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Secția
ȘTIINȚE SOCIO-UMANE

S U M A R

	<u>Pag.</u>
ELENA TIRON, Dezvoltarea bio-psiho-socio-culturală a adulților (engl., rez. rom.)	9
TUDOR STANCIU, Factori care influențează performanța în educație (engl., rez. rom.)	27
DOINA MIHAELA POPA, Câteva aspecte stilistice la Balzac (franc., rez. rom.)	33
NADINA CEHAN, Construcții condiționale în gramaticile limbii engleze din secolul XIX (engl., rez. rom.)	43
ADY-CONSTANTIN RANCEA, Activitatea fizică și rolul apei (engl ., rez. rom.)	57
ILIE-CĂTĂLIN ȘTIRBU și CĂTĂLINA MIHAELA ȘTIRBU, Îmbunătățirea serviciului în jocul de volei utilizând tehnici orientale Tai Chi-Qi Gong (engl., rez. rom.)	63

Section
SOCIO-HUMANISTIC SCIENCES

C O N T E N T S

	<u>Pag.</u>
ELENA TIRON, The Bio-Psycho-Socio-Cultural Development of the Adults (English, Romanian summary)	9
TUDOR STANCIU, Factors that Influence Achievement in Education (English, Romanian summary)	27
DOINA MIHAELA POPA, Quelques aspects stylistiques chez Balzac (French, Romanian summary)	33
NADINA CEHAN, Conditionals in Nineteenth-Century Grammars of English (English, Romanian summary)	43
ADY-CONSTANTIN RANCEA, Physical Activity and Importance of Water for the Body (English, Romanian summary)	57
ILIE-CĂTĂLIN ȘTIRBU and CĂTĂLINA MIHAELA ȘTIRBU, Improving the Serve Efficiency in Volleyball Using Tai Chi-Qi Gong Oriental Techniques (English, Romanian summary)	63

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THE BIO-PSYCHO-SOCIO-CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADULTS

BY

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Abstract. The paper is structured in several parts: the notion of human development, the stage of adult development and its specificity, the description of adult ages, the roles of the adult (marriage, husband / wife, parental roles, profession). The methods and procedures of study and research used in the article are: description, explanation, comparative analysis and case analysis. The first part defines the adult period of continuation and differentiation from the previous periods as a period of stabilization, professionalization, independence, personality development by responsible assumption of new social roles. It also explains the specific mechanisms: biological, psychological, socio-cultural, learning of adult development. The second part discusses the most frequent staging of the adult period, according to several authors. Several models of adult development are presented and explained: the model of psychological development according to E. Erikson (1965), the model of alternation between stability and transition according to Levinson (1986), we problematize about the cognitive development of the adult (Cavanaugh, 1993), and the specificity of adult thinking is highlighted (Miclea & Lemeni, 1999). We comparatively approach adult affectivity which is structured in different interests and motivations depending on the new roles they assume. We discuss the adult

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attachment style (Secui, 2004) and the typology of adult love (J. A. Lee). At the end of this part, we problematize the five directions of adult personality development: stabilizing self-identity, independence of personal relationships, increasing interests, the humanization of values, and the extension of protection (Albu, 2002). The third part of the paper describes the three sub-periods of adulthood: early adulthood between 35 and 45 years of age, middle adulthood between 45 and 55, extended adulthood (55 to 65 years of age). The fourth part of the paper problematizes marriage, the parent-child relationship and the complexes that can develop from this relationship and the adult occupations in the present knowledge society.

Keywords: human development; adult development; the roles of the adult.

1. Introduction

The Notion of Human Development

Mielu Zlate (2008) “Adulthood is the period of maximum achievement, of the maximum level of professional performance, of the harmonization of interests, skills, habits, of the way individuals establish and cultivate relationships, of consciousness, of effective crystallization.”

The notion of human development is an evolutionary process, of growth and maturation of the human being which goes on throughout life by quantitative and qualitative transformations, by leaps and regressions to previous phases, by sequentially enhancing and improving in a fascinating spiral (Șchiopu & Verza, 1997; Birch, 2000; Crețu, 2016; Muntean, 2006; Bocșa, 2012, 2014; Coste, 2014).

Childhood, adolescence and youth are periods of predominant growth, self-identification and personality crystallization, while adulthood is defined by stabilization, professionalisation, independence, personality development by the responsible assumption of new social roles.

Mechanisms explaining human development (Bonchis & Secui, 2004):

- a. biological, of the biological equipment maturation (A. Gesell);
- b. psychological, of the interaction of the psyche with the environment through assimilation, adaptation, balancing (Piaget & Inhelder, 1976);
- c. socio-cultural, of the internalizing of the socio-historical significations by the individual (Vigotski);
- d. of learning.

Research has shown that human development is not only the result of the action of a single category of factors: heredity, the environment or education, but of the interaction among them.

We believe that human development, being complex and multidimensional, is the specific interaction between internal and external factors, innate and/or acquired factors, biological, psychological, social, and cultural.

2. The Stages of Adult Development and Their Specificity

The most frequent periodization (Șchiopu & Verza, 1997; Muntean, 2006, Briceag S., 2014) establishes the following periods of adulthood:

- a. Early adulthood, between 35 and 45 years of age;
- b. Middle age, between 45 and 55 years old;
- c. Late adulthood, between 55 and 65 years of age.

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The research of J. Piaget (1976), H. Wallon (1975), S. Freud (1992), A.N. Leontiev (1964), L. Kohlberg (1981), A. Binet (1975) confirmed the stages of psychological development, in the cognitive, emotional, moral and behavioral domains during childhood and adolescence. Naturally, questions arise about the existence of developmental stages valid for the adult period. The model of personality development has gradually expanded to adults, even though the changes specific to each stage are not radical. Current research trends have highlighted more fluid life cycles in a society where age is less relevant to specific events.

From a psychosocial point of view, the Neo-Freudian E. Erikson (1976) develops a model of self development by referencing the person to others and by solving a conflict specific to each development period from 1 year to over 65 years.

As young adult (20-35 years of age), the individual faces the sixth conflict: intimacy – isolation in relationships with others. If the person has no fears or concerns about the loss or alteration of his identity, he fuses with the identity of the other in harmonious intimacy. If the person is not sufficiently free, mature and responsible to accept certain risks of intimacy, he remains isolated in his own rigid and immobile identity.

At maturity, the individual is faced with a conflict of generativity – routine/stagnation (35-60 years of age). Becoming is defined by Erikson as generativity or the ability to relate productively and creatively to family, society, interest and caring for others. The stagnation of personality is manifested by monotony and excessive interest towards one's own person.

Late adulthood, over the age of 65, is characterized by the integrity versus despair conflict. If in the self-evaluation of achievements in his life the person lives in the state of satisfaction and the acceptance of death the conflict is solved. If the person cannot accept loss in life and death itself, he/she lives the despair of an unresolved conflict.

The phenomena of isolation, stagnation, routine, depression that can occur in the adulthood can be addressed from the educational point of view,

through educational, psychological and even psychiatric counseling, if necessary.

R. Peck (1968, apud Vander Zanden, 1985) identifies more precisely the tasks faced by the person during maturity, which he relates not so much to the chronological age, as to the events of the person's existence. They consist in:

- cherishing wisdom versus appreciating physical force;
- socializing versus sexuality in relationships;
- emotional flexibility versus emotional impoverishment.

The adult needs a wide range of social experiences to appreciate wisdom more than physical strength to understand the importance of the ability to make good wisdom-specific decisions. Age also allows a certain detachment from relating to others strictly on sexual terms and appreciating friendship, interpersonal aid, with a high emotional flexibility.

D. Levinson (1986) thinks that development in adult stages consists of an alternation between periods of stability and transition. The author shows that adults engage in the formation of personality structure during periods of stability, while during transition periods changes occur in the earlier structure in areas bearing special importance at that moment. For the first years of maturity, based on the results of the study, the author describes two stages:

- transition to maturity – also known as and as the maturity crisis starting at around the age of 40 and lasting between 4 and 6 years. It is a time when the people surveyed are concerned with the reassessment of the previously built existence structure; they ask themselves questions about important issues whose development was previously designed: family life and professional development, the axiological system, their own capacities and the way they were cultivated. For Levinson's subjects this period was characterized by a crisis of medium or high intensity, product of the discrepancies between reality and previously set ideals.

- entering maturity – it starts after the age of 45 and focuses on the construction of a new structure of existence. Certain interests, ignored or undiscovered desires are now integrated into future plans, these issues sometimes leading to notable changes in the professional or family life. There is also the risk of unresolved call for reprojection of the future evolution, with negative consequences for the individual (Cavanaugh, 1993).

From a cognitive point of view, adult thinking differs from that of the teenager and young person by certain characteristics:

1. It is relativistic, for adults the information does not have an absolute quality, the truth is not unique but multiple, depending on its subjective charge (Cavanaugh, 1993).

2. It is dialectic, having the capacity to accept and resolve the contradictions between ideas, between antagonistic points of view.

3. It is systematic, integrating information into a system (Vander Zanden, 1985).

Other authors (Miclea and Lemeni, 1999) characterize adult thinking by:

1. greater volume of information processing;
2. based on experience and reflection;
3. metacognition, developing thinking about thinking, the management of thinking;
4. advanced knowledge transfer;
5. heuristic strategies of solving problems.

Even though cognitive development is completed after the age of 14, according to the Piagetian model, the adult forms a specific profile of his development, where experience, professional expertise, efficiency, pragmatism, collaborative work are defining.

The main feature of adult thinking seems to be the focus on the concrete-practical-efficient, which allows the coexistence of contradictions and focuses on a single goal. Thinking in terms of an "infinite number of possibilities" seems to be no longer adaptive at this age, it is focused on solving real problems in a short time. In this problem-solving process, the individual accepts contradiction, imperfections and compromise as part of the demands of adult life. (Labouvie-Vief, 1980; Secui, 2004).

Dennis's (1966) studies of creativity on a batch of 738 scientists and artists aged 40 to 70 showed that the most productive period is around the age of 40. Generally, original productions are created by 20- and 30-year-olds, while work requiring extensive knowledge and analysis is made later.

Adult affection is structured on differentiated interests and motivations according to the new roles adults have undertaken: the role of parent, of professional in a given field, of husband/wife. Adult affection stabilizes, gains balance in these new roles, calibrates in different social relationships, having a parental, family, and professional specificity.

Studies performed (Collins & Read, 1990) indicate the fact that the attachment style in adults is related to the quality of the connection between the two partners (Secui, 2004):

- a. adults having a secure attachment structure own a greater degree of acceptance of intimacy and greater trust, safety in the relationship with their partner;
- b. people having an avoidant structure fear too much intimacy tending to withdraw from the relationship;
- c. adults having an anxious/ambivalent structure want an extremely close relationship, manifesting exaggerated dependence towards their partner together with the fear of losing the other's love or to be deserted.

Another typology is proposed by JA Lee (apud Mitrofan and Ciuperca, 1997). It includes the following categories of people in love (Secui, 2004):

1. The erotic (Eros) is a romantic who seeks the ideal partner and believes that there is only one, authentic for him/her. These individuals want an

intense relationship with their partner, once in the relationship, they are usually loyal. Physical attraction towards their partner is particularly important.

2. The ludic (Ludus) is the type of unfaithful, unstable, preferring several parallel relationships. They like variety, novelty and do not involve themselves too much in a relationship. They are pleasant individuals, have a rich imagination, fantasy, and know how to conquer others.

3. The Storgic (Storge) is a partner that provides affection, believes in the stability of the relationship, treats the partner as an irreplaceable friend. They know their partner well, value trust between partners and are loyal. Even if the love relationship ends, they continue being friends with their partner.

4. The Maniac (Mania) is highly emotionally dependent and extremely jealous. They suffer from the fear of rejection, of not being loved by their partner. They experience love very intensely and constantly think about the person they love; for this reason, the physical separation from the partner does not lessen the intensity of the feeling of love.

5. The Agapic (Agape) is the least possessive and the most forgiving of all six types of adults in love. They are very patient and accept, tolerate almost any kind of partner behavior. They always offer their help to the other no matter what.

6. The Pragmatist (Pragma) is a person who acts as though love is a business opportunity, trying to achieve the best "profit" possible. Their interest in a person is always related to the calculation of the costs incurred and the benefits they have in the relationship.

Of these types of lovers, the storgic offers the greatest trust to the partner, is stable and leads to a balanced relationship with the partner. All the other types have their negative aspects that can be identified by the adults themselves or by certain psychologically qualified individuals capable of providing couple or marriage counseling.

Depending on the attachment style, avoidant, anxious people may need support, guidance or even counseling, to support marriage, to solve family and couple issues.

Moral development continues throughout adulthood and if in childhood and adolescence it seems to be largely dependent on cognitive development, in the next few years the most important part belongs to personal experience in social situations. Differences are due to the masculine or feminine nature, but also to the cultural environment to which the person belongs. (Secui, 2004).

Adult personality can be analyzed through five essential factors, which comprise the model of description and analysis "Big Five":

- Extraversion – is the ability to orientate personality towards the outside, the way of involvement in action, the sociability of the person;
- Agreeability – denotes the individual differences revealed by social interaction (friendship, pleasure) and refers in particular to the person's emotional qualities and prosocial behaviors;

- Conscientiousness – refers to the concrete, characteristic feature of the individual in dealing with the tasks, activities, problems that occur in his life – includes features such as order, discipline, social responsibility;

- Emotional stability – represents the individual differences regarding the emotional characteristics of a person – calm, happy, emotional, etc., – but also the response to the various emotional difficulties – anxiety, depression, irritability, etc.;

Intellect – it includes aspects of intellectual functions – creativity, inventiveness, experience, etc.

In the case of adult personality we identify five development directions (Albu, 2002):

Stabilizing the identity of the self – the feeling about one's own person is strong, clear and firm. Engaging intensely in social roles helps the adult to define and maintain a stable sense of self.

