Translation from Croatian into English: dealing with Translation and Analysis of Specialized Texts from Different Disciplines

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Dealing with translation and analysis of specialized texts from different disciplines

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ABSTRACT

This B.A. thesis contains translations of four texts from Croatian into English. Each text is accompanied by a short introduction into the topic, a commentary and an analysis that contains an overview of some difficulties that were encountered during translation. Texts translated into English are as follows: texts that deal with technology (Mobile communications and Spy satellites), a text that deals with the media (Television in a new media surrounding), and a text on psychology (The psychological and psychiatric aspects of violence). The translations, commentary and analysis make up the main body of this thesis. This thesis also contains an introduction and a conclusion. The introduction gives an explanation of the term „translation“, a short description of the approach used while translating, as well as information on the language guides used during translation. The conclusion additionally explains the contents of the thesis.

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1. INTRODUCTION

This B.A thesis conists of translations of four texts from Croatian into English. The first two texts deal with technological advancements regarding mobile telephones and spy satellites describing the beginning and future progress of such technology. The third text deals with media, i.e some aspects of the role of television and Internet as the most important media, and the fourth text, the one on psychology, deals with various aspects of aggression and violence. Each of the translated texts is proceeded by an introduction into the topic of the text, and followed by an analysis which contains a reflection on the difficulties that I have encountered during the process of translation Prior to the process of translation, it was necessary for me to learn and define what translation is. During my research of available literature, I came across two possible meanings of the term translation:

1) *translation as a process*: which denotes the process of changing i.e translating the original, source text (ST) into a text in another language, i.e target text (TT),

2) *translation as a product*: that is the concrete, translated text produced by the translator.

There are several approaches to translation, which include word for word translation, literal translation, free translation, semantic translation, and the communicative translation, which is the approach used in this B.A thesis. The priority of communicative translation is the effectiveness of the message that is being communicated, rather than the text itself, and it tends to be simple, brief and written in a resourceful style. Newmark[1] explains the communicative translation as an attempt which provides the reader with the exact contextual meaning and effect of the original message, while the translation is in accordance with semantic and syntactic structures

[1] Newmark, Peter, 1988. *A textbook of Translation.* London: Prentice Hall

of the second language. Since communication is the main purpose of language, for speakers (i.e senders and receiversof the communicated message) to convey the given information, one has to have knowledge of a specific linguistic code. If speakers do not share the same language, a translation is needed in order to successfully convey messages from the source language (SL) into the target language (TL). For a translation to be successful, translator needs to be acquainted with both SL and TL, as well as with the cultural background.

Furthermore, there are numerous techniques that are used during non-literal, oblique translations, which include transposition, adaptation, modulation, compensation and equivalence. In this B.A, during the translation I used four techniques which helped me to translate elements from SL to TL without altering the meaning or disrupting grammar. These include:

a) *transposition* (replacement of a word class in the TL without changing the meaning)
b) *modulation* (a variation of the form of the message; change of point of view or grammatical category)
c) *adaptation* (using the recognized equivalent or the closest refrence in the TL in order to correctly denote an unknown concept from the SL).
d) *equivalence* (usage of different stylistic and structural methods, for eg. idioms)

During the translation process I have used numerous language guides: a monolingual Croatian dictionary, a monolingual English dictionary, bilingual dictionaries (both English-Croatian and Croatian-English), as well as online bilingual dictionaries and a thesaurus. In some cases, when the above mentioned were not sufficient, I also used other sources such as Internet websites (in order to find certain terms and expressions, possible word usages, etc), as well as searched for articles and texts on similar subjects as the texts I was translating.

In conclusion, the content of this B.A thesis includes an abstract, an introductory part, a table of contents, the main body, a conclusion, appendices and a bibliography. The main body consists of four translations of texts of different topics each of which are preceeded by a short introduction, and followed by a commentary and analysis.

2.TRANSLATION OF A TECHNOLOGICAL TEXT

2.1 Introduction

The following text was taken from an encyclopedic magazine Drvo znanja. It describes the history and origins of mobile communications, i.e. the beginning of mobile telephony during the early 70's, the creation of (European) mobile network, and development of the GSM (Global System for Mobile Communications). This text also provides an explanation of the operational principle of GSM, as well as describes the three main parts of GSM and its standards. The text provides information about the types of mobile networks in Croatia, and mentions the year 1991 as the beginning of mobile communications in Croatia.

The author of the text concludes the story about mobile communication by describing the future mobile phone devices as having a GPS, constant 3G Internet access, digital cameras, "touch sensitive" screens, and more. As today's society is entirely focused on its mobile phones, I thought it would be interesting to read (and translate) a text on how mobile phones came to be as they are today. It was also interesting to read the predictions from fifteen years ago about what present day mobile phones would look like and what functions they would have.

