треть из которых избирается сроком на четыре года из членов провинциальных советов, другая треть сроком на три года из членов окружных советов и еще одна треть назначается президентом сроком на пять лет. Половину депутатов, назначаемых президентом, должны составлять женщины. Нижняя палата обладает правом выносить вотум недоверия правительству.

Демократическая Республика Вьетнам (ДРВ)

ДРВ это социалистическая республика, действующая Конституция которой принята 15 апреля 1992 года. Согласно конституции, высшими органами власти в стране являются Национальное Собрание, президент и премьер-министр. Законодательная власть принадлежит Национальному Собранию, состоящему из 498 депутатов, избираемых на пятилетниый срок прямым всеобщим голосованием. Президент и премьер-министр облечены исполнительной властью. В административном отношении Вьетнам состоит из 58 провинций и пяти городов центрального подчинения: Ханоя, Хошимина (бывший Сайгон), Хайфона, Дананга и Кантхо. В этих городах и провинциях действуют народные советы — избираемые населением органы государственной власти. Срок их полномочий — четыре года. Провинции разделены на округа (уезды), в которых повсеместно - как в городах, так и в деревнях (общинах) - действуют избранные населением народные советы. Судебная система включает Верховный народный суд в Ханое и нижестоящие народные суды в провинциях и крупных городах.

Алжирская Народная Демократическая Республика

По конституции 1963 Фронт национального освобождения (ФНО) стал единственной политической партией в стране. Алжир был объявлен президентской республикой, а законодательным органом стала Национальная ассамблея. В 1965 в результате военного переворота действующий президент был смещен со своего поста, действие конституции было приостановлено. Хотя Национальное собрание и не было распущено, его деятельность была фактически также приостановлена. В 1976 после всенародного обсуждения состоялся референдум, на котором были приняты Национальная хартия АНДР и новая конституция. По конституции всенародно избираемый президент воплощал единство политического руководства партии и государства и возглавлял Совет министров и Высший совет безопасности. Законодательная власть возлагалась на всенародно избираемое Национальное народное собрание. В начале 1990-х годов Алжир вступил в

период вооружённого противоборства между правительством и группами исламистов, которое продолжается и по сей день.

Папуа - Новая Гвинея

Папуа — Новая Гвинея это конституционная монархия. Глава государства — королева Елизавета II, представляемая генерал-губернатором (с июня 2004 — Паулиас Матане). Генерал-губернатор назначается королевой по выбору парламента Папуа — Новой Гвинеи. Парламент в стране — однопалатный, в составе которого 109 членов, из них 89 депутатов избираются населением на пять лет, остальные 20 — назначаются от провинций. В парламенте представлены двадцать политических партий страны, среди которых подавляющее большинство мест у партии Национальный альянс, и 16 беспартийных депутатов. Состав партийных фракций часто меняется, поскольку депутаты меняют партийную принадлежность. Всего перед парламентскими выборами в июле 2007 года в Папуа — Новой Гвинее были официально зарегистрированы 45 политических партии.

ADDITIONAL TEXTS

Japan. Government and the people

For the understanding of the nature of the political system in Japan, it is important to have knowledge of the place of the Emperor in the system. Until the termination of World War II, the Emperor in Japan was an individual sacred and inviolable, and his conduct was considered beyond criticism and comment.

When the Meiji Constitution was drawn in 1889, the Emperor was regarded as the absolute ruler of Japan. Consequently, though a Diet was established according to the constitutional form of the West, its power was limited. After the surrender of Japan in World War II the status of the Emperor has undergone a marked change. On November 3, 1946 a new constitution was drawn up, introducing a radical change in the political structure of Japan. From his position as the ruler of Japan, the Emperor has become a symbol possessing no authority or power over the government. Power is held chiefly by the Prime Minister of Japan and other elected members of the Diet, while sovereignty is vested in the Japanese people. The Emperor acts as the head of state on diplomatic occasions.

The political power of the state is divided into three branches — legislative, administrative and judicial. The legislative power belongs to the National Diet, the administrative power belongs to the Cabinet, and the judicial to the Court. The people have the power to elect the members of the Diet, to review the appointment of the Judges to the Supreme Court, to approve of an amendment to the Constitution.

The National Diet is the highest organ of State power. It is also the State organ of legislation. It consists of two Houses, the House of Representatives and the House of Councilors. The House of Representatives has a fixed membership of 480, with tenure of office of four years. The House of Councilors has 242 members with tenure of office of six years. However, the term of office of the members of the House of Representatives may terminate before expiry in case the House of Representatives is dissolved on the advice and approval of the Cabinet.

Universal suffrage is guaranteed for adults over 20 years of age, with a secret ballot for all

elected offices and there is no discrimination on account of creed, sex, etc. Woman suffrage first came into existence in Japan after World War II at the election of 1946.

When the two Houses fail to come to an agreement in resolutions on legislation or a Budget, on the approval of a treaty, on the designation of a Prime Minister, etc, the will of the House of Representatives prevails. However in a proposal for an amendment to the Constitution, the consent of more than two-thirds of all the members of each House is necessary.

The Cabinet is the highest national agency responsible for the administration of the affairs of the nation. The Prime Minister is appointed by the Emperor at the designation of the Diet and must enjoy the confidence of the House of Representatives to remain in office. In this the British pattern of the Parliament-cabinet system has been adopted. Though the Prime Minister appoints the other Ministers of State, the majority of these must be members of the Diet. The Ministers, whether they be members of the Diet or not, can attend the Houses at any time to express their opinions on a Bill. The Prime Minister is empowered to remove a Minister at any time.

Historically influenced by Chinese law, the Japanese legal system developed independently during the Edo period. However, since the late 19th century, the judicial system has been largely based on the civil law of Europe, notably Germany. Statutory law originates in Japan's legislature with the rubber stamp approval of the Emperor. Japan's court system is divided into four basic tiers: the Supreme Court and three levels of lower courts. The main body of Japanese statutory law is a collection called the Six Codes. The Supreme Court has 15 judges, the chief of whom is designated by the Cabinet and appointed by the Emperor, the rest being appointed by the Cabinet. There is no jury system in operation in Japan.

Lebanon. Constitution and Government

The Constitution of the Lebanon was promulgated on May 23, 1926, and was superseded on May 9, 1932. An amended Constitution was promulgated in 1934, but was revoked on January 4, 1937, in favour of the 1926 Constitution, this Constitution is still in force.

According to the Constitution, the Republic of the Lebanon is an independent and sovereign state. It has no state religion. Lebanon is a parliamentary democracy which implements a special system known as confessionalism. This system is intended to deter sectarian conflict and attempts to fairly represent the demographic distribution of the 18 recognized religious groups in government. High-ranking offices are reserved for members of specific religious groups. The President, for example, has to be Maronite Christian, the Prime Minister a Sunni Muslim and the Speaker of the Parliament a Shi'a Muslim.

Lebanon's national legislature is the unicameral parliament of Lebanon. Its 128 seats are divided equally between Christians and Muslims, proportionately between the 18 different denominations and proportionately between its 26 regions. Prior to 1990, the ratio stood at 6:5 in favor of Christians; however, the Taif Accord, which put an end to the 1975–1990 civil war, adjusted the ratio to grant equal representation to followers of the two religions. The Parliament is elected for a four-year term by popular vote on the basis of sectarian proportional representation. The Chamber holds two sessions yearly. The normal term of the Chamber of Deputies is four years; general elections take place within sixty days before the end of this period. If the Chamber is dissolved before the end of its term, elections are held within three months of dissolution. Voting in the Chamber is public — by acclamation, or by standing and

sitting. A quorum of two-thirds and a majority vote is required for constitutional issues. The only exceptions to this occur when the Chamber chooses the President of the Republic, or Secretaries to the Chamber, or when the President is accused of treason or of violating the Constitution. In such cases voting is secret, a two-thirds majority is needed.

The executive branch consists of the President, the head of state, and the Prime Minister, the head of government. The parliament elects the president for a non-renewable six-year term by a two-third majority. The President appoints the Prime Minister, following consultations with the parliament. The President and the Prime Minister form the Cabinet, which must also adhere to the sectarian distribution set out by confessionalism. The President and his ministers deal with the promulgation and execution of laws passed by the Chamber of Deputies. The Ministers are nominated by the President. They are not necessarily members of the Chamber of Deputies, although they are responsible to it and have access to its debates. The President can adjourn the Chamber for up to a month, and can dissolve it and force an election. Ministers can be made to resign by a vote of non-confidence.

Lebanon's judicial system is a mixture of Ottoman law, Napoleonic code, canon law and civil law. The Lebanese court system consists of three levels: courts of first instance, courts of appeal, and the court of cassationn. The Constituional Council rules on constitutionality of laws and electoral frauds. There also is a system of religious courts having jurisdiction over personal status matters within their own communities, with rules on matters such as marriage and inheritance.

All Lebanese are equal in the eyes of the law. Personal freedom and freedom of the Press are guaranteed and protected. The religious communities are entitled to maintain their own schools, provided they conform to the general requirements relating to public instruction as laid down by the State. Every Lebanese citizen who has completed his twenty-first year is an elector and qualifies for the franchise.

Government structure and administration in Ethiopia

Politics of Ethiopia, officaially the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, take place in a framework of a federal parliamentary republic, whereby the Prime Minister is the head of government. Executive power is exercised by the government. The Prime Minister is chosen by the parliament. Federal legislative power is vested in both the government and the two chambers of parliament, which are governed under the Constitution of 1994. A bicameral parliament is made of the 108-seat House of Federation and the 547-seat House of Peoples Representatives. The House of Federation has members chosen by the State Assemblies to serve a five year term. The House of People's Representatives is elected by direct election and in turn elects the president for a six year term. Many opposition parties are represented and hold many positions in the Ethiopia Parliament. However, most positions are held by representatives from the Oromia state, while the Amhara State holds the second most positions, in correlation with the population order of the corresponding states. There are two self-governing administrations, the country's capital Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa. The Prime Minister is designated by the party in power following legislative elections. The Council of Ministers, according to the 1995 Constitution, comprises the Prime Minister, the Deputy Prime Minister, various Ministers and other members as determined and approved by the House of People's Representatives.