Independence of personal relationships – with the stabilization of the self, the adult has increased interest in other people, becoming able to develop strong friendships.

Increasing their interests – constant engagement in certain areas leads to satisfaction in the realization of interests (hobbies).

Humanization of values – awareness of the human aspects and consequences values, as well as the way they apply to society.

Extending protection – there is an interest in the welfare of other individuals, not only for those who are known, but also for other individuals in distress.

Developing between normal limits in adulthood involves increasing self-awareness, independence in social relationships, stabilization of interests and their orientation towards the profession, but also to other areas such as hobbies, friendship, protection of the whole, humanization of values.

But human development is not the same for all adults, and therefore, depending on some unfavorable conditions, certain manifestations of psychic instability, dependence on others, dissatisfaction with the profession, family, children, certain deviations that may be requests for support and counseling.

3. Description of Adult Ages

The adult period is characterized by a number of specific features (Allport, 1996): an enlarged self-awareness, intimate rapport and relationships, fundamental emotional security, objective preoccupations, relative harmony to personal acquisitions in personal experience. During this period, attitudes are mainly influenced by: social and professional competition, the family situation, the internalization of the world and its real imperfections, the occupations of everyday life, the internalization of the definitive character of one's destiny, the confrontation with the finitude of existence in the real world.

The early adult age, ranging from 35 to 45 (Sacaliuc, N., 2012) is the stage in which the individual tries to become independent of his parents and builds what Levinson called the dream – the vision of life, outlining his goals, to ensure motivation and enthusiasm for the future. Between 28-33, the individual faces the transition of the age of 30, characterized by questions and problems related to the profession and family. The key feature of the early adult (period) season is the existence of a mentor, an older and more experienced collaborator who supports and encourages both the professional career and life in general.

The first adult age (35-45) – is an age of stability, with intense, active and creative professional activity. Social status and roles are more burdened with responsibilities, and within family life the content of parental subidentity develops. The transition to the core of life occurs around the age of 40 and lasts almost five years. This transition period makes the connection between early and late adulthood and, according to Levinson, it is a period of crisis in which people are self-assessing. This reassessment consists of evaluating achievements according to the criteria established in the previous period – the "dream" – and, where necessary, readjusting these goals. Vinson believes that the individual must agree with the discrepancies between the goals previously proposed in life and the present reality and mentions that qualities such as wisdom and compassion often appear in middle adulthood.

After 40 years, biological changes are slow and gradual so there seems to be no differences from this point of view in relation to the previous age. However, visual sensitivity is declining, the first obvious changes in visual acuity appear. The acoustic sensitivity decreases gradually, especially the ability to hear high-frequency sounds. These changes in sensory and psychomotricity can affect self-image and, implicitly, interpersonal relationships.

But standard intelligence tests demonstrate that performance in most intellectual items grows at maturity, with different skills reaching the maximum level at different times. Certainly, verbal skills reach a high level of performance at this age. Although the mature adult needs a slightly longer time to carry out a range of tasks and may not be willing to resolve new problems, these difficulties can be compensated by experience and conscientiousness.

The processuality of thinking is now different in relation to earlier ages. Piaget considered that the highest level of thinking is characterized by formal logic and is definitely formed at the beginning of adolescence. And yet, the intelligence of adults is more than that. In essence, it should be noted that at this age is not about intellectual deterioration, but about reorientation. Therefore, lifelong learning, or adult education is a necessity, not an option. The authors encourage "self-directed learning projects", especially for those who are more interested in acquiring knowledge than social recognition.

The average adult age (45 to 55) is seen as the specific period for strengthening interests, goals and engagements. In adulthood between 45 and 55

years of age – partner and parent sub-identity is diluted along with increased professional and socio-cultural responsibilities. The sense of success and fulfillment, respectively of failure/unfulfillment, is realized. This is characterized by increased professional and social responsibility because of the phenomenon of job change or even recycling. The spouse subidentity will diminish slightly as well as the parent subidentity, given that children's independence no longer requires a permanent awareness in this role. Feminine evolution is relatively more tense and burdened by bio-hormonal indispositions and anxiety.

The prolonged adult period (55-65) is, especially for women, a critical period and is characterized by a certain decrease in physical strength. It is dominated by the process of professional disengagement, the sense of success/failure and retirement anxiety may arise. Family is in the process of denuclearization, children are detached from their parents, become independent they make up their own family.

There is a decrease in the professional subidentity; the family marital subidentity and that of the social-cultural activity remain active. Studies show that after the age of 55, men have greater difficulty in perceiving sounds than women do. The involution of taste sensations begins at about 50 and particularly affects the ability to distinguish very close tones as taste. Only the olfactory sensitivity is stable during this period.

In terms of psychomotricity, skills and reflexes formed during the previous ages are in a gradual decline, which is compensated by experience, conscientiousness and attention, so job performance remains relatively constant.

Research shows that sociological theories – the theory of disengagement, the theory of activity, age stratification theory, social exchange theory, and socioeconomic theory – are the most widespread sociological theories that explain social aging, but also contain the elements that make up premises for the action of the factors involved to alleviate or delay the effects of aging.

We sustain (Cristian Vasile, 2010), according to recent research, that the performance decline after the age of 50 is closely related to the phenomenon of psychological self-programming in a destructive way, the decrease of the interest in learning new things, but also to the activation of genes responsible for aging (cellular apoptosis). Therefore the psychological aspects of personality, previously formed and permanently consolidated, of self-esteem, the reconfiguration of objectives, the permanent engaging in learning, action and creation are mechanisms that slow down intellectual, psychological and even biological aging, leading the person to successful living and life satisfaction.

4.The Roles of the Adult. Marriage. The Role of Husband/Wife. Parental Roles. Profession

Marriage is the most common relationship with a partner. This involves the founding of a family, that is, a socially recognized group, united by moral,

legal, economic, religious and social rights and obligations, made up of husband, wife and children or other relatives (Lefrancois, 1984).

The evolution of the family goes through some stages and E. Duvall (1977, apud Sigelman & Shaffer, 1995) proposes the following stages of family life centered on the appearance and development of children:

1. newly married couples without children;
2. family with ante-pre-school children (under 30 months of age);
3. family with pre-school children (30 months — 6 years old);
4. family with school children (6 - 13 years old);
5. family with teenage children (13 - 20 years old);
6. the family as a "launch ramp" for young people (from the departure of the first child to the youngest leaving the home);
7. the stage of the "empty nest" (from the departure of the youngest to the moment of professional withdrawal);
8. family with third-age members (from retirement to the death of one of the partners).

Each of these stages has its own specificity, as children grow, the parental tasks of material and psychological children support multiply as well, especially the tasks of their education and training.

If, traditionally, the family was seen as primarily fulfilling the economic, procreation and socialization functions of children, now the emphasis is placed on the psycho-affective function. Partners expect to give each other love, care, respect and support. Marriage is seen as a positive experience, which promises to fulfill and enrich the person, and when these effects are not present, divorce is increasingly viewed as a way to exit from this critical situation, a solution to continue the search for a new partner with whom such a relationship becomes possible. So the women and the men, which in the contemporary society have decided to wed out of sincere love, when they find out their marriage no longer means intimacy, affection, care, feel free to end it (Papalia & Olds, 2010). This change is reflected by the reasons for divorce invoked: if in 1948 in the American society divorce was most frequently requested because of violence, heavy drinking and the lack of financial support from the partner, in 1985 the most mentioned reasons were the lack of sense of closeness, love, problems of communication and in the field of sexual relations (Cavanaugh, 1993).

Among the factors that contributed to the increase of the divorce rate and to the change in attitudes towards marriage and divorce, the economic empowerment of women is noted, on the background of industrialization, modernization and urbanization. By engaging in work the woman no longer depends economically on the man and no longer has to tolerate any behavior. There is also the democratization and liberalization of social life, the diminishing influence of the church, the more permissive legislation on divorce, the reduction of the typical pressures of the traditional society, which

stigmatizes the divorced individuals and their relatives (Iluț, 1995). As such, the social picture of divorce is not so negative nowadays, even if it is seen as a negative event, an extremely stressful experience, difficult for all those involved. The idea of divorce as a possible solution is more and more often circulated, the belief that it is better to live alone than in an unhappy union and that it is not always the best thing for children that parents remain together for their sake, regardless of the nature and intensity of the marital problems.

In Romania marriage takes different forms: the classical, traditional marriage, the consensual union, concubinage. The reasons for choosing one of these forms are diverse: economic, cultural, psycho-social. In rural areas, people with a low economic level, poorly trained and with a limited cultural level, concubinage is frequently met. In concubinage, the classical spouse roles are maintained, the legal ones being affected, children not being able to enjoy the same rights as in the traditional family. The concubinage also brings to light the unconscious tendencies such as the aggression manifested among spouses, those negative character traits that could be controlled by the rules of a classical family.

In shaping the family profile, the parental roles, mother and father, are equally important. These roles are complex, having an economic, social, psycho-educational structure through which parents engage more or less consciously in providing the material conditions necessary for the normal development of children in ensuring the socio-emotional climate of safety, affection, needed for the psychological development of the children, in the orientation and education of children. The two parenting roles are also different between them: the conscious or unconscious father provides the male model of child development and the mother provides the female model. The male is the one who, according to the psychoanalytic literature, provides the example of force, will, decision, responsibility. The mother offers the example of affection, self-confidence, tolerance, of the help manifested in the relationship with children.

4.1. The Parent-Child Relationship. The Complexes

In the parent-child relationship there may appear certain dysfunctionalities or even complexes, due to painful situations for the subject, which could not be solved. I. Popescu Sibiu (Enăchescu, 1998) classifies the following types of complexes:

- Ideo-emotional complexes of the unconscious
 1. the object complexes: Oedipus complex, Electra complex, Cain complex, Orestes complex;
 2. the complexes of the Ego: the complex of inferiority, superiority, the castration complex, Diana complex, the complex of Narcissus;
- Spiritual complexes, of the conscious or of the moral consciousness.

The most common complexes are according to Muccielli:

1. the abandonment complex;
2. the complex of fraternal rivalry;
3. insecurity, hesitance;
4. the complex of castration or sexual assertion;
5. the complex of guilt;
6. the complex of inferiority.

Monica Lusiana Mihăilă describes the following conflicts:

Oedipus Complex is the boy's complex between 3 and 6 years of age with respect to his mother and father. It is an ensemble of ambivalent, positive and negative, unconscious feelings that are organized in a certain model of parent-child relationship. The boy exhibits unconscious rivalry towards the same-sex parent and attraction to the opposite sex parent. The boy exceeds this complex by the appearance of the castration complex (he imagines that the father will castrate him if he continues his attraction to his mother) and at the same time represents an extremely important moment, that of the Super-ego formation, by unconsciously internalizing the prohibition of incest. Unresolved, this complex may lead to the impossibility of an authentic relationship of the boy turned into an adult with another woman.

Seen in terms of adult individuals, the mother for whom the son feels attraction, the father for whom the son feels opposition, may have different behaviors:

- his mother responds to the boy with a certain degree of inappropriate sensuality;
- the father responds with uncontrolled aggressive conduct;
- the mother and the father respond with indifference;
- both respond with aggressiveness in an attempt to undo the boy's conduct.

In the Oedipus Complex where the two adults are involved, it is healthy for them to know the complex and to avoid or counteract the boy's manifestations in a non-aggressive manner, awaiting the formation of the Super-ego that will prohibit incest.

Electra Complex is the complex of the daughter manifested through an unconscious orientation of love and attention towards the father following the complex of castration and hostility towards the mother. The complex disappears as a result of the girl's fear of being harmed by her father and begins identification with her mother. All these psychic processes, like all the complexes, develop at an unconscious level. And the lack of solving this complex leads to the impossibility of a satisfying erotic relationship in adult life; and getting over the Electra complex signifies the onset of Super-ego formation.

Cain Complex is manifested between siblings, having as object the fear of losing or sharing parental love with another brother. This complex is defined

as a rivalry between siblings that can lead to feelings of hostility, aggression. Of great importance in this case is the way parents report to this rivalry. If parents have the information and the tact needed to solve conflicts, then it is possible for this complex to be solved, turning rivalry into positive feelings. This complex can affect both the older child who, at the birth of a sibling in particular, may feel neglected, deprived of the love and undivided attention of his/her parents or may occur in the younger sibling who believes that parents favor the eldest, not taking into consideration the age difference between him/her and his/her sibling, their specific needs.

The complex of fraternal rivalry, *Cain complex* in adulthood can be manifested by: aggressive jealousy to everything that is likely to compete for a benefit, challenging attitudes, irony, contempt for the social rival.

The fraternal rivalry complex can take different forms:

1. The winner, the person wishes to be the first in any situation, develops the competition to the maximum, social situations being perceived in terms of rivalry.

2. The protector, the person exaggeratedly protects the one he considers his rival.

Anyways, the attitude of the parents is essential in the evolution of this complex: a balanced emotional relationship towards children helps solving the complex and when parents support one of the children, neglecting the others, the complex is aggravated.

Orestes Complex is the boy's complex with his mother and represents the unconscious desire of the boy to kill his mother as an extension and not ending of the Oedipus complex, a negative Oedipus complex or abandonment complex.

The abandonment complex is manifested by: the certainty of being rejected, of being disliked, the feeling of being marginalized, of not being interested in anyone, the impression of the lack of the possibility of being loved, appreciated and acknowledged.

This complex is manifested in several forms:

1. the type who begs for love, affection, always feels the need for an ideal mother;

2. the insensitive type who ridicules any form of affection;

3. the philosopher type who forms a conception of the world of abandoned and insane individual;

4. the active type who is looking for permanent affection and sees herself as the ideal mother.