2.2 Translation

Mobile communications

Drvo znanja

Mobile communications are the fastest growing technology in the world today. Internet, mobility, accessibility, speed, and the ability to communicate at any time and place have become the imperative of contemporary society.

The term mobile communications is mostly associated with mobile phones. However, it also has a broader and deeper meaning. In general, communication is every exchange of information. Mobile or wireless communication, specifically, is the transmission of information (speech, image, video and other data), from one place to another by means of radio waves. Such radio waves have different properties which depend on their frequency and the space through which they expand. Microwaves, which belong to the GHz (Gigahertz) unit, cannot penetrate through natural obstacles such as various walls, buildings, etc. Very low frequencies of radio waves, or those belonging to the unit of a dozen MHz (Megahertz), penetrate through walls and various objects. Wireless systems are designed, and the frequency band of radio signal transmission is determined, according to these properties. In order for the signal to carry any information at all, the information itself must first be modulated in some way (converted into a radio signal). The first wireless telephone networks used analogue technology for the modulation of radio wave frequency into voice, and vice versa. Contemporary mobile networks use digital modulation- user's voice is first converted into a sequence of data (bits), which is then modulated and transmitted with the help of radio waves.

How it all began

In the early 70's an American research laboratory, which carries the name of the father of telephony, Alexander Graham Bell, started radio wave testing with the goal of developing an analogue mobile network which would become the predecessor of the contemporary modern mobile telephony. In the 1980s Europe introduced the first generation of mobile communication through analogue transmission. The Scandinavian countries and countries of Western Europe developed different analogue mobile systems at the same time. As a consequence of such inconsistency, the problem of not being able to use one mobile device while travelling through Europe emerged. In addition to this, it was clear that the analogue mobile networks, with their limited possibilities (interferences, the inability of fault detection, the inability of eavesdropping protection), would not be able to satisfy the demands of the 90's.

The development of GSM

The basic idea was to create a unitary European mobile network which could be used in all European countries and, later, on other continents. In 1982 the European Conference of Posts and Telecommunications (CEPT) made a decision to establish a group called Groupe Speciable Mobile (the original meaning of GSM abbreviation, which would later change to Global System for Mobile Communication). It would later develop and set standards for future European network of mobile telephony. The first resolution of the GSM association was to adopt a digital instead of an analogue system, and to put two blocks of 900 MHz frequency range into circulation which would be allocated solely to the European network. The most important advantages of the GSM system, in comparison to the analogue are: the possibility of international roaming (the possibility to communicate within the networks of other operators/countries), high quality of sound, wide offer of additional services, small and

cheap devices, and the possibility to be used by a large number of users. The system of GSM services began commercial operation in the middle of 1991. The GSM is the most widespread system of mobile telephony today. It has been introduced to more than 150 countries and it covers more than 45 percent of the total world market of mobile telephony.

The operational principle of GSM

The GSM network comprises three parts: the Mobile Station (MS) which resembles a wireless telephone with additional possibilities, the Base Transceiver Station (BTS), which operates a mobile station connection, and the Base Station Controller (BCS), which controls a large number of transceiver base stations.

MobileStation (MS): A mobile station comprises of a digital mobile phone and a SIM card (Subscriber Identity Module). The SIM card is placed into a mobile phone and serves as its connection with the GSM network. The SIM card dimensions are 1x1, 5 cm, but they also come in the size of a credit card and cards of that size are used in older models of mobile phones. The SIM microprocessor is based on a silicon chip which is designed to sustain the temperature range from -25°C to +70°C, and up to 85 percent humidity. However, since silicon is very fragile, the card can become useless if it is subjected to physical pressure or electronic exposure. A SIM card contains all the identification details of a GSM user such as the IMSI (International Mobile Subscriber Identity, the number whose first three digits represent the country of origin of the SIM card, the next represent the operator in that country, and the rest of the numbers represent the identity of the user in his network), memory for storage of telephone numbers, information about the expenses, SMS messages, PIN numbers and information about international roaming. The IMSI number is necessary in order for the user to be recognized by the network. An IMEI (International Mobile Equipment Identifier) is an identification number which is assigned by the factory to each mobile telephone, and it is

checked by the GSM networks. If the telephone is stolen, the GSM network can disable it with this unique number (it was supposed to function that way, but it is usually possible to change it with the help of suitable software). It is usually placed under the telephone battery and you can read it on the screen of the telephone by entering the characters in the following sequence#06#.