The Judiciary is more or less independent of the executive power and the legislature. The

president and vice president of the Federal Supreme Court are recommended by the prime minister and appointed by the House of People's Representatives; for other federal judges, the Prime Minister submits candidates selected by the Federal Judicial Administrative Council to the House of People's Representatives for appointment.

The regime's crackdown on opposition activities and civil society made Ethiopia *de facto* a one-party state termed as an "authoritarian regime".

ACTIVE VOCABULARY

abolish; (be) accountable for something to somebody; act on (the) advice (of); act as somebody; administer; administrative; administration; adopt / issue / pass a law; amendment (to), appoint (nominate); appointment, approve of; approval, authority (power); to delegate authority (power) to, ballot; by (secret) ballot, to cast a ballot; bill; chairperson, chamber (house); upper (lower) chamber (house); citizen; citizenship; colony; colonial; come into being (existence, force); constitution; constitutional; constituent; Constituent Assembly; constituency; council; councilor; depend on; dependency; discriminate; discrimination; elect; election; elector; electoral; electoral law; Electoral College; hold election; emperor; empire; imperial; equal; equality; to enjoy equality; execute (perform, discharge) the functions of; executive; exit poll; federation; federal; franchise (suffrage); universal adult franchise; govern; government (provisional, permanent); governor; head; (be) at the head (of); hereditary; judicial; judiciary; junta; law; to draw up a law; to make laws; to pass a law; to issue a law; in the eyes of the law; law-making process; lawmakers; legislate; legislative; legislation; legislator; legislature; limit; limitation; suffer limitations on one's power; minister (secretary); Prime Minister (premier); Cabinet (Council) of Ministers; monarch; monarchy (absolute, constitutional); overthrow (v); Parliament; parliamentary; Member of Parliament (MP); convene / suspend / dissolve (the parliament); dissolution; preside over; a president; presidential; promulgate; promulgation; provide for; put into operation (effect, in force); qualify for; qualification; reading of a bill; regime (military); remove; removal; represent; representative; republic; resign; resignation; retire (from office); (be) responsible for something to somebody; responsibility; to share responsibility with somebody; sovereign; sovereignty; state; (be) subject to; subject; supreme; Supreme Court; suspend (the constitution); term of office; to be in office; vest in (rest with); vote (v, n); voter; by vote; by popular vote; vote of non-confidence; withdraw (secede) from.

IV. LANGUAGES OF ASIA AND AFRICA

GENERAL TEXTS

Classification of languages

Languages are grouped according to the manner in which they treat their words. Chinese, for example, still isolates its words; they are solitary units, without such elements as case-endings, prefixes and suffixes. Chinese, as a result, in the eyes of people speaking such languages as German or even English, "has no grammar".

The isolation of the Chinese word compelled the Chinese to invent means for indicating the relationship of one word to another. This they achieved by adopting a rather rigid order of words. Certain Chinese words then lost their original meaning and became auxiliary words

whose function it is to point out the relationships of the words in the sentence, and to make clearer the meaning of the word itself. Chinese, then, by setting aside certain words for these purposes, attained the same ends that Latin reached by using case-endings and that English attains with such prepositions as of, by, for, to, with, etc.

Languages that, like Chinese, isolate their words are called isolating languages.

Languages that, like Sanskrit, Latin, Greek, German and Russian, inflect their nouns, adjectives and pronouns are called inflecting tongues, or flexional.

Languages that, like English and the neo-Latin (Romance) tongues, employ prepositions instead of a regular system of inflected nouns, pronouns and adjectives, are called analytic.

Besides these linguistic types there is the agglutinative type. For in certain tongues, employing auxiliary words, the auxiliary word and the main word in time ran together, became fused, the sense of separate words being forgotten. The standard example of the agglutinative type of language is Turkish; it is a type that stands between the isolating and flexional. The endings, though intimately connected with the main body of the words, are yet plainly distinguishable: sav is "love", sav-di — "he loved", sav-di-lar — "they loved".

If the agglutination goes so far as to form sentence-masses, of which the components are not so readily distinguishable, we have what are termed polysynthetic languages, as among the American Indians.

Exercises

I. Be careful to pronounce the following correctly:

isolate, isolation, isolating, prefix (n), prefix (v), suffix, compel, rigid, auxiliary, inflect, flexional, Sanskrit, Latin, Romance, neo-Latin, analytic, agglutinative, distinguishable, polysynthetic.

II. Replace the following word combinations by a verb:

to place alone; to make somebody do something; to call attention to; to run together; to see clearly; to make use of.

HI. Form nouns from the following verbs:

to isolate, to invent, to employ, to prefix, to attain, to inflect, to connect.

IV. Give a word or words close in meaning to:

to separate, single, to point out, rigid, aim, to use, to attain an objective.

V. Name the four parts the word may consist of.

VI. What do you call it?

1. a word helping to form a grammar category; 2. a language that isolates its words; 3. the way one word is related to another; 4. an order of words that is not to be changed; 5. a language that inflects its words; 6. a language that indicates the relationship of words by means of prepositions; 7. a language where the auxiliary word and the main word become fused; 8. a language where the words become fused into sentence-masses.

VII. Answer the following questions:

1. How are languages grouped? 2. Why do people speaking such a language as German say that Chinese "has no grammar"? 3. What morphological group does Chinese (Russian, English, French, Turkish, Bantu, Swahili, Persian, Indonesian) belong to? 4. What means are employed to indicate the relationship of one word to another in Chinese (in Sanskrit? in English? in Turkish? in Persian? in Amharic? in Indonesian?)? 5. What morphological group does the language you study belong to? In what manner does it treat its words?

VIII. Retell the text in detail.

IX. Translate into English:

Классификация языков

Количество современных языков мира превышает 2500. Изучая и сравнивая различные языки, лингвисты предложили классифицировать их в соответствии с тем, какими способами они выражают синтаксические отношения между словами.

В китайском языке слова представляют собой обособленные единицы. У существительных и местоимений нет падежных окончаний. У глаголов нет окончаний, указывающих на время и лицо. В китайском языке отсутствуют суффиксы и префиксы. С точки зрения тех, кто говорит на таком языке, как русский, в китайском языке «нет грамматики».

Изолированность слова в китайском языке заставила китайцев изобрести способы выражения синтаксических отношений (связей). Это — твердый порядок слов и употребление вспомогательных слов. Постепенно некоторые слова в китайском языке утратили свое первоначальное значение и стали употребляться для выражения синтаксических отношений. С помощью этих вспомогательных слов в китайском языке передаются отношения между словами в предложении, которые в других языках—французском, английском — раскрываются с помощью предлогов. Китайский язык называют изолирующим языком.

В древнем арабском языке отношения между словами выражались при помощи окончаний. Именно окончания указывали на то, является ли слово подлежащим, дополнением или сказуемым. Порядок слов не играл здесь значительной роли. Древний арабский язык называют флективным языком.

Английский язык называют аналитическим языком. В аналитических языках синтаксические отношения выражаются при помощи предлогов и твердого порядка слов.

Кроме указанных выше морфологических типов языков, можно назвать еще агглютинативный и полисинтетический (некоторые языки американских индейцев).

Такая классификация называется морфологической. Она была разработана в XIX веке.

Languages of the Middle and Far East

Asia is a vast linguistic world in its own right. The tongues of this great continent run into the number of several hundreds. They are distributed among most of the world's great language families: Afro-Asiatic, Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, Ural-Altaic, Japanese-Korean, Dravidian, Malayo-Polynesian, Caucasian, Mon-Khmer, Hyperborean and Ainu.

Not all these numerous tongues are of equal importance for the practical linguist. There is a myriad of languages whose speakers are comparatively few in number and partly accessible through other tongues. Such is the case with the mysterious Hyperborean tongues of Kamchatka and Northern Siberia with a few thousand speakers, and the Ainu of Japan's northern islands.

Two of Asia's tongues belong to the Semitic branch of the Afro-Asiatic group. They are Hebrew, which has a rejuvenated Israel variety, and Arabic. Hebrew is the ancient tongue of the Scriptures. Arabic is the sacred tongue of Islam and the popular tongue of Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Libya, Egypt, Syria, Iraq and other Arab countries. As a written language, Arabic is unified and traditional and extends far beyond the confines of the spoken tongue, being used wherever the Mohammedan faith has followers. As a popular spoken tongue Arabic shows a series of fairly strong dialectal divergencies.

The Indo-European tongues of Asia include: 1) Armenian, the ancient and highly cultivated language of a relatively small group of speakers, located astride the Russian-Turkish frontier; 2) modern Persian, the language of some 56 million speakers in Iran and Afghanistan (including Tajik and Dari); 3) the so-called Indo-Aryan languages of Afghanistan (Pashto with 40-50 million speakers), southern Ceylon (Singhalese with about 16 million speakers) and northern and central India (Hindustani, Bengali, Punjabi, Rajasthani, Marathi, etc.). Indo-Aryan speakers are very numerous comprising over 770 million of India's inhabitants.