The insecurity complex

The sense of security is inherent to the normal development of the psyche (Maslow's pyramid). The difficulty of developing this feeling can lead to anxiety, isolation and even depression. The adult can develop a lack of self-

confidence, feeling of imminent danger, anxious hiperemotivity. This complex has different shapes such as:

1. Anxious hyperactivity and permanent tremor;
2. Phobias with psychosomatic manifestations;
3. Excessive caution;
4. The particular philosophical conception: life is for death.

The guilt complex

The feelings expressed in adulthood are: fear of accountability, inhibition in action, the need to foresee everything, exaggerated sense of duty, self-discipline.

This resort knows different forms:

- a. fear of mistake;
- b. the failure complex;
- c. purity;
- d. not being able to recognize the existence of the complex.

The inferiority complex is expressed in adulthood by:

- the fear of being ridiculous;
- the feeling of helplessness;
- the certainty of personal failure;
- the tendency to flee, to go unnoticed, to resign.

The forms of manifestation of this complex are:

- the ordinary form;
- obsession;
- forms compensated in another field;
- overcompensated forms: the complex of superiority, unbelievable confidence in themselves, the certainty of success, the intelligence complex, the spectacular complex.

All these complexes may become the subject of solicitations of counseling aid from adults who could not overcome them by themselves. If these complexes constitute obstacles in the adults' successfully adapting to the professional, family and to living life with satisfaction, these manifestations should become alarm signals for both the subjects in question and for their relatives or acquaintances, friends, employers to undertake adult guidance towards specialist support.

4.2. Profession

The profession is another subidentity of the adult person, along with the family, marital and parental ones. This means that the adult is defined by each of these subidentities and by all together.

If the family subidentity develops the basic psychosocial relationship, attachment, intimacy, socialization, the parent subidentity develops the behaviors of care, support, affection, responsibility, guidance, the professional subidentity develops the behaviors of active participation in the development of society, evolution and changing the world.

Ideally, personality and profession should establish a balanced correspondence between demand and supply. This means that personality through its competencies can provide what the profession requires, and that the profession offers what the person requires through his needs, interests and aspirations. But this perfect correspondence is idealistic in reality, the mechanisms of adjustment are gradually installing between personality and profession, which are continuously adapting to each other.

In Romania, after December 1989, the concrete person and personality in its evolution suffered more shocks: economic, political, educational through the emergence of new market economic tendencies, of multiple political parties, of the student-centered education in the knowledge society. Personality has adapted to new professions such as top-model, broker, banker, seller, business owner, telephone operator, programmer, designer, manager, software engineer. The personality-profession relationship gained new aspects such as the financial, the contextual, which created a new trend. Through these changes the person began to accept the jobs and professions that are accessible at a certain moment, accepted the change of several professions and trades, the relationship between profession and personality becoming more flexible.

But the degree of satisfaction of the person remains dependent on the same correspondence between profession and personality even if its criteria change.

5. Conclusions

In conclusion, adult development has its own specificities, disciplines such as general psychology, genetic psychology not being able to provide an adequate comprehension of the adult. The disciplines that study development in adulthood with its specificities are: developmental psychology, age psychology, adult psychopedagogy, the latter highlighting the interaction between the biological, psychological, social and cultural development of the adult.

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DEZVOLTAREA BIO-PSIHO-SOCIO-CULTURALĂ A ADULȚILOR (Rezumat)

Lucrarea este structurată în mai multe părți: noțiunea de dezvoltare umană, stadialitatea dezvoltării la adulți și specificul ei, descrierea vârstelor adulte, rolurile adultului (căsătoria, soț/soție, rolurile parentale, profesiunea). Metodele și procedeele de studiu și cercetare folosite în articol sunt: descrierea, explicația, problematizarea, analiza comparativă și analiza de caz. În prima parte se definește perioada adultă, de continuare dar și diferențiere față de perioadele anterioare ca o perioadă de stabilizare, profesionalizare, independență, dezvoltare a personalității prin asumarea responsabilă a unor roluri sociale noi. De asemenea sunt explicate mecanismele specifice: biologice, psihologice, socio-culturale, de învățare, ale dezvoltării adulților. În partea a doua se discută cea mai frecventă stadializare a perioadei adulte, după mai mulți autori. Sunt prezentate și explicitate mai multe modele de dezvoltare ale adulților: modelul de dezvoltare psihosocială după E. Erikson (1965), modelul alternanței între stabilitate și tranziție după Levinson (1986), se problematizează cu privire la dezvoltarea cognitivă a adultului (Cavanaugh, 1993), se pune în evidență specificul gândirii adulților (Miclea și Lemeni, 1999). Este abordată comparativ și afectivitatea adulților care se structurează în interese și motivații diferențiate în funcție de rolurile noi pe care și le asumă aceștia. Se discută despre stilul de atașament al adulților (Secui, 2004) și despre tipologia iubirii la adulți (J.A. Lee). În finalul acestei părți se problematizează după (Albu, 2002) despre cele 5 direcții de dezvoltare a personalității adulte: stabilizarea identității eului, independența relațiilor personale, creșterea intereselor, umanizarea valorilor, extinderea ocrotirii. În partea a treia a lucrării se descriu cele trei subperioade ale vârstei adulte: perioada adultă timpurie între 35 și 45 de ani, perioada adultă mijlocie între 45 și 55 de ani, perioada adultă prelungită (55-65 ani). În partea a patra a lucrării se problematizează despre căsătorie, despre relația părinte-copil și complexe care se pot dezvolta din această relație ca și despre profesiunile adultului în societatea actuală a cunoașterii. Concluziile lucrării pun în evidență dezvoltarea bi-psiho-socio-culturală a adulților și interacțiunea dintre ele.

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FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE ACHIEVEMENT IN EDUCATION

BY

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Abstract. Pisa studies show that Belgium and Romania have poor performance in education at pre-university level.

Through the study I investigated to what extent the socio-economic level of the family (given by the level of education and occupation of the parents as well as of the family income) is associated with the academic performance of the preadolescent pupils in Romania compared to Belgium.

Keywords: assessment; socio-economic factors; education.

1. Introduction

There are many factors that, either alone or in combination with the socio-economic status of the family, can influence the school performance of students (Desforges, 2003; Epstein, 2011; Topor, 2010; Bempechat, 1992; Gherasim, 2013):

- Lack of motivation towards school tasks;
- Children's perception of the importance of education for their future;
- Genetics / Heredity;
- The influence of colleagues;
- Involvement and attitude of parents;

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- School involvement;
- Culture and school climate / school quality;
- Absence of correct and rapid application of school knowledge;
- Welfare of the students' families;
- The family;
- The family context;
- Attitudes and practices of teachers;
- Community / social support;
- Difficulties and personal contexts of the student;
- The influence of peer groups;
- The health of family members;
- Characteristics of the community;
- Lack of hope;
- Transition between different learning cycles;
- Assigning the causes of events;
- Assigned effort;
- Self-esteem;
- Learning strategies;
- Auto efficiency;
- Other contextual factors.

Each of these factors does not act independently, there are interdependence relationships between them that contribute holistically to the academic performance of the student.

Along with school, the family is the primary element by which the child clarifies his ties to the environment and all that surrounds him, this being one of the decisive factors that contribute to the development of the future student, preparing him for school and life. A path that has proved effective in affirming the student's personal autonomy is the partnership of these two distinct and sometimes disparate systems.

All theoretical models emphasize communication with the goal of increasing mutual trust, ultimately leading to the responsible autonomy of the adolescent.

The relationship between socio-economic status (SES) and pupils' school performance has been studied and documented in the literature since 1960 (Pokropek, 2015) and reveals that pupils in favourable and advantageous socio-economic backgrounds have a better performance at school than students from families with low SES, or those who are poor.

The meta-analysis (Desforges, 2003; Sirin, 2005) shows very strong and strong correlations between SES indicators and school performance but may vary widely between countries (Pokropek, 2015).

Differences in student performance are due to several factors that have a more significant effect than the SES. Among these factors, the development of a home-based learning environment (HLE), the parents' attitudes towards

education, and aspirations for their children (Desforges, 2003, p. 22) are of particular importance.

For the comparative study, Belgium has been chosen for several reasons, including the fact that it is a kingdom and from a historical point of view, has economic and cultural stability, it is the seat of the European Union and the place of origin of many personalities (Georges Lemaitre, Jeane Baptiste Reinhardt, Rene Margritte, George Remi (Herge), Stromae, etc.) and famous educators such as G. De Landsheere, L. D'Hainaut who is the first to contribute – with the founding of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 1945) - to the educational phenomenon on a planetary and continental scale through the "Programmes d'Etudes et Education Permanente" publication in the "L'Education en devenir" collection.

2. The Research

This research highlights the positive correlations between the SES level of parents and the school performance of pupils in Romania and Belgium.

In both countries the educational level of the parents is positively associated with the pupils' school results.

I have formulated seven main assumptions explaining in a comparative approach between Romania and Belgium these mediocre results in Romania and Belgium:

1. There are significant associations between school performance of pupils and socio-economic indicators specific to families in each country.
2. There are significant differences between school results, depending on the country of origin.
3. There are differences between countries in terms of school performance, depending on the educational level of the parents.
4. There are significant differences in school performance, depending on the level of parenting education in Romania.
5. There are significant differences in school performance, depending on the level of parental education, in Belgium.
6. The occupational level of parents significantly influences pupils' school results.
7. The economic status of the family influences significantly the pupils' school results.

The test for independent samples indicates that there is a significant difference between mother tongue results between the Belgian and Romanian sample, meaning that the enrollment in mother tongue and math is higher for those in Romania than for those in Belgium.

Anova Univariate for analyzing the main effects and interaction between the country of origin variables and the educational level of the parents shows that only in the level of mother's education, in the subgroups of this level

(with higher education/higher education), differences are observed and these only occur in the case mother tongue, not math.

The results of the Post Hoc test (Games-Howell for unequal groups) and descriptive results of the Romanian and mathematical dependent variables, depending on the occupation of parents, show a significant difference between those who occupy specific functions of a higher level of education than those with a level medium or elementary (worker).

Similarly, the study between the socio-economic levels of parents' income in Romania shows a significant difference between those with over-average income, those with medium or basic social/basic benefits.

3. Methodology

The study included 214 Romanian students (45.3% boys) and 165 Belgian students (46.7% boys) aged between 13 and 17. In Belgium, of the total of 165 respondents, the number of male respondents was 46.7% and the number of female respondents was 53.3%. The gender distribution of the respondents was approximately equal. For the analysis of the school results, the results obtained in the mother tongue and mathematics were taken into account as the motivation for learning is related to the results obtained in the mother tongue (the official language of the respective country) and in mathematics.

The results were encoded in Belgium with Google Docs and in Romania with SPSS.

Managing questionnaires in Romania was pencil-paper based (with an average administration time of 20 minutes) and in Belgium online. The questionnaires were applied between November 2016 and May 2017. They were applied in the county of Iași, Romania and in Belgium the Walloon region. The questionnaires were accompanied by a short presentation in Romanian/Walloon on the purpose of applying the questionnaires.

4. Conclusions

An important influence on student outcomes is the socio-economic status of the family. The school results of the preadolescents are better if the education of the parents is high because parents are a successful model for children.

The analysis of the main effects specific to the interaction between countries shows that there are differences that are not highlighted when the effects of SES are studied separately for each country.

Our results are consistent with other studies conducted over the last 50 years (Desforges, 2003).

In Romania and Belgium, there is a positive correlation between the level of education of the parents and the pupils' school results. We expect the

EU policies to continue to put pressure to state policy to prevent further damage and improve the Romanian educational system. We also hope that other countries on the way to EU accession will struggle against this type of problems.

Families are the first educators of their children. They continue to influence their learning and development in the school years and long afterwards. Schools in turn have a great responsibility to help families trust schools and work with them to provide a solid educational base for the future of children. At the same time, schools must recognize the main role of the family in education. That is why it is important for families and schools to work together in partnerships.

Our research suggests the need for compensatory measures taken by school and community for children in families with low SES.

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FACTORI CARE INFLUENȚEAZĂ PERFORMANȚA ÎN EDUCAȚIE

(Rezumat)

Studiile Pisa arată că Belgia și România au o performanță slabă în educație la nivel preuniversitar.

Prin acest studiu am investigat în ce măsură nivelul socio-economic al familiei (dat de nivelul de educație și ocupare a părinților, precum și a venitului familiei) este asociat cu performanța academică a elevilor preadolescenți din România față de Belgia.

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QUELQUES ASPECTS STYLISTIQUES CHEZ BALZAC

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Abstract. The revolution Balzac brought forth in his novels consisted, among other things, in the dramatization of triviality and the transformation of the anonymous detail into a vital clue for the meticulously described novel scenery. In the indirect presentation of the character, Balzac innovates the realistic novel structure by resorting to massive descriptions of the urban areas and, above all, of the enclosed spaces; the latter define the hero's psychological context, it becomes consubstantial to one's human, sometimes tragic, profile, and play in the text the most variable parts. The aspects concerned with Balzac's style and fictional techniques include particularly the art references to the Renaissance, the use of contrast, the use of the chiaroscuro technique in the description of an interior space, the metaphors and the verbal tenses.

Keywords: novel scenery; clues; description; metaphor; style.

1. Introduction

Lorsque Gérard Genette souligne que la description balzacienne, « *signe, cause et effet* » de la psychologie des personnages (Genette, G., 1966, p. 46) s'intègre profondément dans la narration, il nous laisse soupçonner que c'est justement grâce aux multiples indices qui anticipent le drame que la description

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entre en cohésion avec le récit ; ce drame, en tant que dénouement qui doit être plus longtemps que possible retardé, entraîne des personnages, des cadres et des paysages dont les postures, les visages, les détails sonores ou chromatiques sont négligés, suggérés, décrits ou minutieusement décrits ; chez Balzac, ils sont toujours excessivement décrits.