Base Transceiver Station (BTS): It consists of a radio-receiver with an antenna which covers one zone, and communicates with a mobile station through the radio interface. BTSs are interconnected to enable the user to transfer from one zone to another.

Base Station Controller (BSC): This controller is necessary for the collective work of base stations. It controls the assignment and the release of radio channels, and takes care of shifting from one zone to another. A whole array of base stations is connected to one controller which supervises every call and decides when and to which base it is necessary to forward the call.

Rest of the network:A certain number of BCSs is under the control of the switching centre of the MCS (Mobile Service Switching Centre).The MSC cooperates with four databases: the HLR (Home Location Register), the VLR (Visitor's Location Register), the EIR (Equipment Identity Register), and the AuC (Authentication Centre). The OMC (Operation and Maintenance Centre) is a centre for network maintenance (network configuration, malfunction reports, etc.)

Roaming and GSM standards

Roaming is a term which refers to the use of GSM mobile telephones in the networks of other operators. The user can use his SIM card (and mobile telephone) in all countries with which his operator has a signed contract on international roaming. Meanwhile, the mobile phone number does not change. The only condition is that the state, in which the mobile phone is used, operates within the frequency range that the mobile phone supports. Three frequency

ranges for GSM mobile telephony are currently used in the world. The first range, which is usually denoted only with the abbreviation GSM (Global System for Mobile communication), is in the 900 MHz range, and it is present in most parts of Europe and the Asian and Pacific area. The DCS (Digital Cellular System) was developed later, in the 1800 MHz frequency range, and it is nowadays used in Western Europe. It is often denoted as GSM1800. The PCS (Personal Communications System) in the 1900 MHz frequency range, or GSM 1900, is used in the USA and Canada, and in some Latin American and African countries. Older mobile telephones were usually single-band devices which could operate only in the GSM9000 frequency range. Today, dual-band mobiles, which operate in the 900 MHz and 1800 MHz network range, are prevalent, alongside the triple-band devices which can be used in all GSM networks in the world. The GSM network can also have dual/triple band characteristics which, when necessary, perform the inappreciable transfer of users from one to another frequency.

The mobile network in Croatia

The network with which mobile communication started in Croatia was the HTmobile (099), an analogue network based on the NMT 450 standard (Nordic Mobile Telephone). It started operating in 1991. It still facilitates communication within Croatia, and it has around 80 thousand users. The HTcronet (098) was the first Croatian GSM digital network. Today, it covers around 98 percent of Croatia. More than 172 international roaming contracts with Croatian Telecom enable the use of the HTcronet card within the GSM networks all over the world. Currently, there are around 644,000 users, out of which 189,000 are regular users of HTcronet, and 455 000 are Simpa users. VIPnet (091), another Croatian telecommunications operator, started operating in 1999. Currently, the VIP network covers around 95 percent of Croatia, and the network itself has around 650,000 users out of which 97,000 are regular

users, while 553,000 are VIPme users. Both networks offer a wide range of free default services, or services requested by the user. These services make mobile communication simpler, and include: call diversion, the restriction of revealing personal number (CLIR), showing the number of the caller (CLIP), call hold (CALL WAIT), conference call service, call block, voice mail, SMS, WAP, etc.

The future- mobile internet

The development of technology is, nowadays, aimed toward combining mobile communications and internet into the third generation of mobile systems, 3G, which are based on mobile internet. It is precisely the GPRS (General Packet Radio Service), that is the next step towards the next generation of mobile telephones, and which enables higher transmission speed through the GSM network. GPRS mobile phones have permanent access to internet (on-line) which makes it possible to talk on the phone and surf the internet at the same time. The first models of 3G have already been made. They are a bit bigger than the existing devices, and have big screens in colour for data display, bigger keyboards, and even a miniature mouse. But most of them are based on „touch sensitive“ screens which require the use of special „pens“ to enable writing on them. In addition to voice transmission, these super mobile phones will be able to play audio files in the MP3 format, which will be downloaded from the Internet when the mobile phone is not in use. For those who prefer the written word, there will be models with bigger screens which will enable their users to read the latest literature in an electronic book format. Most models include a digital camera as a main component of the device, which will enable transfer of whole video recordings. All the prototypes and first commercial models have headphones, which are physically detached from the device, so that the user can talk and, for example, write an e-mail at the same time. For the

end user, the meaning of the term mobile internet is represented by a mobile telephone with the features of a small personal computer.