The vast Sino-Tibetan linguistic world includes Chinese, Thai (or Siamese), Burmese, Tibetan and, according to some scholars, Annamese and Cambodian. Of these languages, Chinese, with its vast mass of perhaps 1,3 milliard speakers (subdivided, however, into several often mutually incomprehensible dialects), its ancient culture, and its considerable commercial and political role, is by far the most important. The Tibetan-Burmese and Thai members of the family may be estimated to have some 50 million speakers each.

The Japanese-Korean group (assuming that there is a connection between Japanese and Korean, which many scholars deny) is represented by Korean, the tongue of some 78 million people in Korea, and Japanese. The latter language has some 127 million native speakers.

The Malayo-Polynesian group, subdivided into an impressive number of languages and an almost infinite variety of dialects, is represented by the Malay-speaking portion of the population of Malaysia, and the entire vast island world that stretches across the Indian and Pacific Oceans. The trade language known as Pidgin Malay is generally current throughout Malaysia, Indonesia and, to some extent, the Philippines. This fairly standardized *lingua franca* gives access to a total population of perhaps 80 million and is therefore of great practical importance.

Exercises

I. Be careful to pronounce the following correctly:

A. linguist, myriad, comparatively, accessible, access, mysterious, variety, ancient, sacred, series, divergency, astride, mutually, incomprehensible, commercial, connection, infinite, entire, lingua franca.

- B. (verbs): estimate, isolate, separate, cultivate, rejuvenate, investigate, appreciate,
- C. *language families*: Indo-European, Afro-Asiatic, Ural-Altaic, Sino-Tibetan, Japanese-Korean, Malayo-Polynesian, Caucasian, Mon-Khmer, Hyperborean.

languages: Arabic, Hebrew, Armenian, Persian, Pashto, Singhalese, Punjabi, Rajastani, Marathi, Chinese, Siamese, Burmese, Tibetan, Annamese, Cambodian, Thai, Japanese, Korean, Ainu, Pi-gin Malay.

II. Form antonyms of the following adjectives using the prefixes un-, im-, in-, dis-, ir-, il-:

equal, important, practical, literate, perfect, comprehensible, possible, known, popular, similar, resolute, reliable, accessible.

III. What nouns from the first list would you use with the adjective from the second list?

- I. language, tongue, pronunciation, word, expression, state;
- 2. archaic, spoken, native, literary, foreign, official, popular, modern, written, vernacular, cultivated, rough.

IV. A. Introduce articles wherever necessary. B. Read the text aloud.

Main language families of Africa

Linguistically, northern Africa, as far as Tropic of Cancer and beyond is Afro-Asiatic, with Semitic Arabic stretching from Sinai Peninsula to Atlantic coast, and Hamitic Berber intermingled with it in interior, particularly in Sahara, in Algeria and Morocco. Kushtic language and Amharic language are current in area east of Nile and extend down to southern borders of Ethiopia and beyond. Rest of continent is divided between two great African Negro families of languages: Sudanese-Guinean and Bantu. Dividing line between them runs a little to north of Equator on western coast and a little to south of it on eastern coast. Among Sudanese-

Guinean languages Hausa language has greatest number of speakers. Swahili is of greatest importance among Bantu languages. Hottentot-Bushman appears only in comparatively small section of Southwest Africa.

V. Name the main language families represented in Asia and Africa.

VI. Say what languages the people of the following countries speak:

Iran, Syria, Egypt, Afghanistan, Ceylon, Myanmar, Japan, Thailand, Algeria, Iraq, Tibet, India, Morocco, Turkey, Ethiopia, the Lebanon, Libya, Laos, Nigeria, Cambodia, the Chinese People's Republic.

General exercises

I. A. Translate into Russian. B. Tell the text in English.

The Thai language

Thai (Siamese) is a Sino-Tibetan language. It is the state language of Thailand with approximately 46 million speakers. Like all Sino-Tibetan languages Thai is monosyllabic, i.e. consisting of one syllable words. Its system of writing is derived from Sanskrit and is very complicated. It has 44 consonants, 32 vowels and five tones, the latter being indicated above or below the written line. There is no gender or inflection. Possession is generally indicated by placing the possessor immediately after the thing possessed. The adjective, which is invariable, as all parts of speech, usually follows the noun. Verbs have no tense or mood, these ideas being conveyed by adverbs or adverbial expressions.

The Malay language

The Malay language is understood over a wider geographical extent in the Malay Archipelago than any other language. It is used in the whole of the Malay Peninsula, Indo-China (in some of the southern parts, along some coasts and in some river-valleys), Sumatra, Java (in considerable part), Borneo and in many other islands too numerous to mention. Whatever variations there may be in these regions, the Malay speakers master them in a short time. Some of the languages that bear other names are nearly akin to Malay. When the Malays became Mohammedans, in the XIII century, they adopted the Arabic alphabet with some modifications, and use it to this day, though there is an increasing amount of teaching and writing done with the Roman alphabet. The loan-words of Malay are chiefly from Sanskrit and Arabic. The Malay language is dissyllabic. Monosyllables are few. Words of more than two syllables are also rare. There is no conjugation or declension.

The Arabic language

Arabic which spreads across northern Africa and the Arabian Peninsula is by far the most important of the Afro-Asiatic languages. The speakers of Arabic run into the number of 186 million. As the sacred language of Islam it influences hundreds of millions of those who profess the Mohammedan faith. Arabic is a flexional language. The main characteristic of it, typical of all the Semitic languages, is the word-root consisting of three consonants, with shifting vowels to carry accessory ideas, e.g. Arabic root K-T-B — write"; KATABA — "he has written"; KUTIBA — "it has been written"; KITABUN — "writing", "book"; KATIBUN — "writer", etc. The Arabic language has two genders, masculine and feminine, with inanimate objects distributed between them: there are three numbers, singular, plural and dual (the latter denotes two objects, and is especially used for things that occur in pairs, such as, hands, feet, etc). The verb is fully inflected with numerous separate masculine and feminine forms, especially in the third person. The definite article for all nouns is "al"; there is no indefinite article. The adjective follows the noun, and agrees with it in gender and number.

The Arabic script may have four separate forms for each consonant, according to as it comes

at the beginning, the middle or the end of a word, or is used by itself. Vowel-sounds are indicated by short oblique bars and hooks above or below the consonants, but are very frequently left out altogether, and the vowel-values are to be supplied by the reader. The Arabic script, with certain modifications, is used by a number of other languages, among them Hausa and Swahili of Central Africa; the Malay and Javanese of Indonesia, and the Urdu of India.

The Turkish language

The speakers of Turkish are relatively not so very numerous. It is the national tongue of Turkey's 70-80 million inhabitants, located mainly in Asia Minor, but also in the European part of Turkey and adjacent territories — Bulgaria and Greece. Turkish-linguistic minorities are to be found as far west as Albania. In the eastern sections of Turkey there are some Kurdish and Armenian speaking minorities.

Some linguists group the Turkish language with Finnish and Hungarian. Finnish, Hungarian and Turkish form the three westernmost European spearheads of the great Ural-Altaic family of languages of northern and central Asia. All these languages have some interesting characteristics in common.

In the matter of sounds the Turkish language, like the other languages of this family, has some measure of the so-called "vowel harmony". This means that the vowel sounds are divided into three classes: front, back and neutral. If the root of the word has a "back" vowel, added suffixes must also contain back vowels; if a "front" vowel appears in the root, the vowel of the suffix must be changed as to conform to it; the "neutral" vowels, where they exist, may work with either "front" or "back" vowels. This in turn means that practically all suffixes appear in double form.

In grammatical structure Turkish agrees with other Ural-Altaic languages in rejecting the concept of gender, and in indicating noun and verb relations by the piling of a suffix upon suffix. Such grammar structure is called agglutinative. This means that the process of adding endings to a word-root, which appears in Indo-European, is carried on to a far greater degree, suffix upon suffix being attached to the root to carry a variety of meanings. For instance, Turkish "at" — "horse"; "at-im" — "my horse"; "at lar-im" — "my horses"; "sav"— a root carrying general meaning of "love"; "sav-mek"— "to love"; "sav-me-mek"— "not to love"; "sav-il-eme-mek"— "to be impossible to be loved". Turkish has no article, definite or indefinite. The stress of Turkish is usually on the last syllable of the word. Turkish formerly used a modified Arabic script, but in 1928, under Mustapha Kemal, the Arabic script was discarded in favour of Roman letters.

II. Give a brief account of the language you study (location, language family and morphological group, grammar structure, vocabulary, the influence of other languages, script) using the words and expressions from the obligatory word list.

III. Translate into English.

Персидский язык

Персидский язык — государственный язык Ирана. Он принадлежит к юго-западной группе иранских языков. Как литературный язык персидский употребляется с XV века. Он был распространен, помимо собственно Ирана, в Афганистане, в некоторых районах Средней Азии, Индии, Азербайджане. В истории персидского языка различают три периода: древний, средний и новый (современный).

Современный персидский язык является языком аналитического типа. В нем отсутствуют падежные окончания, а синтаксические отношения выражаются при помощи порядка слов и служебными словами. В системе спряжения глагола большое значение приобрели сложные глагольные формы.

Литературный персидский язык, особенно поэтический (poetic diction), подвергся сравнительно небольшим изменениям на протяжении многих веков. Однако начиная с XX века имеется тенденция приблизить литературный персидский язык к разговорному, от которого он значительно отличается. Некоторые писатели Ирана намеренно вводят

диалекты в речь своих персонажей. Тем не менее различие между письменной (литературной) и устной (разговорной) формами языка все еще значительное.

Японский язык

Японский язык — государственный язык Японии. На нем говорят около 127 миллионов человек. Благодаря введению в конце XIX века обязательного начального образования современный литературный японский язык получил в Японии повсеместное распространение.

Происхождение японского языка неизвестно. Некоторое количество японских слов имеет общие корни со словами алтайских языков. Строй японского языка также сходен со строем алтайских языков.