La description occupe un espace privilégié dans *La Comédie Humaine*, non seulement par son intérêt étonnant dans la structure du roman balzacien, mais aussi par les fonctions qu'elle y accomplit ; le surplus frappant d'éléments descriptif, la dentellerie baroque de détails ont été souvent hâtivement repoussés par la critique littéraire – les adeptes du Nouveau Roman en tout premier lieu – et assimilés à un défaut de style, à un dédain des canons artistiques romanesques.

Mais l'œuvre de Balzac et l'adjectif qu'elle a engendrée, « balzacien/balzacienne », évoquent l'idée d'une dynamique organisatrice sans pareil, d'un monde fictif qui transgresse ses propres confins pour aboutir à la Réalité.

2. Aspects stylistiques de la description balzacienne

La prose romanesque doit suggérer, à la manière de la poésie, tout ce que les personnages perçoivent de l'extérieur, tout ce qu'ils ressentent et transmettent. Selon René Quinsat, lorsque Balzac assemble des suites rythmées dans un certain ordre, il le fait pour accroître l'authenticité des événements racontés, et s'il détaille les plates horreurs, ce n'est pas parce qu'il a le mauvais goût d'un commissaire-priseur, ni qu'il ignore l'ennui pour les gens pressés d'une description trop prolongée.

« Mais il faut, à cet endroit du roman, ce groupement calculé de phrases sans intérêt, non sans variété toutefois, ce mélange d'épithètes banales, d'images usées et de métaphores hétéroclites, d'abord pour donner l'impression poétique d'une misère sans poésie, et surtout pour faire naître chez le lecteur une tristesse morne qu'il croit sans cause, mais qui le sensibilise » (Quinsat, 1971, p. 78).

Le style balzacien constitue, aujourd'hui encore, un sujet controversé ; c'est surtout la critique traditionnelle, depuis Sainte-Beuve jusqu'à Proust et Charles Bruneau, qui juge ce style en termes peu flatteurs. Gustave Lanson, en parlant de l'auteur de *La Comédie Humaine*, dit sévèrement : *« Dès que Balzac se pique d'écrire, il est détestable et ridicule : métaphores boursouflées, pire pathos, phraséologie pompeuse, impuissance »* (Lanson, 1998, p. 89).

Alain fait remarquer, par ailleurs, à l'intention de ceux qui trouvent trop longues et ennuyeuses certaines descriptions de Balzac :

« J'ai entendu dire sur Balzac une remarque pleine de sens. Il n'est pas difficile d'y trouver des parties finies, sans reproche, profondes, éclatantes. Mais le lecteur s'effraie souvent des préparations. C'est comme un défrichement où l'on butte à chaque pas »

(...). *Mais quand Balzac est ennuyeux, c'est alors qu'il est inimitable* (n.s.) » (Alain, 1923, p. 114).

Dans le sillage du philosophe, Mario Roques démonte l'inanité de cette légende malveillante ; à son avis, Balzac n'est à proprement parler ce qu'on nomme un styliste, qui cultive le beau style, comme Flaubert, par exemple. Mais il s'est créé un style qui est le sien ; inégal, imprévisible, quelques fois débraillé, mais puissant, parce que réaliste.

Pour Balzac lui-même, un style raisonnable est identique à la raison abstraite ; selon Pierre Barbéris, le romancier comprend que le bon style n'est autre chose que l'analyse de la pensée poussée jusqu'à ses limites extrêmes et que, dans le domaine des idées, un style médiocre n'est que le reflet d'une pensée confuse et vague. Le prosateur – insiste le même critique – devrait bannir tout ornement stylistique qui pourrait ruiner à la clarté de la prose. (Barbéris, P., 1999). En parlant de la *brutalité balzacienne*, Barbéris accepte la violence de son réalisme, laquelle, loin d'être *indigne de la tragédie*, la recrée, plus affreuse, parce que plus silencieuse :

« *Le monde moderne est littérairement digne parce qu'il est profondément non pas innocent...mais dramatique, paradoxal, contesté. Sa conquête à lui est le vrai dans l'art. Pour arriver à cette conquête, toujours si difficile, il fallait être neuf. Il y a drame, il y a lyrisme, il y a poésie, il y a roman (...). Le réalisme balzacien c'est d'abord cette prise directe sur un réel réellement découvert* » (Idem, p. 89).

Dans sa préface de 1831 à *La Peau de Chagrin*, Balzac se dévoile conscient de son propre don pour l'observation et de ses défauts en matière de style :

« *Beaucoup d'hommes distingués sont doués du talent d'observer sans posséder celui de donner une forme vivante à leur pensée, comme d'autres écrivains ont été doués d'un style merveilleux, sans être guidés par ce génie sagace et curieux qui voit et enregistre toute chose* » (Balzac, 1972, p. 11).

En analysant le contexte psychologique dans lequel évolue un personnage du même roman, Nadine Satiat semble contredire l'auteur :

« *Le voilà dans un somptueux hôtel particulier, entouré d'artistes, d'écrivains, d'hommes de loi et de science parmi lesquels les jeunes talents les plus prometteurs du moment – mais aussi une écrasante majorité de médiocres, dont Balzac stigmatise la malhonnêteté intellectuelle et la vénalité en des formules chiasmiques qui signalent l'entrée dans un univers romanesque où règne (et chez les personnages eux-mêmes) une conscience exaspérée des jeux du langage : un univers structuré et stylisé par l'emploi constant de quelques figures de rhétorique privilégiées, antithèses et inversions, chiasmes et oxymores qui, en rapprochant constamment des pôles de charge opposée, survolent le texte.* » (Satiat, 2013, p.39).

Son don d'observation tout à fait particulier place Balzac du côté du génie descriptif, le détail et le génie restant les composantes *sine qua non* du genre épique.

En analysant le rapport *image/mot* dans l'œuvre balzacienne, on observe que le langage de *La Comédie Humaine* apparaît comme un instrument de création, le mot suscitant l'idée par les images qu'il fait naître ; c'est justement sur ce jeu entre le côté visuel et l'aspect inscrit qu'est centré le style de la description chez Balzac. Bernard Vannier, à son tour, opère une taxonomie des figures utilisées par le romancier, en faisant ressortir les homophonies, les jeux de mots, les antithèses, les paradoxes, les épithètes qui rendent tous, à la phrase balzacienne, un rythme particulier : « *La phrase elle-même s'organise très souvent selon un rythme ternaire, éventuellement souligné par l'assonance, l'article ou la préposition.* » (Vannier, 1972, p. 88).

Les particularités de la description caractérisent de manière singulière chaque écrivain et les correspondances *poésie/peinture* datent depuis Aristote et sa *Poétique* (où le philosophe fait ressortir les ressemblances entre les peintres et les écrivains), Simonide de Céos (*La peinture est une poésie silencieuse et la poésie est une peinture qui parle*) et Horace (*Ut pictura poesis/Il en est de la poésie comme de la peinture (trad. fr.)*).

Chez Balzac, cette véritable collusion écriture/peinture au cadre d'une description (qui arrive à envahir parfois la moitié du roman) se réalise à l'aide du recours à l'élément pictural et consiste à évoquer, par comparaison, le nom d'un grand peintre. Balzac nomme plus fréquemment trois noms - Raphaël, Rubens et Rembrandt, noms qui suscitent un champ sémantique commun : *sublime, divin, angélique, virginal, pur, modeste* etc. Rubens lui évoque des beautés épanouies, des chairs rebondies, comme c'est le cas, par exemple, du portrait de Césarine Birotteau, comparée par le romancier à « *la ronde et rousse beauté des Flammandes de Rubens* ». (Balzac, 1975, p. 53). Les références à Rembrandt portent surtout sur les profils de vieillards, dont Balzac évoque ironiquement les « *lèvres minces* », ou les « *bonnets de velours noir* » ; le portrait de Gobseck reste, de la sorte, un des plus célèbres de l'univers balzacien :

« *Les traits de son visage, impassible autant que celui de Talleyrand, paraissaient avoir été coulés en bronze. Jaunes comme ceux d'une fouine, ses petits yeux n'avaient presque point de cils et craignaient la lumière ; mais l'abat-jour d'une vieille casquette les en garantissait. Son nez pointu était si grêlé dans le bout que vous l'eussiez comparé à une vrille. Il avait les lèvres minces de ces alchimistes et de ces petits vieillards peints par Rembrandt ou par Metzù (n.s.)* » (Balzac, 1984, p. 32).

Mais les références les plus fréquentes sont celles à Raphaël : Esther, cette pitoyable héroïne de *Splendeurs et Misères des courtisanes*, fascine le lecteur par sa présence angélique :

« Elle attirait soudain l'attention par un trait remarquable dans les figures que **le dessin de Raphaël a le plus artistiquement coupées, car Raphaël est le peintre qui a le plus étudié, le mieux rendu la beauté juive** (s.n.); ce trait merveilleux était produit par la profondeur de l'arcade sous laquelle l'œil roulait comme dégagé de son cadre. » (Balzac, 1964, p. 668).

Le portrait d'Eugénie Grandet est rapporté au même artiste de la Renaissance :

« Eugénie, grande et forte, n'avait donc rien du joli qui plaît aux masses ; mais elle était belle de cette beauté si facile à reconnaître, et dont s'éprennent seulement les artistes. **Le peintre qui cherche ici-bas un type à la céleste pureté de Marie, qui demande à toute la nature féminine ces yeux modestement fiers devinés par Raphaël, ces lignes vierges que donne parfois la nature, mais qu'une vie chrétienne et pudique peut seule conserver ou faire acquérir** (n.s.) ; » (Balzac, 1973, p. 78)

Le cadre et l'éclairage offrent davantage aux descriptions et portraits balzaciens cette particularité artistique spécifique à son style et les fenêtres et les portes ouvertes fonctionnent dans le texte en tant qu'indices délimitant l'espace :

« Quand je m'assis sous mon noyer, le soleil de midi faisait pétiller les ardoises de son toit et les vitres de ses 43 fenêtres. Sa robe de percale produisait le point blanc que je remarquai dans ses vignes sous un hallebergier. Elle était, comme vous le savez déjà, sans rien savoir encore, **LE LYS DE CETTE VALLÉE** où elle croissait pour le ciel, en la remplissant du parfum de ses vertus. » (Balzac, 1966, p.43)

C'est du même côté des références picturales que le romancier place, dans les portraits de ses personnages, de nombreuses métaphores et épithètes établissant dans le récit un ordre sensoriel immédiat :

« Le souffle de son âme se déployait dans les replis des syllabes, comme le son se divise sous les clefs d'une flûte ; il expirait onduleusement à l'oreille d'où il précipitait l'action du sang. Sa façon de dire les terminaisons en i faisait croire à quelque chant d'oiseau... » (Balzac, 1966, p. 51).

La technique du contraste et du clair/obscur y jouent un rôle déterminant, ces procédés éminemment romantiques, mais largement utilisés par les auteurs réalistes, se retrouvant richement exploités dans *La Comédie Humaine*. Balzac illustre cette technique de l'opposition en crayonnant les portraits de David et de Lucien, en *Illusion perdues*, ou d'Asie et d'Europe, en *Splendeurs et Misères des courtisanes* :

« Europe formait un contraste parfait avec Asie, car elle était la soubrette la plus gentille (...) Svelte, en apparence étourdie, Europe offrait à l'observation une figure fatiguée par les corruptions parisiennes... » (Balzac, 1964, p.77).

Parfois, le contraste est intégré au cadre du même portrait, entre les traits du même personnage, comme c'est le cas du portrait plutôt psychologique que physique de la Duchesse de Langeais, cette Princesse de Clèves balzacienne, l'auteur décrivant ici son antithèse privilégiée, celle de la féminité :

« *La duchesse de Langeais (...) faisait voir qu'il y avait en elle une noble courtisane, que démentaient vainement les religions de la duchesse (...) Elle semblait bonne et l'était. Dans sa situation, rien ne l'obligeait à descendre à la méchanceté. [...] Mais pour la bien peindre ne faudrait-il pas accumuler toutes les antithèses féminines ; en un mot, elle était ce qu'elle voulait être ou paraître* (n.s.). » (Balzac, 1998, p.27).

Son penchant à concevoir le mot écrit comme dépositaire d'une lourde charge émotionnelle et métaphorique trahit un romancier doublé d'un adroit psychologue ; les portraits d'Eugénie Grandet sont ainsi variés et dramatiques, sinon cinématographiques. Ce n'est pas Eugénie Grandet que nous voyons, mais la représentation que s'en est faite l'illustrateur Balzac ; il est ici plutôt paternel qu'amoureux, car ses visions de la femme sont autant de mises en scène théâtrales ou adaptations cinématographiques de ses états d'âme : le choix de l'actrice, de son costume, de la posture qu'elle adopte, révèle l'interprétation que le metteur en scène a faite du personnage : « *Ses traits, les contours de sa tête que l'expression du plaisir n'avait jamais ni altérés ni fatigués, ressemblaient aux lignes d'horizon si doucement tranchées dans le lointain des lacs tranquilles.* » (Balzac, 1973, p. 59).

Pour présenter les corps et les décors, pour les décrire et les faire partager au lecteur, le romancier réalise une transparence du récit tout à fait nouvelle, en sonorisant de manière poétique le texte narratif et en rendant le tissu romanesque particulièrement rythmique et poétique. Si l'on regarde de plus près, on y découvre la technique de *la mise en abyme*, tellement appréciée par les adeptes du Nouveau Roman : « *Sans savoir pourquoi, mes yeux revenaient au point blanc, à la femme qui brillait dans ce vaste jardin comme au milieu des buissons verts éclatait la clochette d'un convolvulus, flétrie si l'on y touche.* » (Balzac, 1966, p.30).

