MODERN METHODS OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN PRESCHOL EDUCATION

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Abstract: *This article is devoted to modern methods of teaching foreign languages about the main methods of teaching English.*
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INTRODUCTION

In every language there is variety. A language varies from one place to another, from one era to another, from one occasion to another. The differences may be in choice of words to express a meaning, as with petrol versus gas(oline) or dual carriageway versus divided highway. Differences exist in word formation: for the past tense of the verb dive does one say dived or dove? There are possible differences in the ways that words are put together to form phrases and sentences: would you say, for instance. They gave it me, or they gave me it, or They gave it to me? In this book we are concerned with differences in pronunciation. Some words are spoken differently by different speakers of English, for instance either, garage, and tomato. We are more concerned, however, with systematic differences; for example, some speakers of English pronounce an R in such words as car and horn and other speakers do not; for the former spa and spar sound different, for the latter group the two words are homophones.

There are interesting differences in the vowel systems of different dialects: how different are stock and stalk (and stork), for instance? We can discuss language variation under two headings: differences among people, the users of language, and differences in the uses of language, the ways in which people employ language on different occasions.

First, we are all aware of the differences of the sort mentioned in the first paragraph, above. People who live in different areas speak different regional, or geographic, dialects. The geographic differences in English reflect the different times

in which speakers of English settled in an area, how diverse they were in their origins, how much contact they have had with other speakers of the language and what influence there has been from speakers of other languages.

Geographic dialects are not the only kind of difference among speakers of a language. In any locality different people grow up with different advantages and opportunities for education; the forms of language used by the more educated are generally considered more prestigious than the forms used by the less educated (but that doesn't mean that the less educated want to talk differently). Such differences are social dialects. We may also speak of age dialects – nobody expects teenagers to talk like their grandparents, or vice versa – and sex dialects – men and women use language differently. The differences of these sorts are mostly in vocabulary, however, and are not of great concern in a book on pronunciation. The geographic differences are important for this book. The next section briefly traces the expansion of the English language to account for the major varieties of the language in our times. Chapter 4 contains a more technical account of what these differences are.

MAIN PART

When Angles, Saxons, and Jutes migrated from the continent of Europe to the island of Britain in the fifth century ad, they spoke a language which was to become English. Within two centuries they had subjugated, intermarried with, or pushed back the people who were there before them, until varieties of English were being spoken in most of what is now England and in the lowlands of Scotland (though some have maintained that Scots is a language related to English rather than a dialect of it). The Celtic languages of the original inhabitants were confined to Cornwall, Wales, and the highlands and islands of Scotland. In the centuries that followed regional varieties of English developed in a feudal society that had no ruling class nor dominant center.

With the establishment of a strong, centralized kingdom under the Tudors in the sixteenth century the importance of London continued to grow, but until the Industrial Revolution, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, most Englishmen spoke some regional variety of English.

The Industrial Revolution brought rural populations into the cities. During the nineteenth century a larger middle class came into existence, and the idea of belonging to the middle class became associated with speaking a particular form of English. This particular way of speaking came to be called Received Pronunciation (RP). In the twentieth century the British Broadcasting Corporation selected and trained announcers to speak with an RP 'accent,' and RP has been the variety that most foreigners have chosen to learn. But to this day only a small portion of the English population speak RP. Regional and urban dialects remain.

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In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries English monarchs began to annex their Celtic-speaking neighbors to the English crown. In Wales English was established by law as the official language of trade, law, and education in the middle of the sixteenth century, but it did not spread widely as the language of daily life until the nineteenth century. When James VI of Scotland became James I of England he united the crowns and sought to promote throughout Scotland the reading of the English Bible and the establishment of English schools to make this possible.

Though there were settlements of English-speakers in Ireland from the Norman era on, the Anglicization of Ireland is something that began in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, with usurpation of Irish estates and settlement of English and Scottish loyalists there.

The Englishes of Wales, Scotland, and Ireland are essentially the forms of English adopted centuries ago by peoples speaking Welsh, Scots Gaelic, and Irish Gaelic, with the inevitable changes that have occurred in the succeeding period of time, and with the constant influence of RP as a prestige model. If Welsh, Scottish, and Irish English had their origins in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the establishment of English in North America came very shortly after. Newfoundland, Britain's first overseas colony, was claimed for the English Crown in 1588; Jamestown was founded in Virginia in 1607 and Plymouth in Massachusetts in 1620. In the early eighteenth century England gained control of the Maritime provinces of Canada and near the end of that century laid claim to the whole country. Unlike Ireland, Wales, and Scotland, where English was imposed largely on people of Celtic language background, in North America English was the language of people who came from the British Isles or the language learned by people who came later from other parts of Europe. The same is largely true of South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand.

Settlement of the major English-speaking countries of the southern hemisphere dates from the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. The first colony was planted in Australia in 1788, the first settlement of New Zealand in 1792, though in both countries large-scale immigration did not occur until the middle of the nineteenth century. Britain took possession of the Cape Colony in South Africa in 1806, and migration from England and Scotland grew rapidly after 1820. It is well to remember that most people who went out to settle Britain's overseas colonies originated from the northern and western parts of England or from the lower class of London and did not speak the variety which was to become Standard British English. RP has been, however, a prestige norm in most parts of the **Speech and language.** In discussing the pronunciation of English we can focus on one or both of two aspects. On one hand, we may want to describe what people do when they are speaking English. This

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is the aspect of speech, an activity carried on by people who use English for communicating. On the other hand, we may address the question 'What are the characteristics of English words and sentences that are realized in speech?' This is the aspect of language, a code which exists, handed down from the past with slight changes made by each generation, something that is known by those who speak and understand English.

ANALYZES AND RESULTS

In any language there is variety, which can be discussed under two headings, variations among **users** and variations in **uses** of the language. Variations among users include geographic and social dialects, of which the former are of greater interest in this text. Variations in use include differences of **function**, differencesof formality and politeness, and differences of tempo, all of which are intertwined. Language varieties based on such matters of use are called **registers**.

Geographic varieties of English result from a long history of regional differences in England itself; the slow development of a standard which, in its spoken form, is called **Received Pronunciation**; the political domination of Celticspeaking countries by England from the beginnings of the Modern era; and the establishment of colonies overseas from the late sixteenth to the late nineteenth centuries.

It is useful to recognize the distinction between speech, an activity, and **language**, the code which makes communication possible through numerous speech acts. Language is the knowledge which speakers have and which makes communication possible; it is also an inheritance from the past. A language consists of a **lexicon**, a **phonology**, and a **grammar**. Phonology is the description of the sound system of a language, the link between speech and meaning.

CONCLUSION

Phonetics is the science which studies speech sounds as sounds. Although speaking is ordinarily a constant movement of the vocal organs, it is convenient to view speech as a **chain** composed of individual **segments** one after another. Each such segment is a composite of certain **articulatory features**. Some of thesefeatures serve to differentiate meanings in a language; such features are **distinctive** in that language. Features which are not distinctive are **redundant**. Segments which have the same distinctive features constitute a **phoneme** of the language. Phonemes combine in certain possible sequences to express **morphemes**, the units of meaning of the language. Phonemes contrast with one another to differentiate morphemes from one another.

Units of speech from smallest to largest are: **articulatory feature**, **segment**, **syllable**, **tone unit**, **utterance**, and **discourse**.

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