В японском языке имеется много заимствований, особенно из китайского. Эти заимствования составляют около половины слов современного японского языка.

Монгольский язык

Монгольский язык — язык основного населения Монгольской Республики. На монгольском языке говорит население автономной Внутренней Монголии и отдельные группы населения в провинциях Китайской Народной Республики. В монгольском языке множество диалектов. Как национальный язык монгольский начал свободно развиваться только после Народной революции 1921 года. Словарный состав монгольского языка включает некоторое количество заимствований из китайского, тибетского, японского и русского языков. По своей грамматической структуре монгольский язык принадлежит к так называемым агглютинативным языкам. Как и в большинстве языков этой группы, в нем отсутствует категория грамматического рода.

Монгольская письменность сложилась еще в XII веке на базе сирийско-арамейских алфавитов. С течением времени между старописьменным языком и живой речью образовался большой разрыв. Поэтому в 1941 году старая письменность была заменена новой, основанной на русском алфавите, к которому было добавлено два дополнительных знака.

Корейский язык

Корейский язык — государственный язык Корейской Народно-Демократической Республики. На корейском языке говорит около 78 миллионов человек, живущих на Корейском полуострове, а также корейское население северо-восточной части Китайской Народной Республики, Средней Азии и Японии. Корейский язык относят к изолированным языкам. Связи его с другими языками еще не установлены. Одни ученые считают, что корейский язык принадлежит к семье алтайских языков, другие полагают, что он близок японскому языку, третьи обнаруживают связь между корейским и китайским языками.

Корейский язык испытал влияние китайского, монгольского и японского языков, заимствовав из них большое количество слов и выражений. Особенно много слов было заимствовано из китайского языка, который в кореизированной форме (ханмун) в течение почти целого тысячелетия (с первых веков нашей эры и до конца XIX века) был официальным языком Кореи. Однако влияние китайского языка не уничтожило корейский язык как самобытный (самостоятельный) язык.

Корейский язык распадается на шесть диалектов, которые значительно отличаются друг от друга. Так, житель севера не понимает жителя юга. Однако все они понимают литературный корейский язык, и на этом языке можно общаться с жителями любой корейской провинции.

Еще в конце XIX века в Корее началось «движение за просвещение». В 1895 году

ханмун как государственный язык уступил место (был заменен) литературному языку. К 30-м годам XX века литературный корейский язык использовался повсеместно во всех государственных учреждениях. В 1949 году в КНДР была введена корейская письменность.

ADDITIONAL TEXTS

On the history of the Urdu language

What is Urdu.

Urdu is popularly regarded to be an offspring of Persian, having been ushered into existence in the camps of the Moslem invaders and the capitals of Moslem Sovereigns in India. People are misled as to its origin, by the preponderance of Persianized words, the prosody of its poetry, and its script. It is frequently referred to as the language of the Mohammedans as opposed to Hindi which is claimed to be the language of the Hindus. An acute controversy has been raging between the protagonists of Urdu and the champions of Hindi over the merits and superiority of one over the other. In the heat of discussion people have forgotten the origin of Urdu. Urdu, by origin, is a dialect of Western Hindi spoken for centuries in the neighbourhood of Delhi and Meerut and is directly descended from Sour Semic Prakrit. This living dialect has formed the basis of Urdu, the name having been given at a later period. It retains its original and essential character in the grammar, idioms and a large number of Hindi words. They clearly point to its Indian parentage. It was an accident that this dialect became the *lingua franca* of India, for it so happened that Delhi, where this dialect was spoken, became the camping ground and capital of the Mohammedan invaders and sovereigns. It is therefore clearly wrong to say, as is stated by Mir Aman and early Urdu and foreign writers, that Urdu is a 'mongrel pigeon form of speech, made up of contributions from the various languages which met in Delhi Bazaar'. It is true that the camp was an important factor in the life of this dialect and influenced it so largely as to give it its own name. This dialect was in a state of flux and readily assimilated new words and phrases and still shows considerable capacity to absorb words from other sources. The English nomenclature "Hindustani" for Urdu, though an improvement over it, is misleading, for Hindustani properly comprises dialects prevalent in Hindustani, e.g., Eastern Hindi, Western Hindi and Rajasthani. It is also slightly incorrect to say that Urdu is derived directly from Brij Bhasha, another dialect of Western Hindi as is maintained by Muhammad Husain Azad_r for Brij Bhasha though closely akin to and having many similarities with the dialect spoken in the neighbourhood of Delhi, is another dialect spoken in Muttra and surrounding districts. It is its sister dialect that is responsible for the birth of Urdu.

Relation of Urdu to Hindi. As is mentioned above, Urdu owes its existence to the dialect prevalent near Delhi and Meerut, an offshoot of Western Hindi.

Hindi and Urdu are of the same parentage and in their nature they are not different from each other. But each has taken a different line of development. Urdu, under the tutelage of the Mussulmans, has sought its inspiration from Persian while Hindi has reverted to its original fount — Sanskrit.

Debt of Urdu language and literature to Persian. In the beginning the language was quite simple and homely and sufficed for the few wants of the peasants whose needs were few and whose outlook on life was circumscribed. As it began to develop into a literary language, its vocabulary was enriched with various words from Persian and through Persian from Arabic and Turkish. Writers began to draw upon the resonant Persian to secure variety. Persian constructions foreign to the indigenous dialect began to be imported into and engrafted upon the language. The Persian script was borrowed with some modifications as Persian words could only be written with ease and fluency in it. Urdu poetry modeled itself upon Persian poetry and annexed not only metres but themes, imagery, allusions and peculiar phrases and constructions.

Modern Arabic

The intrusion of Europe into the range of vision of the Arab world begins with Napoleon's expedition to Egypt in 1798. The adoption of innumerable elements of Western civilization had far-reaching effects on the written language. This began already with Muhammad Ali's programme of reform which set out deliberately to take over Western achievements and was focused on France. As a result of the sending of student missions to study in France, the foundation of schools on European lines and the foundation of an Arabic press, and, above all, of the translation of numerous European books, the necessity of finding expressions for a host of foreign ideas was felt first in Egypt and then too in other countries — foreign ideas for which at first only foreign words were available.

A real counter-movement against the excessive use of foreign words did not begin until the second half of the XIX century. The question of how to meet the ever-growing need for new expressions in Arabic became one of the major problems of intellectual life. The impact of Europe in itself awoke among the Arabs, after an interval of centuries, reconsideration of their own linguistic and literary tradition. The revival of the old philological learning was facilitated by the printing of many old literary works and especially of native dictionaries and grammars. The old purism was revived again, and with it the tendency artificially to control the development of the language, with recourse wherever possible to the old model language. The inevitable modernization and expansion of the vocabulary of modern Arabic ought, according to the wishes of the purists, to be carried out by drawing to the greatest possible extent on the wealth of words, roots and forms in modern Arabic. After several unsuccessful attempts, a scientific academy was founded in Damascus in 1919, which devoted itself to the reform of the language and published many contributions to the language problem in its review, which first appeared in 1921. In 1932 the Egyptian Royal Academy of the Arabic Language came into existence. Apart from the study of the old language and literature its main concern is the regulation and expansion of the modern vocabulary. Although the possibility of popularizing newly-coined technical terms in specialist circles has often been overestimated, the practical effect of the purist movement on actual language usage cannot be denied.

Turning to the linguistic facts, the striking feature is the infiltration of English and French phraseology, translated into Arabic (so-called loan translation or "calques") and the change in the inner form. In particular the language of daily communication (press and radio) and of writers with little or no classical education has a distinct European touch. Phraseology and style are far more difficult to check than terminology. This development is therefore inevitable and must be accepted as a fact. In the field of *belles-lettres*, on the other hand, we find in many cases a strong attachment to tradition. Authors with a classical education are still able today to keep close to the ideal of olden Arabic in their style; they sometimes make use of uncommon words and phrases of the old literature and especially of the Koran as artistic and stylistic devices. But no one can completely escape the influence of European phraseology.

Grammar, on the other hand, which can be defined in rules and which is much more subject to conscious control, gives quite a different picture. The written language has remained untouched by the sound-change, and the morphology has remained constant from the earliest times till the present day; the same is true of the syntax at least in its basic features.

In vocabulary a considerable basic stock has remained alive since the earliest times. Post-classical words, including those from the later Middle Ages, form a further element of the modern vocabulary. A host of generally accepted expressions are available to express ideas which come from Europe. Forgotten words of olden Arabic have been revived and are used without formal alteration but with meanings more or less modified. Until the First World War the majority of foreign words were borrowed from French, others from Italian. English

became an influence after the First World War, especially in Egypt and Iraq.

Languages of Ethiopia

A glance at any linguistic map of Ethiopia will show the small yet compact Semitic island stretching from northern Eritrea to Addis Abeba in the south. There are, perhaps, seven million Semitic speaking Ethiopians and nearly as many who speak languages of the Cushitic and Neolithic groups. The Semitic languages of Ethiopia represent next to Arabic, the living Semitic tongues spoken by the largest number of people; Amharic is well in the lead, followed by Tigrinia.

In the many classification schemes that have been proposed for the Semitic languages the position of Ethiopic has always been: a South Semitic language which is to be grouped with South Arabic. The linguistic significance of the Ethiopian languages lies not only in their geographical position as a bridge between Asia and Africa and their proximity to the area, i. e. South Arabia, which is frequently considered to have been the original habitat of the Semites, but especially in their close contacts with the Hamitic tongues. In Ethiopia we find the most favourable conditions for observing the interaction of Semitic and Cushitic and thus for revealing the original unity of the Hamito-Semitic languages.