Dans le roman déjà cité, l'allitération ou l'assonance entre aussi dans la matière de nombreuses homophonies : « *frémillante, appétissante, pimpante* », « *maigrie, flétrie* », « *bras maigris, durcis* » etc. Le choix d'un certain rythme détermine le couplage des épithètes, comme dans le portrait de Louise de Chaulieu, dans *Mémoires de deux jeunes mariées* : « *filles légères et mondaines* », « *profils fins et fermes* », « *cils longs et pressés* ». (Balzac, 1981, p. 31).

L'utilisation des jeux de mots et de l'argot n'est pas moins fréquente chez Balzac, surtout dans *Splendeurs et Misères des courtisanes* : *Pantin* (Paris), *ma balle* (mon secret), *le dad* (le chef), *m'entifler avec la Cygogne* (rouer le Procureur général), *mettre à la manque pour lui* (le faire livrer), *gerbé à la passe* (condamné à mort), *jouer le mislocq* (jouer la comédie) etc., tel que

Balzac peut facilement être rangé à la ligne de Rabelais, avec lequel semble d'ailleurs s'apparenter directement dans *Les Contes Drolatiques*. Notons aussi l'épiphraise, par laquelle G. Genette désignait toute intervention du discours auctorial dans le récit, les interjections (détournant l'attention du lecteur vers une perception quasi sensorielle du corps décrit), les répétitions et les énumérations.

Les temps des verbes mettent en relief l'atmosphère du récit, et de ce point de vue Balzac préfère le temps de l'ambiguïté et de l'action non achevée, l'imparfait :

« Elle **avait** une tête énorme, le front masculin mais délicat du Jupiter de Phidias, et des yeux gris auxquels sa chaste vie, en s'y portant tout entière, **imprimait** une lumière jaillissante... Son nez **était** un peu trop fort, mais il **s'harmoniait** avec une bouche d'un rouge de minium, dont les lèvres à mille raies **étaient** pleines d'amour et de bonté. Le col **avait** une rondeur parfaite. Le corsage bombé, soigneusement voilé, **attirait** le regard et faisait rêver ; il **manquait** sans doute un peu de la grâce due à la toilette ; mais, pour les connaisseurs, la non-flexibilité de cette haute taille **devait** être un charme. » (Balzac, 1973, p. 59).

On rencontre également le passé-simple et même le présent de l'indicatif, surtout dans les descriptions de nature : « Ça et là **s'élèvent** des masses de gravier sur lesquelles l'eau **se brise** en y formant des franges où **reluit** le soleil. Les amaryllis **décorent** le paysage... » (Balzac, 1966, p.31).

Tragiques ou comiques, tous ces détails des cadres et des portraits qui composent la perspective balzacienne envers l'histoire de son époque renvoient toujours à l'idée centrale, qui traverse tous ses romans, celle de l'identification entre le Personnage et son cadre :

« S'il était content de sa journée, il se frottait les mains en laissant échapper par les rides crevassées de son visage une fumée de gaieté, car il est impossible d'exprimer autrement le jeu muet de ses muscles, où se peignait une sensation comparable au rire à vide de Bas-de-Cuir. [...] Sa maison et lui se ressemblaient. Vous eussiez dit de l'huître et son rocher (s.n.). » (Balzac, 1984, p. 32).

3. Conclusions

La description est, dans le récit balzacien, l'espace de carrefour où le lyrique rencontre l'épique, pour aboutir à la construction d'un univers de la Fiction qui rivalise avec le Réel. Certains pensent pouvoir faire, à partir des descriptions tellement détaillées du romancier, des représentations précises des personnages et des décors, ce qui n'est pas toujours le cas ; on ne trouve pas toujours dans ces descriptions ce à quoi on s'attendait : au lieu de la description physique ou de la description du mobilier, Balzac veut parfois ancrer

socialement ses personnages, et il ne fournit à son lecteur que les éléments strictement nécessaires à cette définition sociale. Certaines descriptions sont simplement vestimentaires, comme celle de Poiret dans *Le père Goriot*, mais qui permet de visualiser le personnage plus efficacement qu'une description physique. Il y a des portraits soi-disant *implicites*, car nulle part dans *La Comédie Humaine* Balzac ne dresse, par exemple, un portrait du baron de Nucingen, qui pourtant apparaît dans trente-deux romans de *La Comédie Humaine*. L'imagination du lecteur devient aisément complice à l'acte narratif et ces descriptions peu picturales, bien que rares dans le récit balzacien, permettent de rendre toute la liberté aux illustrations, comme dans le passage suivant :

« La duchesse... avait reçu de la nature les qualités nécessaires pour jouer les rôles de coquette, et son éducation les avait encore perfectionnées. [...] Tout en elle s'harmoniait, depuis le plus petit geste jusqu'à la tournure particulière de ses phrases, jusqu'à la manière hypocrite dont elle jetait son regard (...) Elle paraissait devoir être la plus délicieuse des maîtresses en déposant son corset et l'attirail de sa représentation. En effet, toutes les joies de l'amour existaient en germe dans la liberté de ses regards expressifs, dans les câlineries de sa voix, dans la grâce de ses paroles. » (Balzac, 1998, p.27).

La description cesse de la sorte de fonctionner comme un espace sémantique vide au cœur du récit, nuisible à la cohérence de toute lecture ; devant un regard attentif, elle révèle son pouvoir particulier, source perpétuelle de signification.

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CÂTEVA ASPECTE STILISTICE LA BALZAC

(Rezumat)

Revoluția balzaciană a însemnat, între altele, dramatizarea anodinelui, poetizarea cotidianului și transformarea detaliilor anonime în indici indispensabili decorului romanesc minuțios descris. Prin prezentarea indirectă a personajului său, Balzac inovează structura romanului realist, abordând descrierea masivă a spațiului urban, cu precădere a spațiului interior; acesta definește contextul psihologic al eroului, devine consubstanțial conturului său uman, uneori tragic, și îndeplinește în cadrul textului funcțiile cele mai diferite. Aspectele stilistice și tehnica romanescă balzaciană includ în special referințe picturale la arta Renașterii, utilizarea contrastului și a tehnicii clar/obscur-ului în cadrul descrierii și a portretelor, recursul la metaforă, la epitet sau la expresia argotică.

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CONDITIONALS IN NINETEENTH-CENTURY GRAMMARS OF ENGLISH

BY

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Abstract. The Grammars of the nineteenth century are an under-studied topic, although they bridge a gap between the much better-known grammar writing practices of the eighteenth and twentieth centuries. The present article looks specifically at how conditionals were approached in the nineteenth-century grammars of English, namely, at what conditional markers were recognized at the time, whether inversion was remarked upon, and what verb phrase combinations were registered in conditional protases and apodoses. Comparing the information provided in the grammars with contemporary research on nineteenth-century English, it was found that they were rather limited in scope. However, the results suggest a continuity of discourse between nineteenth-century grammars of English and ELT materials produced today, which may have been rooted in their common teaching goals.

Keywords: conditional; nineteenth-century; grammar; subjunctive; verb pattern.

1. Introduction

In 1991 Leitner observed that “[t]here is a sufficiently large body of research on modern English reference grammars [and] also a rich literature on traditional grammars of English up to the early 19th century [...], [b]ut there is a

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gap for the 19th century till today. And it is that period that is of such importance for the development of grammatical thinking and its acceptance (or rejection) at all educational levels today” (1991, p. 3). More recently, Anderwald claimed that “[a] thorough investigation of nineteenth-century grammar writing is still missing, and this area of investigation thus still constitutes a gap (or: a Cinderella topic)” (2016, p. 3), which she tried to cover in her book, *Language between Description and Prescription*, correlating actual language data with grammaticographical information regarding verbal categories.

This article makes a small contribution to the study of nineteenth-century grammars of English by dealing with the question of how conditionals were approached in these grammars. For this purpose, a number of fifty-odd grammars published between 1800 and 1900 were consulted, out of which ten have been selected to illustrate the kind of comments and observations that were made on conditionals in the nineteenth-century. Downloaded from archive.org, these are:

1. Abbott Edwin A., *How to Parse*, Roberts Brothers, Boston, 1878.
2. Angus Joseph, *Handbook of the English Tongue*, The Religious Tract Society, London, 1861.
3. Arnold Thomas Kerchever, *Henry’s English Grammar*, Rivingtons, London, 1853.
4. Badgley Jonathan, *English Grammar, Taught in Plain, Familiar Conversations, by Uncle Jonathan*, Published by the author, Utica, N.Y., 1867.
5. Bailey R. W., *English Grammar*, Merril & Whitman, Portland, 1857.
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7. Barrett Solomon, *A New Inductive Grammar of the English Language*, Higgins, Bradley & Dayton, Boston, 1859.
8. Baskervill W. M. and Sewell J. W., *An English Grammar*, American Book Company, New York, 1895.
9. Bell G. H., *Natural Method in English*, Student’s Publishing Committee, Battle Creek, Mich., 1881.
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Six of the grammars, authored by Abbott, Badgley, Bailey, Barrett, Baskervill and Sewell, and Bell are American, while four of them are British, namely those written by Angus, Arnold, Bain and Booth. No attempt is made to compare the grammar writing practices in the two countries. These grammars have been culled according to how much attention conditionals were given, meaning that only the longest treatments have been selected. However, the sample chosen here can by no means be representative of nineteenth-century grammar writing on conditionals, as Görlach’s *Annotated Bibliography of Nineteenth-Century Grammars of English* lists 1936 grammars published in Britain and the United States in the nineteenth-century. Nevertheless, the

sample does provide a general idea of the traditions and limitations of the nineteenth-century grammar discourse regarding conditionals.

There are several issues pertaining to conditionals which are of interest, some of which are covered by the following questions:

1. Do nineteenth-century grammarians define the conditional? If so, how?
2. What subordinators do they mention as introducing a conditional?
3. Do they recognize inversion as a way of expressing conditionality?
4. Are all the three possibilities of placing *if*-clauses in the sentence mentioned (initial, medial or final)?
5. What verb patterns in the protasis and apodosis are acknowledged by the grammarians?

Noticeably, these questions pertain mainly to the descriptive accuracy of the grammars. Although it is not the intention here to showcase the descriptive inaccuracies of nineteenth-century grammars, such an outcome may be inevitable.

Nineteenth-century grammars were not based on an empirical analysis of the language of the time in the modern understanding of the term, although some grammarians did seem to have compiled quotations from their own readings to exemplify the phenomena they were describing, or made an effort to come up with their own examples. There is little repetition in the sentences given as examples across the grammars. Nevertheless, it is clear that they relied heavily on the information provided by both the grammarians of the past and on that of their contemporaries, and that they adhered quite strictly to the general consensus on what the grammar of the English language should look like. For example, all grammarians accepted the existence of a subjunctive mood having tenses, divided into present, past and future.

Discussions of the conditional in nineteenth-century grammars were intimately connected to those regarding the subjunctive mood. Conditionals were typically not given a chapter of their own and were rarely defined or discussed in any depth. It would be closer to the truth to say that they were subsumed to the topic of the subjunctive mood. Nevertheless, this fact in itself is interesting as it provides a snapshot of the grammatical thinking of the time. It reveals what grammarians were really concerned with, what they aspired to accomplish and what difficulties they had in achieving their purposes. Therefore, while this article is primarily concerned with answering the questions above, it will also comment on what the answers to those questions tell us about nineteenth-century English grammar writing.

2. Defining the Conditional

Modern definitions of conditionals may take into account the logical truth values of their parts, focus on positing a certain kind of inference or cause-and-effect relationship between the two, or take into account a structural

characteristic, such as the presence of a conditional marker. Nineteenth-century grammars, however, exhibited none of these approaches. Grammarians did not make any attempt to define what a conditional sentence was. However, what a few of them did, such as Abbott and Angus, was to describe conditionals as having an antecedent (conditional or subordinate clause), “the clause expressing condition”, and a consequent (or principal clause), “expressing the consequence of the fulfilment of the action” (Abbott, p. 113).

3. Conditional markers

Typically, nineteenth-century grammarians did not explicitly list conditional markers on their own. The common approach was to enumerate conjunctions expressing doubt or uncertainty, which were followed by the subjunctive. Consequently, in most cases, conditional markers were lumped together with conjunctions expressing a variety of meanings, so that the typical conditional subordinators *if*, *unless* and *lest* were frequently listed together with *though*, *although*, *whether*, *except*, and others. Given explicitly or drawn from their examples, the conditional markers most frequently identified by grammarians were *if* (Abbott, Angus, Arnold, Badgley, Bailey, Bain, Barrett, Baskervill and Sewell, Booth), *unless* (Angus, Arnold, Badgley, Bailey, Bain, Barrett, Baskervill and Sewell) and *lest* (Abbott, Arnold, Badgley, Bailey, Barrett, Booth). Interestingly, *lest* was found to express purpose, not condition, in Angus and Baskervill and Sewell. A few grammarians identified a few more conjunctions as conditional markers. For instance, Angus listed *as though*, Arnold listed *provided*, *except*, *suppose (that)* and *in case (that)*, Bailey (p. 34) listed *though*, *except*, *whether*, *suppose*, *admit*, *grant* as “conditional particles”, while Baskervill and Sewell also listed *though* and *except*. Thus, although all grammarians correctly identified the prototypical conditional marker *if*, there was some confusion as to what other subordinators contributed to the meaning of the sentence. In addition, their lists were very narrow. Puente-Castelo (2017, p. 53) identified as many as sixteen subordinators introducing clauses with conditional interpretation in nineteenth-century English, including *as long as*, *so long as*, *assuming (that)*, *given (that)*, *in the event that*, *just so (that)*, *on condition (that)*, *on the understanding that*, *providing (that)*, *supposing (that)*, *so (that)*, none of which were mentioned by the nineteenth-century grammarians consulted here.