2.3 Commentary and analysis

This is the first text that I have translated per se, and I did not know what to expect, or whether I was doing a good job. As already mentioned in the introduction, I found this text very interesting and during my first reading of it, I thought that it would be easy to translate it because it contained familiar vocabulary as well as technological terms. During the translation I realized that it can be really hard to find an appropriate English equivalent for a certain Croatian word or expression. For example, I had trouble translating the following expressions „zabrana slanja vlastitog broja (CLIR)“, and “nemogućnost zaštite od prisluškianja” , and after some research I opted for the following translations: “the restriction of revealing personal number (CLIR)”, and “the inability of eavesdropping protection”. Another challenging expression was “fizički ili elektronski utjecaji” which at first I translated as “exposure to physical or electronic impact”, but I finally opted for “(….) subjected to physical pressure or electronic exposure”. There were also many other terms which I had problems translating, such as “smetnje” or “interferences” rather than “disturbances”, or “frekvencijsko područje” which is translated as “frequency range” rather than “frequency area”.

Furthermore, I had some problems with complete sentences and their structures, as well as vocabulary. One of the problematic sentences for me was the following: “Dimenzije SIM kartice su 1x1,5 cm, a postoje i u veličini kreditne kartice (….)”. It was hard for me to translate the sentence because it never sounded quite right, so I decided to keep the original

sentence structure and translated it as “The SIM card dimensions are 1x1, 5 cm, but they also come in the size of a credit card (...)”. Another difficult sentence which caused me a lot of problems was “Jedini je uvjet da država u kojoj se koristi mobilni telefon radi u frekvencijskom području koje sam mobilni telefon podržava”. The last part of the sentence was particularly confusing, and at first I translated it as “the state in which the mobile phone is used works in the frequency area which the mobile phone supports”. Upon further brainstorming, the final result of the translation was the following: “ (...) the state, in which the mobile phone is used, operates within the frequency range that the mobile phone supports”.

Next, I noticed that I had a lot of difficulties dealing with articles, and that, unless I concentrated really hard, I would often either omit an article, or put a wrong article in a sentence. After I realized that I really have to pay attention to articles while proofreading my translation and rely on my knowledge of English, articles became less and less problematic. In conclusion, I had some problems with the text in general. Some thoughts that were expressed in the text were really hard to follow due to strange sentence structures and too long sentences. Because of these problems, I often had to change the word order in the translated text so it would follow the rules of English grammar and syntax.

3.TRANSLATION OF A TECHNOLOGICAL TEXT

3.1 Introduction

This text introduces us to the history of spy satellites. It explains the beginnings of spy technology and satellite development, as well as their usage and purposes. Further in the text we learn about various space programmes developed in order to improve the spy technology, as well as about some ways in which they operate, i.e. how they gather information and send them to Earth. This text contains a description of spy wars between the two greatest rivals, America and Russia, but it also gives attention to space programmes of other, less developed countries such as India, Israel, and other.

3.2 Translation

Spy satellites

Drvo znanja

Spy satellites, or reconnaissance satellites, orbiting the Earth (200 km above your heads) cannot read the license plate number, but they can see if a car has a plate. Satellites cannot estimate the exact length of a man's beard, but they can analyze his figure, or count the number of people during street demonstrations.

Everything began in the years after the World War II, when the contemporary USSR became a serious threat to the USA. Both countries started to work on satellite development programme in 1959, and the first successfully launched satellite was used solely for military purposes.

The beginning of the race

When the USSR had completed testing of their first atomic bomb (1953), developed a bomber which could fly over great distances (1955), started to invest great efforts in the development of projectiles, and started a rapid armament race, the USA found itself directly confronted with a growing threat. In 1954, James Killian, a scientist and one of founders of the NASA, convinced, with his „Surprise attack study", the American president at that time, Eisenhower, that the Soviet Union was working intensively on the development of long range missiles. Trying to keep up with the Soviet military industry, the Americans started to develop an efficient spy system which, amongst other things, resulted in the birth of the U-2 spy plane. The other direction in which the USA military-spy technology was developing was a research programme which was to be used to develop a satellite system that would monitor the USSR from space. In 1954, a study on the possibility of space reconnaissance was conducted. Hence, footages and photographs filmed in orbit would also be developed in orbit, and would then be transmitted to the ground by a radio connection. The television option was abandoned in 1957 because the photographs did not have sufficient resolution, although the concept of a satellite that sends data through radio signals did not fail completely, but developed into a series of satellites under the codename „Samos" and it „lasted" until the beginning of the 60's. In another study, from 1956, it was suggested that high resolution photographs should be taken and then returned to the Earth in a capsule, which would, after the fall, be pulled out of sea or caught in air, and the films would be developed on Earth.