Considering the comparatively small distinctions between the various dialects of epigraphic South Arabic, we are unlikely to find any indications of those rather minute differences in the fully developed Ge'ez language. Nor does there appear to be any need to make Amharic claim descent from an unknown "sister" tongue of Ge'ez. The evolution of Amharic and the other modern languages can be best envisaged in this way: classical Ethiopic, in the course of time, spread over a fairly large area and, when political and other circumstances were propitious, eventually became differentiated to such an extent that the varying speech forms were mutually unintelligible.

It is obviously quite impossible to be precise about the time when Ge'ez had ceased to be South Arabic and had become a different language no longer intelligible to traders from the east coast of the Red Sea. The process was, of course, slow and gradual, but the distinctive identity of Ge'ez must have been established by the beginning of the first century A.D. The South Arabic inscriptions in Ethiopia were followed a few centuries later by Ethiopic epigraphic documents in which Ge'ez makes its first appearance as a new language — quite distinct from South Arabic. We possess no Ethiopic literature from that period, and, as far as we can judge at present, the life of Ge'ez as a spoken language seems to have been relatively short. So, of course, was the full bloom of the Aksumite Kingdom. Its decline began in the seventh or eighth century and followed, some 200 years or so later, by the eclipse of Ge'ez as a living tongue, though it continued to be Ethiopia's literary and ecclesiastical language to almost the present day. It is, however, interesting to note that the classical period of Ge'ez literature was between the thirteenth and seventeenth centuries, i. e. hundreds of years after it had ceased to be a living language used in the day-to-day life of the people.

Through the influence of the Church and its wide ramifications Ge'ez was embalmed and kept in a permanently "frozen" state throughout the centuries. From the beginning of the second millennium Ge'ez has occupied a position in Ethiopia which is similar to that of Latin in the European setting up to the seventeenth or eighteenth century. All written work was limited to those, who were capable of manipulating the only worthy medium of literary expression.

The literary exclusiveness of Ge'ez had suppressed almost all information regarding the vernaculars. Fortunately, the ban was applied a trifle more leniently in the south, outside the area of the original Aksumite dominion, where Amharic is spoken. Thus we do possess some old Amharic Imperial songs dating back to the fourteenth century. Later on, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the Jesuits employed Amharic for their propaganda and translated into the vernacular such of their writings as might sway the people. For this purpose they obviously considered Ge'ez wholly unsuitable. But with the expulsion

of the Jesuits the impetus given to the use of Amharic in writing had been spent and Ge'ez regained its literary supremacy — until the middle of the nineteenth century, when Amharic publications began to appear.

Amharic has long been called Lesana Negus, "the language of the king", for, though it has only recently become the official language of the Ethiopian Empire, it has for centuries been the language of the Court and the great majority of the population of central tableland. Nowadays Amharic is spoken not only in its home province, but it covers most of the area south of the Tigre to the edge of the rift valley. Yet even today there is no complete linguistic homogeneity in this region, and one will encounter several Cushitic languages within it of which Galla is the most important. The number of Amharic speakers ranges between 3 and 5 millions. There is little doubt that Amharic is slowly gaining ground, and the stationing of Amharic speaking administrations throughout the country will in time give it the status of a *lingua franca* in most parts of the Empire.

ACTIVE VOCABULARY

accent (n, v); (be) accessible through (other tongues); give access to; agglutinate; agglutination; agglutinative language; analytic; analytic language; archaic; archaism; auxiliary; auxiliary word; auxiliary verb; bilingual; bilinguism; borrow (v); borrowing (n); borrowed word; case; case-ending; character; (be) current; colloquial; colloquialism; colloquial language; conjugate; conjugation; corrupt (v); corrupt (adj); corruption; declension; derive (from); derivative; derivation; dialect; dialectal; flexion; flexional language; hieroglyph; hieroglyphic script; inflect; inflection (inflexion); inflecting language; inflected words; intonation; isolate; isolation; isolating (language); invariable; language (tongue); state (official) / popular / literary / vernacular / written / spoken / native / mother / foreign (language); linguist; linguistic; linguistics; linguistic minority; loan-word; morphology; morphological; parts of speech: adjective, adverb, article, noun, numeral, interjection, preposition, conjunction; phonetic; phonetics; prefix (n, v); root (stem); sentence; parts of sentence: subject, predicate, object (direct, indirect), attribute, adverbial modifier; regionalect; stress; suffix; syllable; syllabic; monosyllabic; polysyllabic, dissyllabic; polysynthetic languages; syntax; syntactic; syntactical; tone; tone language; vocabulary; (rigid) word order.

V. EDUCATION IN THE COUNTRIES OF ASIA AND AFRICA GENERAL TEXTS

Education in the countries of Asia Primary education.

Most Asian nations have been well known for being enthusiastic in education since ancient times. The system of the imperial civil-service examinations in China was epoch-making system positively appointing talents to the public service. Now the meaning which different education systems in Asia have is dramatically changing. A lot of countries in Southeast Asia arouse their enthusiasm for education day by day along with the countries' economic development. Also, in the countries such as South Korea, Japan, and Singapore socially important meaning of one's background causes the heated educational phenomenon called the exam war. Therefore, a lot of excellent talents are born from Asian countries. At present all Asian states accept the principle of universal, free and compulsory education. Indeed, most of the states with newly won

independence have entrenched the individual right to education in their constitutions.

The importance of primary schooling hardly needs stressing. The traditional concept of primary education emphasized the three R's and the attainment of literacy. But recent policies in Asia have shown a shift from this simple goal to a more diversified set of objectives. They are: (1) to prepare for good citizenship; (2) to develop a love for the nation, its traditions and culture; (3) to develop aesthetic and artistic aptitudes; (4) to develop necessary skills and to provide such vocational education as would enable the children to earn their own living.

This change in the goals set for primary schooling has brought with it far-reaching alterations: the duration of the course, the quality of teaching, the preparation of teachers and financial provisions.

The duration of the primary school course varies from a minimum of four years to a maximum of seven. In Myanmar the four year course in reality lasts five years, since either a kindergarten class is attached or the first class is divided into two grades. Variations occur within India and Pakistan but the national trends are towards a five-grade course; this is the case also in Nepal and the Democratic Republic of Vietnam. The remaining countries of Asia have a six-year primary school.

However, there is another side of the Asian education status quo. There are countries with education not reaching remote farm villages as well as countries with a huge educational gap between urban areas and rural regions, between the rich and the poor. Besides, excessive elite education typical of some Asian countries adds to this gap which is not easy to bridge.

Exercises

I. Be careful to pronounce the following correctly:

primary, concept, emphasize, emphasis, literacy, diversify, objective, aesthetic, artistic, aptitude, vocational, alteration, course, quality, financial, provision, compulsory, enforcement, attendance, notably, favour, minimum, maximum, kindergarten.

II. Give words or expressions synonymous to:

elementary school, obligatory attendance, to give special attention to, to go to school, the first form (class), natural quickness, general idea, worthy of notice, to establish, aim, to support, in fact.

III. Give the word or words opposite in meaning to:

illiteracy, maximum, fee-paying school, in small part of the region, to show disapproval of, to extend.

IV. What do you call it?

1. education obtained at school; 2. the three subjects (arithmetic, writing and reading) taught at primary schools; 3. an objective one tries to attain; 4. natural quickness or cleverness in doing things or learning; 5. the ability to do something well, 6. the way in which one gets money to provide for himself; 7. the supplying of all the necessary means for something; 8. the act of being present at school; 9. anything that gets in the way, making progress difficult; 10. a school giving special training for a particular kind of work; 11. a school for very young children.

V. Give the English equivalents of the following:

образование, понятие, грамотность, неграмотность, цель, склонность, учебный план,

обеспечение, тенденция, посещаемость, обучение, отклонение, мастерство, продолжительность, детский сад, изменение;

начальный, средний, высший (курс обучения), эстетический, художественный, далеко идущий, финансовый, двухгодичный, всеобщий, бесплатный, обязательный, ограниченный, разнообразный;

начальное образование, среднее образование, добиться грамотности, поставить цель, достичь цели, развивать способности, далеко идущие изменения, курс обучения в начальной (средней, высшей) школе, всеобщее, бесплатное, обязательное образование, право на образование, вписать в конституцию, ввести обязательное посещение, обеспечить специальное образование, зарабатывать себе на жизнь.

VI. Answer the following questions:

1. What was the traditional concept of primary education? 2. What new goals have been set in the states with newly-won independence? 3. What alterations have these goals brought with them? 4. How long does the primary school course in the greater part of the countries last? 5. What principle is education based on in all Asian states? 6. When was the principle of universal, free and compulsory primary education accepted? 7. Where is the right to education entrenched in? 8. What stands in the way of enforcing compulsory attendance in some Asian countries? 9. What educational policy is favoured in such countries as Burma, India and Pakistan?

VII. Translate into English:

Многие страны Азии с древних времен славились своим интересом к образованию. Хорошо известна система императорских экзаменов в Китае, позволявшая принимать на государственную службу действительно талантливых людей. И сейчас во многих странах Юго-Восточной Азии интерес к образованию возрастает по мере того, как развивается экномика этих государств. Неудивительно поэтому, что именно Азиатский континент дает всему миру так много одаренных людей.

В этой связи едва ли нужно подчеркивать важность начального образования. Все страны Азии приняли принцип всеобщего бесплатного и обязательного обучения. В большинстве стран право на образование внесено в конституцию. В последнее время в большинстве стран Азии традиционное представление о целях начального образования значительно изменилось. Начальная школа должна не только научить читать, писать и считать, но также подготовить хороших граждан, развить эстетические и художественные склонности и развить умения, которые подготовят детей к трудовой деятельности. Продолжительность обучения в начальной школе колеблется от четырех до семи лет. В Бирме установлен четырехгодичный курс обучения, но, так как к первому классу обычно присоединяется подготовительный класс, обучение фактически длится 5 лет.