4. Inversion

Conditional sentences can also be marked by the inversion of the operator in the protasis. Puente-Castelo (*ibidem*) identified ten such operators allowing inversion: *had*, *were*, *should*, *might*, *could*, *may*, *would*, *is*, *be* and *did*. Nineteenth-century grammarians, however, identified only a couple of them, the

most frequent one mentioned being inversion with *were*. Thus, Badgley, Bailey, and Bell identified inversion with *were* only, as in:

Were he good he would be happy. (Badgley, p. 158)

Angus, Arnold, Bain, Barrett, and Baskervill and Sewell identified inversion with *were* and *had*. Abbott identified inversion only with *should*, as in:

Should you see him tomorrow, you would find him much changed. (Abbott, p. 112)

Angus also mentioned inversion with *would*, alongside *were* and *had*. Therefore, many inversion possibilities were ignored by these grammarians. Since most of them indicated the possibility of inversion with *were* and *had*, it would be natural to suppose that these were the most frequent in nineteenth-century English, a supposition borne out by Puente-Castelo's (*idem*, p. 206) findings.

5. *If*-clause Position

The position of the protasis is also of interest. It can come before the apodosis, after the apodosis, or it can have a medial position, inside the apodosis, as in:

The diameter of the lesions, if they're adenomas, tends to be bigger. (Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jolivet, 2008, p. 195)

This last possibility was not taken into account by any of the nineteenth-century grammarians. Furthermore, only two of them, Angus and Booth, exemplified conditionals with the protasis in final position. All others seemed to be impervious to the different positions that the protasis could take.

6. Subjunctive *versus* Indicative

The overarching purpose of nineteenth-century grammars was to teach their readers how to parse correctly the elements of the sentence. The most difficult problem with conditionals was that of naming the kind of verb forms they contained. There was a lot of disagreement and confusion as to how the verb phrases should be analysed in conditional sentences and that was because the verb categories the grammarians used were established on both formal and semantic bases. In addition, they were tributary to a discourse tradition which differentiated between the indicative and subjunctive moods, as there had been a former distinct choice between moods in the history of English. The subjunctive was "the set of forms chosen typically to mark doubt, unreality, wishes, commands, and so on, and it was the mood selected by certain conjunctions" (Denison, 1998, p. 160). However, even from Old English the subjunctive started to lose ground. First, because its forms were becoming reduced from a phonological point of view and, second, because it was losing its syntactical functions to either the indicative or the modal verbs (*idem*, pp. 160-161).

There was some disagreement in the nineteenth-century grammars as to what the form of the subjunctive was. In fact, there were two main opposing positions. On the one hand, there were those grammarians who, like Bailey and Barrett, postulated that the subjunctive was identical with the indicative in all its forms, and that it was only through the employment of a conjunction that the subjunctive surfaced. On the other hand, other grammarians prescribed a present subjunctive where all the forms of the verb were the same as the infinitive for all the persons, as in *if I/ you/ he/ she/ it/ we/ they be*. This affected the present perfect as well, so that the correct form of the auxiliary for the third person singular was also the same as the infinitive, as in *if he have written*. In addition, they claimed that the correct form of the past subjunctive for the verb *to be* for all persons was *were*, as in *if he were* (Angus, Badgley, Bain, Baskervill and Sewell, Bell, Booth), except that for the second person singular, *thou*, the correct form of the past subjunctive was *wert* (Bailey, Bain, Bell).

There were also views which combined the two positions. For instance, Abbott contended that the form of the present subjunctive where all verb forms were identical to the infinitive was extinct, except for the verb *to be*. He added that *if it were* was the only correct modern form of the past subjunctive, and that *if I was you* was ungrammatical, though present in eighteenth-century English.

While the general consensus was that conditional protases contained a verb in the subjunctive mood, the fact that the form of the verb was frequently identical to that of the indicative resulted in some grammarians wanting to make a distinction in meaning between their uses. For example, Angus (p. 202) claimed that the subjunctive was used when expressing doubt, or when leaving a question undecided, but the indicative was used when no such doubt or indecision was expressed. Therefore, there was a difference in meaning between

‘If he is not guilty, a thing I do not question, you will be able to prove it at the trial.’ (*ibidem*)
and

‘If he be guilty, a thing I doubt, or will not affirm or cannot admit, he belies his whole life.’ (*ibidem*)

The same proposition was posited in Arnold, Bain and Bell. This was, of course, very problematic and quite unhelpful when analysing a sentence such as:

If you love him, you will do it.

because neither the form of the verb in conjunction with the subject, nor the meaning of the sentence provides enough information for a student to be able to identify *love* as either subjunctive or indicative.

7. Verb Patterns in Conditional Protases and Apodoses

Another issue that needs to be addressed is that of the verb patterns in the protasis and apodosis of conditionals. Probably the best-known

classification of conditionals is that given in modern EFL materials (see for example Penston, 2005, pp. 89-93) which usually present three main types of conditional structures, according to the different verb phrases found in the two clauses. In “first conditionals”, the present simple is found in the protasis and *will* + infinitive is found in the apodosis. “Second conditionals” have a past simple form in the protasis and *would* + infinitive in the apodosis. The “third conditional” features past perfect in the protasis and *would* + perfect infinitive in the apodosis. In addition, some EFL materials add a “zero conditional” which has present tense simple in both the protasis and the apodosis (see also Carter-Thomas and Rowley-Jolivet, 2008). It should be noted that this is an extremely oversimplified typology, but it will be used here as a foil for the verb pattern combinations presented by the nineteenth-century grammarians.

Based on the actual examples given by the ten grammars, the table below shows the rather numerous verb pattern combinations in the protasis and apodosis that can be found in these grammars. As the formal distinction between the indicative and the subjunctive had eroded by the nineteenth-century, they are considered together. Thus, the labels “present”, “present perfect”, “past”, and “past perfect” are used irrespective of whether the verb phrases in specific examples exhibit clear, formally identifiable, indicative or subjunctive forms or whether the grammarians deemed them as belonging to either mood. The label “pp” stands for the past participle.

Table 1
Verb Pattern Combinations in Conditionals in Nineteenth-Century Grammars

Protasis	Apodosis	Grammarians	Example
present	<i>will</i> + vb	Abbott, Angus, Arnold, Bain, Barrett, Bell	If he is not guilty, [...] you will be able to prove it at the trial. (Angus, p. 202)
present	<i>shall</i> + vb	Bain, Booth	If it rain, we shall not be able to go. (Bain, p. 111)
present	<i>cannot</i> + vb	Angus	Unless he come [...] I cannot make out my case. (Angus, p. 202)
present	<i>must</i> + vb	Angus, Baskervill and Sewell	If there's a hereafter, then must it be an awful thing to die. (Angus, p. 306)
present	<i>may</i> + vb	Baskervill and Sewell	If the fire of electricity and that of lightning be the same, this pasteboard and these scales may represent electrified clouds. (Baskervill and Sewell, p. 138)
present	imperative	Angus, Badgley, Barrett, Bell	If it be thou, bid me come. (Angus, p. 307)

present	present	Abbott, Angus, Baskervill and Sewell	If he says that, he is more ignorant than I supposed. (Abbott, p. 126)
present perfect	<i>will</i> +vb	Angus	If he have paid the money, [...] it will be found there tomorrow. (Angus, p. 308)
present perfect	<i>must</i> +vb	Arnold	If you have found any footsteps, the island must be inhabited. (Arnold, p. 149)
past	<i>would</i> +vb	Abbott, Angus, Arnold, Badgley, Bailey, Bain, Bell	If he were [...] rewarded, others would be encouraged by his success. (Angus, p. 308)
past	<i>should</i> +vb	Angus, Arnold, Bailey, Bain	If the book were in the library, it should be at your service. (Bain, p. 112)
past	past	Abbott, Bain, Baskervill and Sewell	If he said that, he was more ignorant than I had supposed. (Abbott, p. 126)
past	<i>could</i> + vb	Baskervill and Sewell	If these things were true, society could not hold together. (Baskervill and Sewell, p. 140)
past	past perfect	Baskervill and Sewell	Were we of open sense as the Greeks were, we had found a poem here. (Baskervill and Sewell, p. 144)
past perfect	<i>would have</i> + pp	Abbott, Arnold, Baskervill and Sewell	If I had had any thing, I would have given it you. (Arnold, p. 150)
past perfect	<i>should have</i> + pp	Angus, Bain	How else should I have known it, if I had not heard you say it. (Angus, p. 307)
past perfect	past	Angus	It were [...] wise for the king, if the blood now shed had been thought a sufficient expiation for the offence. (Angus, p. 307)
past perfect	past perfect	Angus, Arnold, Bain	If Pompey had fallen by the chance of war at Pharsalia, he had died still glorious [...]. (Angus, p. 307)
past perfect	<i>would</i> + vb	Bailey	Had I been placed in your stead, I would accept the terms. (Bailey, p. 97)
<i>will</i> +vb	<i>will</i> + vb	Arnold, Badgley, Bailey	I will go, provided you will go with me. (Arnold, p. 151)

<i>will</i> + vb	<i>shall</i> + vb	Badgley, Booth	If they will not work, they shall not eat. (Badgley, p. 189)
<i>should</i> +vb	<i>would</i> +vb	Abbott, Angus, Arnold, Bain	If he should try, he would succeed. (Angus, p. 308)
<i>should</i> + vb	<i>will</i> + vb	Arnold	If he should have any thing, he will give it you. (Arnold, p. 149)
<i>should</i> + vb	<i>should</i> + vb	Arnold, Bain	If you should [...] jump over the moon, I should call it a good leap. (Arnold, p. 150)
<i>shall have</i> + vb	<i>will</i> + vb	Badgley	If you shall have done your duty, you will then receive a crown of glory. (Badgley, p. 191)
<i>could</i> + vb	<i>would</i> + vb	Abbott	If I could come, I would do so. (Abbott, p. 114)
<i>can</i> + vb	<i>may</i> + vb	Bell	If thou canst govern thyself, thou mayest govern others. (Bell, p. 1881)
<i>were to</i> + vb	<i>would</i> +vb	Abbott, Angus, Arnold	If you were to give him some water, he would drink. (Abbott, p. 112)
<i>were to</i> + vb	<i>could</i> +vb	Arnold	If it were to rain, I could not go out. (Arnold, p. 71)

Several observations are in order. First, collectively, these grammarians did a good job at showcasing verb diversity in conditionals. This may be due to the fact that their concerns at the time were different from those of EFL teachers today. They did not feel the need to simplify and structure a whole complex paradigm. Rather, their focus was on where the subjunctive was used and on illustrating its forms. Nevertheless, it should be noted that Puente-Castelo (2017, p. 193) identified 225 verb form combinations in conditionals in nineteenth century English, which is a far cry from the 29 we have found in the grammars investigated here.

Second, some combinations appeared more frequently than others. Interestingly, the three most common exhibited the same patterns as those we know from modern EFL grammars. Seven grammarians noted the combination present tense in the protasis and *will/shall* + infinitive in the apodosis (Abbott, Angus, Arnold, Bain, Barrett, Bell, Booth). This is akin to the canonical first conditional. The canonical second conditional, having past tense in the protasis and *would/should* + verb in the apodosis was recorded in seven grammars (Abbott, Angus, Arnold, Badgley, Bailey, Bain, Bell). The canonical third conditional, exhibiting past perfect in the protasis and *would/should have* + past participle in the apodosis was reported by five grammarians (Abbott, Angus, Arnold, Bain, Baskervill and Sewell). It can be assumed, then, that modern EFL grammars actually follow a discourse tradition which can be traced back to the

nineteenth-century. Apparently, the verb patterns in conditionals as they are taught today are not based on research on actual language, or on the frequency with which they occur in natural language, but on the frequency with which they occurred in former grammars. It could then be said that the modern canonical first, second and third conditionals are a distillation of former grammatical discourse. To sustain this point, one may add that the possibility of having present tense verb forms in both protasis and apodosis was recorded in only three nineteenth-century grammar (Abbott, Angus, Baskervill and Sewell) and it has been included as a canonical type zero conditional in EFL grammar quite recently. Nevertheless, contemporary research on conditionals has found this combination to be the most frequent one, especially in scientific texts (Puente-Castelo, 2017, p. 192 and Carter-Thomas and Rowley-Jolivet, 2008, p. 196).

Third, again collectively, the grammarians of the nineteenth century identified four verb patterns which could frame the condition into the future. In other words, they inventoried at least four possible verb forms in the protasis of a conditional where the outcome is contingent on something happening in the future. In Arnold (p. 151) it was indicated that the sentence:

I will not go, if you *will* not *accompany* me.

is equivalent to

I will not go, unless you *accompany* me.

Similarly, in Booth (p. 126):

If he *will call* upon me, I shall be glad to see him.

and

If he *call* upon me, I shall be glad to see him.

were shown to mean the same. This means that there must have been a perceived parity between the verb in the present tense (either indicative or subjunctive) and the *will* + verb form, namely the ability to express a future eventuality. It should also be noted that some nineteenth-century grammarians, such as Bailey, Barrett, and Booth posited the existence of a future subjunctive with *will* or *shall*. Other grammarians, such as Bain and Angus posited that protasis *should* is the future subjunctive. What is more, Bain and Badgley commented that the subjunctive present might be called the elliptical future because it “denotes future time with *shall* and *should* understood” (Badgley, p. 171). The picture that emerges at first is that of three competing forms for expressing a future condition, with present (indicative or subjunctive) verb phrases, *will* or *should* in the protasis. Yet judging by Angus’s (p. 308) example, even the past subjunctive forms could express a future condition:

If he *were* (or *were to be*, or *should be*) rewarded, others would be encouraged by his success.

Similarly, Arnold (p. 71) posited that *if it were bought* was equivalent to *if it should be bought*, and Abbott (p. 125) asserted that “in reality, ‘if he *comes*’ refers to *future* time, and so does ‘if he *came* or *should come*’”.