Однако не все так просто в ситуации с образованием в странах Азии. Самая главная проблема — это огромный разрыв в уровне образования разных слоев населения в зависимости от от места их проживания (в городах или сельской местности), уровня благосостояния (являются ли они бедными или богатыми) и прочих факторов. Увеличению такого разрыва способствует и тот факт, что в некоторых странах Азии уделяется излишнее внимание элитарному высшему образованию, которое доступно немногим, тогда как начальное и среднее ступень не получает достаточных бюджетных средств.

Education in countries of Asia

Secondary and higher education

In most of the countries of Asia secondary education is free, but not compulsory. Despite wide variations within the region, certain common trends appear in both the primary

and secondary school curriculum. Thus, the central educational authorities usually prescribe the content of instruction. The general trend is to relate the curriculum to the needs of society in general and to the needs of local community in particular. Thus, in the elementary school in India a local craft is the centre of interest and the most important factor in the programme. In a number of countries the secondary course either falls into two cycles of three years each or is preceded by the so-called intermediate school which prepares for secondary education. Secondary school gives precise attention to academic subjects. As a rule the basic subjects are mathematics, natural sciences, literature and history.

Further improvements in the school curriculum are felt to be necessary. This applies particularly to teaching methods, which are often too passive and bookish. Instruction is everywhere in the native language.

The children's progress through school is dependent upon annual examinations in at least half of the countries of Asia. Even when promotion from one grade to another is not based on an examination, there is a school leaving examination at the end of the course in all countries except Ceylon and the Philippines.

It is required that primary teachers should have a completed secondary education and professional training course in a normal school. The certification requirements have been raised almost in all countries. To a considerable extent, improvements in teacher training depend on the expansion of secondary education.

Higher education has considerably expanded since more countries of Asia achieved independence. In addition to old universities a number of new higher educational establishments have been opened. All in all they enroll several thousands of students. As a rule, admission to higher school is by competitive examination. In Afghanistan, Myanmar, the Chinese People's Republic, Indonesia and some other countries the students are given scholarships by the state.

Despite very different political patterns among Asian States, the administration of education tends to be centralized in most of them. In every country either a Ministry or a Board of Education has been established.

Exercises

I. Be careful to pronounce the following correctly:

curriculum, authority, prescribe, content, community, programme, cycle, precede, intermediate, basic, mathematics, base, certificate, certification, expansion, enrol, scholarship.

II. What do you call it?

1. the ways pupils are taught; 2. the process of being taught; 3. the person who teaches; 4. a detailed inquiry into a person's knowledge; 5. the final examination at the end of schooling;

6. a group of people controlling and providing for schooling;

7. the state of making or becoming better; 8. the state of making or becoming larger.

III. Give your explanation of the following:

1. an elementary school; 2. an intermediate school; 3. a normal school; 4. a vocational school; 5. a boarding school; 6. compulsory education; 7. adult education; 8. free education; 9. basic subjects; 10. curriculum; 11. certification requirements; 12. leaving (final) examinations; 13. entrance examinations; 14. a competitive examination; 15. a board (jury) of examiners; 16. the language of instruction.

IV. What nouns from the first list would you use with the adjectives from the second list.

- 1. school, attendance, education, age, training, instruction, course, examination, subject, curriculum, authorities, community.
- 2. primary, compulsory, vocational, leaving, free, extentional, basic, educational, local.

V. Answer the following questions:

1. Who prescribes the content of instruction? 2. What is the curriculum usually related to? 3. What is the centre of interest in primary school? 4. What are the main (basic) subjects taught in secondary schools? 5. Why is it felt to be necessary to improve the existing teaching methods? 6. What is the language of instruction in primary and secondary schools? 7. What does the child's progress through school depend on? 8. Is the promotion from one grade to another always based on examinations? 9. What requirements must a prospective (would-be) teacher meet? 10. What help is given to the students by the state? 11. What administrative body is in charge of primary and secondary education?

VI. Reproduce the text in detail.

VII. Translate into English.

Несмотря на то, что программы обучения в различных странах Азии значительно отличаются друг от друга, они все же имеют общие черты. Учебные планы и программы, как правило, предписываются специальными отделами (советами) образования или министерствами образования. Во многих районах учебный план подчиняют потребностям местной общины. Так, в начальных школах Индии основное внимание уделяют обучению одному из местных ремесел.

Почти во всех странах Азии ощущается потребность усовершенствовать курс обучения и улучшить методы преподавания. Старые, пассивные, методы преподавания должны быть заменены современными, активными формами обучения. Необходимо также улучшить контроль. Уже сейчас в большинстве стран перевод ученика в следующий класс зависит от результатов ежегодных экзаменов. Во всех странах, кроме Цейлона и Филиппин, введены экзамены в конце курса обучения. Преподавание ведется только на родном языке.

Учитель начальной школы должен иметь законченное среднее образование и пройти специальный курс обучения сроком с два года. В некоторых странах Азии сейчас повышают требования к будущим учителям. Улучшение подготовки учителей для начальных школ зависит от успешного развития среднего образования. В большинстве стран Азии за последнее время значительно увеличилось количество средних школ и высших учебных заведений. Во многих странах студенты получают стипендию.

General exercises

I. A. Translate into Russian. B. Tell the text in English.

Education in Myanmar

Primary education in Myanmar is officially compulsory. It lasts five years, and to continue onto secondary school, students must pass a comprehensive examination of basic subjects. Secondary education is divided into middle school (standards 6 - 8), and upon passing the Basic Education Standard VIII Examination, students continue onto high school, which covers standards 9 -10. Secondary schools are usually combined, containing both middle and high schools. At the end of standard 10, students must pass the Basic Education Standard 10 Examination (matriculation exam) in order to receive their diplomas. Students who do pass the matriculation examination receive either Diploma A or Diploma B. Those with Diploma A are allowed to continue their educations at university.

High schools students choose one of two tracks upon entering high school: science or arts. All high school students take Myanmar, English, and mathematics. However, Science-specialized students also take three additional subjects: chemistry, physics and biology as part of their

coursework, while arts-specialized students take geography, history and economics. These routes also determine what matriculation subject exams they are administered and what tertiary schools they can apply to.

Nearly all major and national universities in Myanmar are in Yangon Region and Mandalay Region. The Burmese higher education system is entirely state-run, and its universities and colleges are organized along their fields of studies. The country's 150 plus universities and colleges are administered by various government ministries.

Problems with education in Iraq

UNESCO reports that prior to the first Gulf War in 1991 Iraq had one of the best educational performances in the region. Primary school Gross Enrollment Rate was 100% and literacy levels were high. Since that time education has suffered as a result of war, sanctions, and instability. Since then, major problems have emerged that are hindering the system, and include: lack of resources, politicization of the educational system, uneven emigration and internal displacement of teachers and students, security threats, and corruption. Illiteracy is widespread in comparison with before, standing at 39% for the rural population. Almost 22% of the adult population in Iraq has never attended school, and a mere 9% have secondary school as highest level completed. As far as gender equity, 47% of women in Iraq are either fully or partly illiterate, as women's education suffers from differences across regions, and especially between the North and South. In accordance with the above information, there appear to be massive challenges to tackle within the Iraqi educational system. The system was obviously one of the best in the region in the 1980s, and with the correct steps can reach those levels once again

Education in Jordan

The education system of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan has improved consistently since the late XX century. The role played by a good education system has been significant in the development of Jordan from a predominantly agrarian to an industrialized nation. In 2003 the share of budget dedicated to education was 6.4 percent of total government expenditure; education spending as a percentage of GDP was 13.5 percent in the same year. At 8.9 percent, Jordan has the third lowest illiteracy rate in the Arab world. The primary gross enrollment ratio has increased from 71 percent in 1994 to 98.2 percent in 2006. Transition rate to secondary school, during the same period, has increased from 63 percent to 97 percent and transition rates to higher education have varied between 79 to 85 percent of secondary school graduates. Along with these high enrollment and transition rates, Jordan has achieved a 90 percent parity in literacy and full parity in primary and secondary enrollment.

The structure of the educational system in Jordan consists of a two-year cycle of pre-school education, ten years of compulsory basic education, and two years of secondary academic or vocational education after which the students sit for a General Certificate of Secondary Education Exam—Tawjihi Secondary education, which can either be academic or vocational. Public primary education (accommodating about 70% of students) is free and compulsory. It is given in six grades, and usually begins between the ages of six and eight years. Secondary courses are given in two cycles: the first, or preparatory cycle, lasts for three years and the second, of three years' duration, leads to school certificate.

At the end of the two-year period, students sit for the general secondary examination (Tawjihi) in the appropriate branch and those who pass are awarded the Tawjihi (General Secondary Education Certificate). The academic stream qualifies students for entrance to universities, whereas the vocational or technical type qualifies for entrance to Community

Colleges or universities or the job market, provided they pass the two additional subjects. The Jordanian Ministry of Education is now making it mandatory for students to be computer literate and able to apply their studies in computers to their regular studies, most especially the scientific and mathematical courses. Its educational system is of international standards and its secondary education program is accepted in world-class universities.

II. Translate into English.

Образование в Египте

Система образования в Египте отличается высокой степенью централизации, она подразделяется на три этапа: (1) Базовое образование, состоящее из начальной ступени и подготовительной ступени; (2) Среднее образование; (3) Высшее образование. В соответствии с Законом о бесплатном обязательном образовании от 1981 года, все египтяне в возрасте от 6 до 14 лет должны иметь базовое образование, включающее начальную и подготовительную ступени. Дальнейшее образование зависит от возможности учеников.

образование в Египте представлено тремя типами, это профессиональное и техническое. Техническое образование, приобретаемое в рамках трёхгодичной и пятилетней программы, дают школы, специализирующиеся в трёх разных областях: промышленность, коммерция и сельское хозяйство. Курс общего среднего образования рассчитан на три года и включает естественные и гуманитарные предметы: арабский и английский языки, второй иностранный язык (немецкий, французский, испанский или итальянский), химия, физика, биология, география, история, философия. На втором и третьем году обучения вводится специализация: естественные науки, либо гуманитарные науки, либо математические науки. Помимо светского образования в Египте есть и система религиозного образования Азхар. Религиозная система образования находится в ведении Высшего совета института Аль-Азхар. Сам Совет формально является независимым от Министерства образования, но находится под наблюдением премьер-министра Египта. Школы Азхар называются институтами и включают начальное, подготовительное и среднее образование. Во всех школах на всех этапах изучают нерелигиозные предметы, хотя и не так активно, как в государственных школах. Тем не менее основу расписания составляют религиозные предметы. Все ученики мусульмане, мальчики и девочки учатся раздельно. Школы Азхар распространены по всей стране, особенно в сельской местности. Выпускники таких школ могут продолжить обучение только в Университете Аль-Азхар. В начале 2000-х на школы Азхар приходилось менее 4% от общего количества учащихся.

В Египте имеются как частные, так и государственные высшие учебные заведения. Государственное высшее образование в Египте бесплатное, студенты платят только регистрационный взнос. Частное образование обходится дороже. Основные университеты: Каирский университет (100 000 студентов), Александрийский университет, Университет Айн-Шамс, Университет Аль-Азхар — старейший университет Египта с историей, насчитывающей свыше 1000 лет.

Образование в Судане

Образование в Судане беслатное и обязательное для детей в возрасте от 6 до 13 лет. Начальное образование длится восемь лет, а затем следуют три года среднего

образования. Основной язык преподавания всех уровнях образования - арабский.
По данным Всемирного банка, опубликованным в 2001 году, в школах, дающих начальное образование, тем не менее, было зарегистрировано 46 процентов детей соответствующего возраста, а в средних школах лишь 21 процент от общего числа учеников. По оценкам Всемирного банка за 2002 год, уровень грамотности среди молодежи в возрасте 15 лет и старше составляет 60 процентов. В 2000 году аналогичный показатель составил почти 58 процентов, что свидетельствует о положительной тенденции. Обучению в средних и высших учебных заведениях серьезно препятствует тот факт, что большинство мужчин вынуждены прерывать свое образование для того, чтобы нести военную службу. В Судане 19 университетов, преподавание в которых в основном ведется на арабском языке, постепенно вытесняя английский, старейший из которых находится в Хартуме.

Осознавая необходимость проведения радикальных реформ, в 1991 году правительство Судана выделило 400 млн суданских долларов на нужды образования и взяло на себя обязательство удвоить бюджетные средства в том случае, если существовшая на тот момент система образования будет реформирована, начнет удовлетворять требованиям времени и суданского общества.

Проблемы развития образования в Индии

До 1976 сфера образования находилась в ведении штатов, в то время как центральное правительство координировало и определяло стандарты специального и высшего образования. В 1976 году в соответствии поправкой Конституции, правительства разделили ответственность за данную область. С этого времени решения по определению структуры образования принимаются штатами. Качество и стандарты образования определяет центральное правительство. В соответствии с Национальной политикой в сфере образования к 21 веку обязательное бесплатное образование достойного уровня должны получить все дети в возрасте до 14 лет. В результате усилий центрального правительства и правительств штатов сегодня практически в каждом населённом пункте в сельских районах имеются школы начального и среднего образования. Таким образом, с момента обретения независимости приём детей в возрасте от 6 до 14 лет в школы начального и среднего образования увеличился до 87 и 50% соответственно. В период с 1950 по 1997 гг. количество этих школ возросло с 223 тыс. до 775 тыс., в то время как число учителей в них за тот же период увеличилось с 624 тыс. до 3,84 млн. Значительно увеличилось и число обучающихся в школе девочек. Правительство Индии обращает особое внимание на увеличение участия родителей, а также на улучшение школьной программы и процесса обучения в целом. Центральное правительство полностью покрывает расходы на учебные, методические пособия и выплачивает зарплаты учителям в период действия плана. Строительство школ является ответственностью штатов. В рамках программы подготовки учителей в каждом районе было решено открыть образовательно-подготовительный институт с целью обеспечить академическую поддержку учителям начальных классов и преподавателям для взрослых и неформальных образовательных учреждений.

ADDITIONAL TEXTS

Education in Vietnam

With one of the highest GDP growth rates in Asia, Vietnam is currently trying to overhaul its education system, with a view to preparing students for the increasing role of English as the language of business and the importance of internationalising the education system to train a workforce equipped to maintain the rapid economy growth of the last two decades. Education in Vietnam is divided into five levels: pre-primary, primary, intermediate, secondary, and higher

education. Formal education consists of twelve years of basic education. Basic education consists of five years of primary education, four years of intermediate education, and three years of secondary education. The majority of basic education students are enrolled on a half-day basis. Public kindergartens usually admit children ranging from 18 months to 5 years of age. This level of education tends to be popular in major cities such as Hanoi, Ho Chi Minh City, Da Nang, Hai Phong, Can Tho and Vung Tau. Children normally start primary education at the age of six. Education at this level lasts for 5 years and is compulsory for all children. The country's literacy rate is over 90%.

Junior high school includes sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth grades. Until its abolition in 2006, students had to pass the Intermediate Graduation Examination (IGE) presented by the local Department of Education and Training to graduate. This educational level is homogeneous throughout most of the country, except in very remote provinces, which are expected to popularize and standardize middle education within the next few years. Intermediate education is not compulsory in Vietnam. Secondary education consists of grades ten through to twelve. The IGE is a prerequisite entrance examination for secondary schooling. The IGE score determines the schools at which students are able to enroll. The higher the score, the more prestigious is the school. Students are not free to choose what they study. To graduate, students must pass 11 obligatory courses.

At the start of secondary school, students can enroll in Specialist Classes if their grades from the previous year are good enough. These students specialize in a particular subject; this can be any of the obligatory subjects, except Technology, Physical Education and Civics. Students enrolled in these programs have a heavier workload than regular secondary school students. The workload varies from school to school, but grade 11 students are generally expected to study grade 12 courses concurrently. Other courses include university-level courses. Some schools go as far as requiring their students to finish secondary school by the end of grade 10. Only prestigious schools offer these classes, and they have yet to be standardized.

All students in Vietnam are required to take the national Leaving Examination at the end of grade 12 to get a diploma. The Leaving Examination is administered by the Ministry of Education and Training. Students still have to pass their regular end-of-term examinations along with passing the Leaving Examination. The Leaving Examination includes six subjects: mathematics, Vietnamese literature, foreign language and three others determined by the Ministry of Education and Training. Students usually sit for The Leaving Examination in late May or early June.

Education in Iran

Education in Iran is highly centralized and is divided to K-12 education and higher education. K-12 education is supervised by the Ministry of Education and higher education is under supervision of Ministry of Science and Technology.

The Fourth Five-Year Development Plan (2005-2010) envisages upgrading the quality of the educational system at all levels, as well as reforming education curricula, and developing appropriate programs of vocational training, a continuation of the trend towards labor market oriented education and training. There are both free public schools and private schools in Iran at all levels, from elementary school through university. Education in Iran is highly centralized. The Ministry of Education is in charge of educational planning, financing, administration, curriculum, and textbook development. Teacher training, grading, and examinations are also the

responsibility of the Ministry. At the university level, however, every student attending public schools is required to commit to serve the government for a number of years typically equivalent to those spent at the university, or pay it off for a very low price (typically a few hundred dollars). During the early 1970s, efforts were made to improve the educational system by updating school curriculation, introducing modern textbooks, and training more efficient teachers.

Primary school (*Dabestan*) starts at the age of 6 for a duration of 5 years. Middle school, also known as orientation cycle (*Rahnamayi*), goes from the sixth to the eighth grade. High school (*Dabirestan*), for which the last three years is not mandatory, is divided between theoretical, vocational/technical and manual, each program with its own specialties. Teacher Training Centers in Iran are responsible for training teachers for primary, orientation cycle, and gifted children's schools. These centers offer two-year programs leading to a Fogh-Diploma (associate degree). Students that enter Teacher Training Centers, have at minimum, completed the orientation cycle of education; most have a High school diploma. A national entrance examination is required for admission.

Universities, institutes of technology, medical schools and community colleges, provide the higher education. The requirement to enter into higher education is to have a High school diploma, and finally pass the national University entrance's exam (Konkoor). Higher education is sanctioned by different levels of diplomas: Fogh-e-Diplom or Kārdāni after 2 years of higher education, Kārshenāsi (also known under the name "licence") is delivered after 4 years of higher education (Bachelor's degree). Kārshenāsi-ye Arshad is delivered after 2 more years of study (Master's degree), after which another exam allows the candidate to pursue a doctoral program (PhD).

Iranian universities churn out almost 750,000 skilled graduates annually. The tradition of university education in Iran goes back to the early centuries of Islam. By the 20th century, however, the system had become antiquated and was remodeled along French lines. The country's 16 universities were closed after the 1979 revolution and were then reopened gradually between 1982 and 1983 under Islamic supervision.