Fourth, given the verb patterns possible in the apodosis, it becomes clear that *would* and *should* had similar uses in nineteenth-century conditional apodoses. We see them especially in canonical second and third conditionals:

If you were to give him some water, he *would* drink. (Abbott, p. 112)

Were it so, I *should* be much vexed. (Arnold, p. 63)

If he had seen, he *would* have known. (Abbott, p. 114)

If he had been here, I *should* have spoken. (Angus, p. 308)

It appears that both *would* and *should* in the nineteenth-century had a hypothetical meaning and were in free variation in conditional apodoses, a situation recorded as far back as Middle English (Bybee, 1995).

8. Conclusions

As we have seen from the analysis of the ten nineteenth-century grammars consulted, conditionals were given little importance. They were not properly defined, many conditional markers were ignored, some inversion possibilities were likewise overlooked, and the medial position of the *if*-clause was omitted from mention. The grammarians were much more concerned with the forms and uses of the subjunctive differentiated from those of the indicative. Much ink was spilled on the subject, but no general agreement was arrived at except that the conditional protases contained a subjunctive verb form. One strategy used to deal with the subjunctive – indicative variation was to posit distinct meanings between their uses, thus imposing order in the structure of the language. This made possible the rejection of the very idea of free variation and the indirect characterisation of the language as fixed.

Fixing the language, or rather treating it as stable, was of paramount importance because variation could not be handled by the grammatical categories inherited from Greek, Latin and the eighteenth-century grammars of English. At the time, teaching students English was the equivalent of teaching them how to parse. Abbott's grammar is actually entitled *How to Parse* and its purpose was quite explicitly expressed by its very title. Indeed, "[...] right until the end of the 19th century, parsing was the catchword; this predominated to such an extent that the schoolbooks exclusively devoted to these exercises were almost equal in number to comprehensive grammars, and no grammar book was without a proper treatment of the topic. Parsing was to train the student to identify both syntactic structures and parts of speech, often on the basis of (ultimately) Latin models" (Görlach, 1999, p. 69). An unfixed language, exhibiting forms in free variation, would be impossible to parse, so setting clear boundaries of where a certain grammatical category such as the subjunctive was to be identified was one major concern.

Examining the verb patterns in conditional protases and apodoses has led to the conclusion that very probably the modern EFL canonical categories of

first, second and third conditionals have their origin in the nineteenth-century grammar writing. The combinations of verb phrases most nineteenth-century grammarians recorded in their examples were the same as those found in the modern canonical classification. Such continuity is not entirely surprising if one were to consider that nineteenth-century grammars and EFL materials share the common purpose of teaching English.

Furthermore, it transpired that four verb patterns in the protasis were capable of referring to the future: the present subjunctive (or indicative), the past subjunctive (or indicative), *will* + infinitive, and *should* + infinitive. So, there is a kind of equivalence between the protases in:

If he *call* upon me tomorrow, ...

If he *will call* upon me tomorrow, ...

If he *called* upon me tomorrow, ...

If he *should call* upon me tomorrow, ...

Whether the probability of him calling upon me in the future is thought to be of different strengths depending on the verb pattern used is another matter. Judging by their discussion of open and tentative conditional protases, Declerck and Reed (2001, pp. 91-95) would definitely argue that there is a difference, with *called* and *should call* expressing more tentativeness. However, there has been no empirical exploration into the matter to the best of my knowledge. In addition, the acceptance of *will* after *if* in nineteenth-century grammars is of particular interest. EFL materials explicitly prohibit it except when *will* expresses willingness (e.g. Penston, 2005, p. 90). Theories of tense have been predicated on this notion (Comrie, 1985, p. 48 and pp. 118-120), yet contemporary research shows that future, non-modal *will* after *if* is quite possible (Declerck & Reed, 2001, p. 143). It would be interesting to find out how the four different options to express a future condition have varied in frequency over time. This could in turn provide insight into the development of modals *will* and *should* and may be correlated with information provided by nineteenth-century grammars to check their accuracy. It may well be the case that nineteenth-century grammarians posited a future subjunctive under the influence of Latin tradition, which is why we find both *shall* / *will*+infinitive and *should*+infinitive recognized as future subjunctive by different grammarians, but these patterns were and have remained marginal options.

In relation to the variation between *would* and *should*, both contributing hypothetical meaning in conditional apodoses, it is odd that only *should* is recorded by grammarians as possible in protases. If the two were indeed similar, as all evidence suggests, then we would expect *would* to appear in protases as well, as it does in contemporary English (Declerck & Reed, 2001, pp. 173-174). Why the possibility is not recorded by the nineteenth-century grammarians is a line of enquiry which deserves further investigation.

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CONSTRUCȚII CONDIȚIONALE ÎN GRAMATICILE LIMBII ENGLEZE DIN SECOLUL XIX

(Rezumat)

Gramaticile limbii engleze din secolul XIX au fost puțin studiate până acum, deși ele reprezintă o punte între gramaticile mult mai bine cunoscute din secolele XVIII și XX. Articolul de față analizează modul în care erau tratate construcțiile condiționale și în mod special, care erau indicatorii specifici recunoscuți, dacă era menționată inversiunea subiect-predicat și ce tipuri de predicate erau folosite în propozițiile principale și cele secundare. Compararea informațiilor din aceste gramatici cu cele oferite de cercetările recente pune în evidență limitele gramaticilor din secolul XIX și dovedește, pe de altă parte, continuitatea peste secole a discursului gramatical care poate fi explicată prin constanța obiectivelor pedagogice.

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PHYSICAL ACTIVITY AND IMPORTANCE OF WATER FOR THE BODY

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Abstract. Muscle activity is accompanied by an increase in blood flow, an increase in blood pressure and an increase in capillary permeability. Under the effect of these three factors and especially under the influence of greater hydrostatic pressure, plasma exudation increases along the capillaries and often even the increase in venous pressure opposes the return of the interstitial fluid to the venous pole of the capillary network.

Physical activity is present on the various hydrosalin balance sheet items. Hypertonic and plasma exudation factor causes compensatory reactions of the neuroendocrine system, regulating the hydroelectrolytic equilibrium: putting into play the neuro-pituitary antidiuretic system, the intervention of thirst. These two mechanisms are not always sufficient to maintain the body's hydration. Various studies have shown that reducing body water causes a marked fall in work-related skills. A water loss of 4-5% of body weight reduces muscle workout by 20-30%. Efforts in the warm atmosphere risk triggering a circulatory collapse when dehydration corresponds to 10% of body weight. The water balance deficit should be prevented by adequate and sometimes anticipated consumption of a suitable volume of water. But the possibilities of total and immediate loss compensation are limited by the rate of digestive absorption of liquids. Gastric emptying is a very critical point for this device because passage through the pill depends, in part, on the osmolality of the ingested liquid.

Keywords: diuretic; hypertonia; hyponatremia; hydration.

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1. Introduction

Hydration is a vital principle for proper functioning of the body. Often overlooked, a 10-12% loss of water can be fatal. However, dehydration is easy to control. The basic water needs are between 1.5 and 2.5 liters per day. The effects of Kangen water for movement, flexibility and performance are numerous. With every breath, whenever a muscle contracts, metabolic acids, such as lactic acid and pyruvic acid, are produced, which have the effect of lowering the muscular pH.

The purpose of the research: An intensive, regular repeat workout results in the loss of large amounts of fluid, which will lead to a better adjustment of the hydroelectrolyte balance over time. The sweat glands will adapt to sodium resorption and the plasma volume will tend to increase. Also, the sensitivity of hormones involved in regulating water metabolism will increase. Sweating will become more economical and more effective by lowering it, even under these conditions during competitions when the effort reaches the maximum levels, athletes will be in danger of dehydration even more when the thermogenic stresses occur.

Accumulation of glycogen disintegrating products, especially the acidification they cause, will block muscle contractions. The harder you train, the faster your muscles become acid and get tired faster. This accumulation of acid also limits the production of ATP, the energy molecule, and disrupts the enzymatic activity that produces this energy.

Proper hydration helps eliminate acids in muscle tissues, speeding up recovery time and reducing tissue micro-lesions and the effects of these metabolic acids.

Athletes and professional athletes know, or ought to know, that changes in body pH can have an effect on health, fatigue, pain, weight, fitness, and sport performance. The optimal muscle pH is about 6.9, while the blood is about 7.4.

When we exercise, the increased use of muscle glycogen for energy produces lactic acid, pyruvic acid, and CO₂, which lowers muscle pH. The harder the exercises, the faster the muscles become acid, a situation that leads to fatigue. Accumulation of acids also limits the production of ATP, the energy molecule, and disrupts the activity of the enzyme that produces energy. When muscular pH falls below 6.5, muscle fatigue occurs. Acidity also reduces muscle strength by inhibiting muscle contraction.

Professional athletes should be concerned about maintaining a healthy pH balance. When the body metabolizes food, acidic residues are created, which must be eliminated or neutralized through the lungs, kidneys (urine) and skin. PH balance in the blood is essential for human health and slowing the aging process. Athletes and coaches should pay more attention to the negative effects of metabolic acidosis.

Over-hydration is as dangerous as its opposite. Research has shown that, indeed, too much water in the body can cause imbalances. In the case of athletes, there were situations when they collapsed literally during competitions - because of water poisoning (hyponatremia) or when it is not properly eliminated. This intoxication stresses the body, causing changes in the brain, but also congestion of the lungs or muscle weakness. So, the basic recommendation remains to drink water at a balanced level as you remove it!

This fluid movement is further favored by the osmotic activity of numerous small molecules released by muscle contraction in extracellular spaces. Rougier and Babin reported an increase in sodium and potassium after exercise, a decrease in magnesium. Studies conducted using isotonic techniques show that water loss during effort comes, especially from the intracellular sector. This dehydration is also explained by the fact that a certain amount of water is released when glycogen is dislodged.

Under the influence of these different phenomena, extracellular osmotic pressure rises sometimes by 50%. It requires fluid guidance to extracellular spaces: the muscle swells (contracting) and this contraction is partly responsible for the muscular rigidity following a severe exercise.

To this is added a percentage of serum proteins, hemoconcentration, increase in albumin/globulin ratio and consequently increased viscosity and superficial plasma tension.

The effort thus causes the appearance of a hyperosmolarity, causing rejection of the metabolic particles of the striated muscle in the interstitial fluid; this change of environment, in which the smooth muscles of the vessels evaporate, intervenes in the circulatory adaptations, causing the inhibition of vascular tone.

Plasma and extracellular hypertonia following the effort puts in motion the mechanisms of preserving the "capital" water and increases the need for water.

Neuroendocrine regulation

Thus, plasma hypertonia, associated with emotional tension, with hyperthermia and often with volumetric factors, increases the secretion of the antidiuretic hormone. The effect is very clear for short static and dynamic efforts (100, 400 and 1000 m running, lifting a 40 kg weight for 2 minutes). Antidiuretic secretion decreases by making a diuretic inverse activity when the effort is prolonged and the duration reaches or exceeds 30 minutes.

The study of free water clearance variation during the different types of physical efforts and at different times of these labor allows us to believe that the antidiuretic hormone is secreted in a larger, permanent, amount of neurotropy during a physical sampling. Purification of free water remains constantly negative, but it exhibits variations depending on the nature of the effort, variations occurring either in the sense of an increase in secretion for short efforts or in the sense of a decrease in secretion for long-term efforts.

This neuro-pharyngeal antidiuretic hormone is one of the main factors in maintaining the hydroelectrolytic balance that muscle activity tends to modify in the sense of hypertonia.

The effectiveness of antidiuretic response and reduction in urinary volume is noted at the onset of effort, during intense and short efforts, or even in long-term efforts in the warm atmosphere, with very low oral diuresis of 3/4 ml.

Cylindrical albuminuria and often even hematuria can be observed, consequences of blood hyperplasia in the kidney, glomerular capillaries, and increased epithelial permeability. Instead, urinary volume may increase after prolonged efforts, under the combined effect of increased catabolism and stimulation of cortisone secretion with diuretic effect. Polypnea and sweating increase water and salt losses; these losses may represent a 4 to 5% decrease in body weight after a heavy and prolonged effort of two or 3 hours. The extracellular hydrosodic depletion (elimination) determines the aldosterone clearance secretion, a sign of intense exercise or the beginning of fatigue.

Osmotic hypertonia, the loss of water, causes thirst, whose satisfaction must redress the poor water balance.

Thirst

By adjusting the fluid intake to water loss, thirst can play an essential role in restoring the hydrosaline balance affected by physical activity. The caloric and hydrological balance tests show that the metabolism of one calorie requires one milliliter of water. In fact, water losses are much more important during work (stress), especially in a warm atmosphere where they can reach 3-10 liters in 24 hours (3 liters for 90 minutes, 3-6 liters for skiing, fund or cycling).

2. Methodology of Research

In fact, various papers demonstrate the possible faults of the thirst mechanism as indicative of the real water deficit. When water loss is 200 grams per hour, thirst-controlled spontaneous ingestion covers 95% of the deficiency; if the water cost reaches 500 grams per hour it represents only 750 grams per hour, the spontaneous intake does not cover more than 55% of the losses.

Thus, the mechanism of thirst is no longer sufficient to compensate for the water deficit during the effort, leading to a strong water loss; preventing the risk of dehydration, drop in working possibilities or level performance requires drinking over the threshold set by the feeling of thirst. Different studies have shown that reducing body water causes a marked decline in work-ability. A water loss of 4-5% of body weight reduces muscle workout by 20-30%. Efforts in the warm atmosphere risk triggering a circulatory collapse when dehydration corresponds to 10% of body weight.