While the universities were closed, the Cultural Revolution Committee investigated professors and teachers and dismissed those who were believers in Marxism, liberalism, and other "imperialistic" ideologies. The universities reopened with Islamic curricula. In 1997, all higher-level institutions had 40,477 teachers and enrolled 579,070 students. The University of Tehran (founded in 1934) has 10 faculties, including a department of Islamic theology. Other major universities are at Tabriz, Mashhad, Ahvaz, Shiraz, Esfahan, Kerman, Babol Sar, Rasht, and Orumiyeh. There are about 50 colleges and 40 technological institutes.

In order to teach 9-12 grades, in theory, a bachelor's degree is required; however due to a shortage of teachers in Iran, schools have been compelled to use teaching staff with other educational backgrounds. Teachers are trained in universities and higher institutes. There are seven teacher-training colleges in Iran.

Education in Japan

Formal education in Japan began with the adoption of Chinese culture in the 6th century. Buddhist and Confucian teachings as well as sciences, calligraphy, divination and literature were taught at the courts of Asuka, Nara and Heian. Scholar officials were chosen through an Imperial

examination system. But contrary to China, the system never fully took hold and titles and posts at the court remained hereditary family possessions. The rise of the *bushi*, the military class, during the Kamakura period ended the influence of scholar officials, but Buddhist monasteries remained influential centers of learningIn the Edo period, the Yushima Seidō in Edo was the chief educational institution of the state; and at its head was the *Daigaku-no-kami*, a title which identified the leader of the Tokugawa training school for shogunate bureaucrats.

Under the Tokugawa shogunate, the daimyō vied for power in the largely pacified country. Since their influence could not be raised through war, they competed on the economic field. Their warrior-turned-bureaucrat Samurai elite had to be educated not only in military strategy and the martial arts, but also agriculture and accounting. Likewise, the wealthy merchant class needed education for their daily business, and their wealth allowed them to be patrons of arts and science. But temple schools (terakoya) educated peasants too, and it is estimated that at the end of the Edo period 50% of the male and 20% of the female population possessed some degree of literacy. Even though contact with foreign countries was restricted, books from China and Europe were eagerly imported and Rangaku ("Dutch studies") became a popular area of scholarly interest.

After the Meiji Restoration of 1868, the methods and structures of Western learning were adopted as a means to make Japan a strong, modern nation. Students and even high-ranking government officials were sent abroad to study, such as the Iwakura mission. Foreign scholars, the so-called o-yatoi gaikokujin, were invited to teach at newly founded universities and military academies. Compulsory education was introduced, mainly after the Prussian model. By 1890, only 20 years after the resumption of full international relations, Japan discontinued employment of the foreign consultants.

The rise of militarism led to the use of the education system to prepare the nation for war. The military even sent its own instructors to schools. After the defeat in World War II, the allied occupation government set an education reform as one of its primary goals, to eradicate militarist teachings and "democratize" Japan. The education system was rebuilt after the American model.

The end of the 1960s was a time of student protests around the world, and also in Japan. The main subject of protest was the Japan-U.S. security treaty. A number of reforms were carried out in the post-war period until today. They aimed at easing the burden of entrance examinations, promoting internationalization and information technologies, diversifying education and supporting lifelong learning.

In successive international tests of mathematics, Japanese children consistently rank at or near the top. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) is

responsible for educational administration.

In the present-day Japan, education is compulsory at the elementary and lower secondary levels. Virtually all students progress to the upper secondary level, which is voluntary. Most students attend public schools through the lower secondary level, but private education is popular at the upper secondary and university levels. Japan's education system played a central part in Japan's recovery and rapid economic growth in the decades following the end of World War II.

After World War II, the Fundamental Law of Education and the School Education Law were enacted in 1947 under the direction of the occupation forces. The latter law defined the school

system that is still in effect today: six years of elementary school, three years of junior high school, three years of high school, two or four years of university.

Education prior to elementary school is provided at kindergartens and day-care centers. Public and private day-care centers take children from under age one on up to five years old. The programmes for those children ages 3–5 resembles those at kindergartens. The educational approach at kindergartens varies greatly from unstructured environments that emphasize play to highly structured environments that are focused on having the child pass the entrance exam at a private elementary school.

Some problems of education in Africa

Education in Africa began as a tool to prepare its young to take their place in the African society. The African education experience was strictly set up to prepare the young for society in the African community and not necessarily for life outside of Africa. The schooling system of pre-European colonialism consisted of groups of older people teaching aspects and rituals that would help them in adulthood. Education in early African societies consisted in such things as artistic performances, ceremonies, games, festivals, dancing, singing, and drawing. Boys and girls were taught separately to help prepare each sex for their adult roles. The high point of the African educational experience was the ritual passage ceremony from childhood to adulthood. There were no academic examinations necessary to graduate in the African educational system.

When European colonialism and imperialism took place it began to change the African educational system. Schooling was no longer just about rituals and rites of passage, school would now mean earning an education that would allow Africans to compete with countries such as the United States and those in Europe. Africa would begin to try producing their own educated students as other countries had.

However, participation rates in many African countries are low. Schools often lack many basic facilities, and African universities suffer from overcrowding and staff being lured away to Western countries by higher pay and better conditions.

Nearly all countries in Sub Saharan Africa have implemented policies to ensure free universal primary education of acceptable quality. Rising primary enrollment and completion rates, as a result of these policies, have brought increased demand for access to post-primary education.

Some countries are now declaring free universal secondary education. While the social and economic rationale for expanding learning opportunities beyond primary education is clear, the challenges are daunting, and the task of developing sustainable secondary education strategies is complex.

Education in Africa is a phrase used to cover everything from the highly developed medical studies offered in some African universities to the slow and laborious literacy campaign run in the most remote villages. For the majority in Africa today, education is the keystone for rapid development.

The acceleration in African education started after World War II and has been moving at a rapid rate during the past decade. From the few classes organized by Portuguese missionaries four centuries ago, education proceeded at a casual rate until World **War** II. A few landmarks had been established, such as Fourah Bay College (1827) in Sierra Leone,

and in East Africa an outstanding secondary school, Makerere (1921), that was destined to become the University College of East Africa. But the distribution of educational facilities throughout sub-Saharan Africa was uneven and spotty. In West Africa, the coastal regions almost always had better opportunities for students than the interiors.

The unevenness of distribution of schools was well illustrated in West Africa. As recently as 1954, eleven of the thirteen secondary schools in Sierra Leone were located in the colony and only two in the protectorate. In former French West Africa the percentages of children of school age actually attending primary schools in 1955 ranged from 2.6 per cent in Niger to 24.3 per cent in Dahomey. This condition continues today as reported in the Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa held by UNESCO in 1961. While some African states reported 60 per cent of the school age children in school, others reported only 2 per cent.

The thrust in higher education since the World War II has been one of the most spectacular developments in African education. Of the thirty-eight universities serving Africa throughout the continent, twenty-three have been opened since 1945, thirteen within the last decade. On the basis of present plans there appears much likelihood that expansion will continue rapidly.

While the growth of education since 1945 has been remarkable, it is but the beginning. "In the majority of countries the proportion of children out of school exceeds 80 per cent of the school age population" (UNESCO, 1961). Emphasis on education has been expansion of present systems. Effort has been directed primarily towards meeting the demands of villagers for more schools, of youths for more education, and of business and governments for trained personnel. The general approach throughout most of Africa, therefore, has been to expand the existing structure under the pressure of the need to produce more trained personnel for the country. But changes in the existing system are necessary.

There is an increasing demand in every country that the curriculum of the schools be Africanized. For the vast majority of educators it means the attempt to adapt the curriculum to the needs of the African environments. It is a striving for a system that will present those universals needed by an educated person in the world and yet relate them to the local and African setting. It is an attempt to strip the imported cultural baggage from the curriculum, retain the core of knowledge, skills and aptitudes, and surround it with an African setting.

Africanization of the curriculum would require extended research in the history, geography, natural sciences, folklore and folk music of the areas. Attempts have been made by some teachers to gather data on local history and geography. Such amateur attempts have undoubtedly been helpful, but the need is for studies conducted by specialists trained in a discipline.

Africans of all nations are greatly interested in learning more about their own country and about their neighbours' as well. School children in Sierra Leone should know their neighbour, Guinea, as children in Uganda should know Kenya etc. Africanization will depend on the production of studies in the subject areas, the countries and the continent. Once the studies have been made, it will become the task of textbook writers and curriculum experts to determine how the content can be built into the elementary and secondary education.

There is an additional and related need to train educators who can apply the findings of the social sciences to education. At present the inclination of the institutes of education is to concentrate on methodology. Old catechistic methods of teaching must be replaced by new, up-to-date efficient teaching methods. In order to achieve this and to reach the goals set by African educators, close collaboration between the social scientists and educators is necessary.

ACTIVE VOCABULARY

Administer; admit to; admission; attend; attendance; basic; board; a board of education;

boarder; boarding school; certificate; teacher's certificate, certificate of secondary education; certification requirements; certificated teacher; course (elective / selective); curriculum; degree (BA, BSc, MA, MSc, Dr); education (primary, secondary, tertiary); educational; educational authorities; educationalist; educator; enroll; enrolment; enter; examination (in a subject); entrance examination; leaving examination; competitive examination; examiner; a board (jury) of examiners; fail / do badly (in an examination); grade; instruct; instruction; the language of instruction; literacy; literate; illiteracy; anti-illiteracy campaign; pass / do well at (an examination); programme; progress through school; promote; promotion; provide (for); provision (for); the three R's; scholarship; school (primary / elementary; secondary /middle; higher; technical; vocational; missionary; normal; preparatory; intermediate; junior high; senior high; public; private; state-run; non-state-run); to sit / re-sit an exam; subject (academic / obligatory); teaching methods (active, passive, bookish, catechistic); train; professional training; a teacher's training college.

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