The water balance deficit should be prevented by adequate and sometimes anticipated consumption of a suitable volume of water. But the

possibilities of total and immediate loss compensation are limited by the rate of digestive absorption of liquids. Gastric emptying is a very critical point for this device, since passage through the pill depends in part on the osmolarity of the ingested liquid. Recent intakes of fluid ingestion at the background runs show that only 800 ml/hr can be replaced by mouth, while the losses reach 2 liters per hour during a long competition. If, on the other hand, the ingestion rate of the liquid is higher than the pyloric discharge, the subsequent gastric superabundance will be unpleasant for the athlete.

In practice, the replacement of lost fluid during physical activity is only required during exhausting efforts such as cross-country skiing, skiing, cycling or marathon. The subjects are hydrated before the sample. Plas and Espinas studied the effects of pedaling on hydric balance and adrenal secretion and confirmed the existence of a secondary diuretic phase. Creff has demonstrated the need for a sufficient stock of water to avoid tendon injuries. During runtimes, an isotonic or chlorinated glucose solution should be ingested in small fractions at short intervals of 10-15 minutes. The amount per hour should not exceed one liter due to the risk of stomach filling; the temperature of the liquid should be 8-12°C to contribute to homeothermia of the "body nucleus." Electrolyte losses are generally insignificant during this type of physical activity, and their replacement may not even be necessary in the period of return to calm. Potassium is abundant as it is released in large quantities, to the detriment of glycogen. Studies during the effort confirm the data of sports physiology. Metz found in the Sahara that the time to absorb the amount of liquid sufficient to correct the losses is very long (10-20 minutes for 750 ml of water), that this time can be reduced by breaking the plugs, but the volume of each ingestion cannot pass of 250 ml.

3. Conclusion

After the end of the effort, the athlete has to drink to compensate as soon as possible the deficiency of water, mineral salts and carbohydrates, rehydration solutions taking into account all these factors.

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ACTIVITATEA FIZICĂ ȘI ROLUL APEI

(Rezumat)

Activitatea musculară este însoțită de o mărire a debitului sanguin, de o creștere a presiunii arteriale și de o creștere a permeabilității capilare. Sub efectul acestor trei factori și în special sub influența unei mai mari presiuni hidrostatice, exudația plasmatică se mărește de-a lungul capilarelor și adesea chiar creșterea presiunii venoase se opune reînțoarcerii lichidului interstițial la polul venos al rețelei capilare.

Activitatea fizică este prezentă pe diferitele posturi ale bilanțului hidrosalin. Factor de hipertonie și de exudație plasmatică, ea determină reacții compensatoare ale sistemului neuroendocrin, reglator al echilibrului hidroelectrolitic: punerea în joc a sistemului antidiuretic neuro-hipofizar, intervenția setei. Aceste două mecanisme nu sunt totdeauna suficiente pentru a menține hidratarea organismului. Diferite studii au arătat că reducerea de apă corporală provoacă o scădere marcată a aptitudinii pentru muncă.

O pierdere hidrică de ordinul a 4-5% din greutatea corporală reduce posibilitățile de lucru muscular cu 20-30%. Efortul în atmosferă caldă riscă să provoace un colaps circulator, atunci când deshidratarea corespunde cu 10% din greutatea corporală. Deficitul bilanțului hidric trebuie prevenit printr-un consum adecvat și uneori anticipat al unui volum de apă potrivit. Dar posibilitățile de compensare totală și imediată a pierderilor sunt limitate de viteza de absorbție digestivă a lichidelor.

Evacuarea gastrică reprezintă un punct foarte critic al acestui dispozitiv întrucât trecerea prin pilor depinde, în parte, de osmolaritatea lichidului ingerat.

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IMPROVING THE SERVE EFFICIENCY IN VOLLEYBALL USING TAI CHI-QI GONG ORIENTAL TECHNIQUES

BY

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Abstract. As a practitioner, then as a coach in the performance volleyball for years, I felt the lack of a training program that combined as simple and effective as possible the technical-tactical, physical and mental training required for any high-level sporting activity. Later in time, after learning and deepening the Tai Chi and Qi Gong oriental techniques, and after I co-opted in my team's staff a specialist of these oriental techniques in the person of Mrs. Mihaela Frai, I realized the beneficial influence which they may have on the average individual, but especially on an athlete in any stage of training.

Keywords: performance; training; Tai Chi exercises.

1. Introduction

As a practitioner, then as a coach in the performance volleyball for years, I felt the lack of a training program that combined as simple and effective as possible the technical-tactical, physical and mental training required for any high-level sporting activity. Later in time, after learning and deepening the Tai Chi and Qi Gong oriental techniques, and after I co-opted in my team's staff a

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specialist of these oriental techniques in the person of Mrs. Mihaela Frai, I realized the beneficial influence which they may have on the average individual, but especially on an athlete in any stage of training. Like any coach who wants to reach and keep on top of the best, we have made great efforts, especially technical, tactical, physical efforts, to improve the team's results, being firmly convinced that sustained work and maximum physical effort can be the key to full success. Most of the time, we put a lot of emphasis on specific physical training, engaging intensely with the necessary muscle groups, increasing the number of repetitions or raising the intensity during the training, not taking into account the major importance of psychological training, physical relaxation but also mental, performed before and especially after exhaustive training.

It is easy to understand the reason why in the last decades few Romanian athletes have benefited from adequate training in their training. The lack of specialists and the precarious financial situation at the level of sports clubs generated mainly these shortcomings, placing the Romanian athlete already in a disadvantaged position compared to the very well-prepared athlete from other countries. From my point of view, after discovering the oriental techniques of Tai Chi and Qi Gong and experiencing them in the program, I noticed that not only psycho-mental training has improved, but also physical. It is true that these techniques belong to a country with a completely different tradition from that of our country, but the vast majority of Tai Chi and Qi Gong movements are based on gymnastics, to which were added variants of exercises: breathing, mentality, meditation, etc. In addition, they are extremely simple and accessible to any individual, regardless of age, origin, gender, religious orientation, level of knowledge, so that athletes can adapt at any time. Moreover, through the sanogenetic effects of these oriental methods, the athlete can maintain his health or even improve it. All of the above-mentioned reasons have provided us with a starting point in conducting this study, firmly convinced that Tai Chi and Qi Gong techniques can substantially influence the training of volleyball players.

Tai Chi Chuan or Taijiquan, with the abbreviation Tai Chi, Taiji or Tai Chi in the usual language, is one of the most effective internal martial arts, acknowledged at the same time for its beneficial effects on the health and longevity of practitioners (Nanu, 2007).

Originally from China, Tai Chi has emerged 2000 years ago as a form of self-defense and is made up of a series of positions followed by graceful, gentle and balanced movements of the body, executed in a slow and elegant manner, continuously, combined in parallel with breathing. Moving from one posture to the next is easy, without a break, changing body weight from one foot to another, thereby eliminating fatigue. Nowadays, Tai Chi is spread all over the world. Most modern Tai Chi styles have their roots in at least one of the five traditional schools: Chen, Yang, Wu (Hao), Wu, and Sun. Tai Chi exercises are designed to increase natural strength, create a relaxing state of relaxation, and bring the practitioner into a superior state of focus, discipline, balance and

harmony with the universe. Medical research has revealed evidence that Tai Chi is useful for improving balance and overall psychological health and that it is associated with general health benefits in people of all ages. Regardless of age and physical capacity, anyone can practice this ancient form of martial arts. Qigong (the art of working with energy) called chi kung, is an ancient Chinese system of cultivating health, vitality and longevity, and spiritual evolution. Based on the classical principles of Taoism, Qi Gong offers a way of self-cultivation that involves harmony between all levels of the human being (physical, psychic and spiritual), harmony with nature and constant and natural progress, avoiding possible excesses and injuries in other physical disciplines, and at the same time, avoiding the world's withdrawal characteristic of other spiritual ways. Qi means "breathing" and "air" and, by extension, energy and vitality. Gong means work and also expresses mastery acquired through exercise. Qi Gong means, therefore, working with energy.

Qi Gong has been secretly practiced for over 5,000 years, being one of the best-kept secrets. Transmission from generation to generation was direct. The few classic texts that provide information about this system are written intentionally in coded terms (Daniel Reid, 2005).

Today, in the age of information, Qi Gong has become known worldwide, and the secrets retained since ancient times are now taught openly throughout the world. Specialty studies conducted in Asia and the rest of the world attest to the efficacy of Qi Gong in treating many diseases in which Western medicine offers only temporary remedies. Many hospitals also include the practice of Qi Gong medicine as aid in treating certain conditions.

An important part of Qi Gong techniques focuses on transforming emotions that are based in our internal organs, according to Chinese thinking. Changing emotions, which are a form of energy, helps us to turn quantity into quality and to live our lives by practicing "virtues", that is positive emotions (patience, love, quietness, courage, fairness) (Derlogea, 1994).

2. Hypothesis

It is therefore supposed that the development and experimental application of an appropriate training program with exercises and practices taken from the Tai Chi and Qi Gong oriental methods can substantially increase the level of performance of volleyball players at any stage of training.

3. Organization of Research

In addition to the specific exercise program, special importance should be given to breathing. Breathing exercises can be used before training or contesting, for revitalizing and reducing emotional overload, during breaks between training or breaks, to reduce fatigue. These exercises can also be used

after training or contest, combined with relaxation exercises, for recovery after effort.

Tai Chi-Qi Gong exercises have been shown to be useful in maintaining and improving health, increasing resistance to stress factors of any kind, increasing the body's exercise capacity. By combining these exercises with some breathing exercises or with relaxation elements and with mental training techniques, you can gain an improvement in the athlete's inner condition.

Combining breathing exercises with suggestive formulas is particularly useful in improving the mental states of athletes.

Tai Chi-Qi Gong trainings were held twice a week on Monday and Thursday and took place following the following schedule:

- 20 minutes: exercises to prepare the body for effort.

Exercises were performed in the same way as those normally used, except for two factors:

- the execution of the moves was carried out in a much slower time;
- In the preparation of oriental techniques, the coordination of exercises, both static and dynamic, with breathing, was sought;
- 40 minutes: practicing static elements ("Tree", "Jin Ji Du Li", Qi Gong batteries, 18 Tai Chi forms);
- 10 minutes: pause;
- 30 minutes: practicing dynamic elements (8 forms - Tai Chi, 24 forms - Tai Chi);
- 20 minutes: breathing exercises, visual exercises, meditation techniques.

Initial tests and final tests used in research

For a more accurate assessment of the initial and final physical potential, we designed some tests to test the following capabilities:

Mobility tests

One of the rough evaluation tests of trunk mobility - hip - feet, is the torsional flexion test before.

Execution: Standing at the edge of a bank, the bent forward knee (the knees stretched out) measure the distance from the tip of the foot to the tip of the fingers.

Balance test ("Flamingo" test)

The test is used to assess the balance.

Execution: Standing on one foot with support on the front of the foot, the other bent at the back, hands on the hips, the time is timed until the subject is unbalanced and touches the ground with the other foot.

The test is performed first with the eyes open, then with the eyes closed.

Serve

We chose the serve because it is the only action in the volleyball game in which

the player is not influenced by the action of a teammate. Another reason was that at the serve, the player can focus much better on execution.

Execution: 10 fixed-site services are executed in the offensive.

Presentation of the results of the tests carried out the initial tests were conducted by the subjects at the beginning of September 2013 and the final ones after 12 months at the beginning of October of 2014 with the volleyball team ACS Știința Miroslava.

AS can be seen from tables 1, 2 and 3, the following data were obtained from the tests (we presented only arithmetic mean for samples, for lack of space):

Table 1
Mobility Test

Initial test	Final test
-5 cm	+6 cm

Table 2
Balance Test ("Flamingo" test)

Subjects	Initial test	Final test
With open eyes	82 sec.	240 sec.
With closed eyes	34 sec.	224 sec.

Table 3
Upper Front Service (out of 10 executions)

Initial test	Final test
4	7

4. Conclusions and Recommendations

This study is an attempt to establish some training methods using oriental techniques that have made volleyball work more efficient, and the results of the research allow us to draw the following conclusions:

The Tai Chi and Qi Gong exercises practiced on a regular basis have improved the posture and physical balance.

Stimulating the activity of the nervous system, by performing complex movements and consistently practicing Tai Chi-Qi Gong forms and forms, the ability to co-ordinate motor, work at the mental level, necessary for the psychological training of volleyball players has improved.

By acquiring self-control over mental, emotional and conscious states, the negative emotions have largely been eliminated, an optimal state of relaxation and a good mental tone have been achieved, essential factors in sports performance.

The performance of Tai Chi-Qi Gong movements combined with breathing exercises led over time, not just to the learning and learning of the right breath, naturally occurring, but also to a synchronization of the heart rate with the moment before the execution of the service, extreme moment important in the current volleyball game.

All the results obtained in the final tests clearly demonstrate the hypothesis stated at the beginning of this research.

Recommendations:

Following this study, we recommend the introduction and use of Tai Chi and Qi Gong techniques in the training of volleyball players. These exercises can be combined with any kind of training, can be practiced at any stage of the training at any time of a day, and last but not least, can help maintain and improve the health of the athlete.

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ÎMBUNĂTĂȚIREA EFICIENȚEI SERVICIULUI ÎN JOCUL DE VOLEI UTILIZÂND TEHNICI ORIENTALE TAI CHI-QI GONG

(Rezumat)

În calitate de practicant, apoi ca antrenor în voleiul de performanță ani de zile am simțit lipsa unui program de antrenament care să combine într-un mod cât mai simplu și eficient pregătirea tehnico-tactică, fizică cu cea mentală, necesare oricărei activități sportive de înalt nivel. Târziu, în timp, după ce am luat la cunoștință și am aprofundat tehnicile orientale de Tai Chi și Qi Gong, și după ce am cooptat în staff-ul echipei mele o specialistă a acestor tehnici orientale în persoana doamnei Mihaela Frai, am realizat influența benefică pe care o pot avea acestea asupra individului obișnuit dar mai ales asupra unui sportiv, aflat în orice stadiu de pregătire.