The development of American satellites

Spy satellites that would scan and send the recorded material through radio connection to Earth were developing slowly. Therefore, on 7th February 1958, Eisenhower approved the CIA programme of reconnaissance satellite development under a codename "Corona", which marked the whole following decade. The key to „Corona's" success was simplicity. Satellites (5.8 m length, 1.5 m diameter, 3.85 t heavy with a full load) would travel three times around the Earth taking photographs and afterwards, send undeveloped films to Earth in a capsule. A specially-equipped airplane would „pick up" the capsule while it is falling down with a parachute. The first launches in 1959 started mostly unsuccessfully because of the problems with the missiles. The first successful launch was the thirteenth one in a row, when the satellite had arrived into the orbit and ejected an empty capsule. The first complete successful mission occurred on 18th August in 1960 when „Corona" ejected the capsule with films from the orbit. The images had the resolution (the smallest size of a discernable object) of around 14 meters. The „Corona" satellites (marked as KH-1, KH-2, etc, which was an abbreviation for the word keyhole) on their very first mission captured the Soviet Union on photographs better than all the U-2 airplane missions combined. Cameras were quickly becoming better, and the KH-4 satellite had already in 1964 taken photographs on which objects of 2 meter radius could be identified. The system was becoming more reliable- 32 successful launches had lined up from May 1966 to February 1971, and on May 25th, 1972, the last „Corona" was launched. 750 million square miles of Earth (mostly China and USSR) were cartographed, and during 145 missions, 800 000 images were taken. Together with „Corona"-two smaller programmes were being developed- „Argon" (for cartography) and „Lanyard" (which monitored specific targets in the USSR) and they were operating from 1962 until 1964. „Lanyard", the satellite marked as KH-6, capable of capturing details of just 60 cm in size, was an introduction to the „Gambit" satellite programme (first launched in July 1963), whose

mission was also to take images of small areas in high resolution („Corona“ could only take quite wide images). „Gambit“ had operated from 1963 to 1984. The first satellite from that programme (KH-7) could take images with a half meter resolution, and the last one (KH-8) could take images of resolution up to 20 cm. The 70's initiated the „Hexagon“ generation of spy satellites which took highly detailed images (with 30-60 cm resolution) of a much bigger area than the „Corona“. Eighteen satellites (labeled as KH-9) were launched between 1971 and 1984. In 1976, monitoring from space climbed a step higher with the launch of the first KH-11 (the „Kennan/Crystal“ programme), which was followed by the KH-12 (the first was launched in 1992). The more advanced electronics of these satellites enabled taking sharp photographs as well as photographs with 10 centimeter resolution. A rotating mirror similar to a periscope reflected images onto the main mirror, enabling the KH-12 to photograph objects hundreds of kilometers away from its orbit at high inclination angles. The KH-12 carried much more fuel than the KH-11 (up to 7 tons), which enabled a longer lifespan and better mobility. Experts compare these 15-ton satellites with the Hubble telescope, but pointed towards Earth, instead of towards the space. They can record objects even the size of a softball from a height of 320 km, and with infrared light they can even spot a solitary campfire. In 1986, CIA started to develop the „Lacrosse“ satellite programme equipped with space-based imaging radars that can scan even through clouds. „Lacrosse-1“ was taken into orbit in 1988 by a space shuttle, and it provided images with 1 meter resolution (it was followed by „Lacrosse-2“ in 1991, and „Lacrosse-3“ in 1997).

Soviet space reconnaissance

The Experimental Design Bureau or OKB-1, which was run by Sergej Koroljev, was in charge of Soviet satellites in 1956. In 1958, OKB-1 was assigned with the task of sending a man into orbit. As the office did not have enough money to go in for both the programme for space

reconnaissance and sending a man into orbit, Koroljev combined these 2 programmes so the Soviet spy satellites were very similar to the satellites intended for humans. Therefore, they initially had the same name, and both types of the „space vehicles“ were called Vostok (east). The first test of launching procedure of the spy satellite („Zenit-2“) took place in December in 1962. The first proper operational flight occurred in October 1963, under the secret code name „Cosmos-20“. Just like the „Corona“, „Zenit“ too had several series (Zenit2, Zenit-4, Zenit-6) with various reconnaissance possibilities. Satellites would spend a short time in the orbit and would drop capsules which, unlike the „Corona's“, contained the entire valuable cargo of the satellite, not only the capsule with films. The USSR introduced the „Yantar“ series in the 70's. The first (failed) launch took place in 1974. These satellites had been gradually replacing „Zenit“ (the last one was launched in 1992), and they were in operative state for months. „Yantar's“ technology was the basis of the Soviet electro-optical satellites, the first of which was sent into orbit in 1982. In the early 70's, the USSR also launched a series of Radar Ocean Reconnaissance Satellites („Rorsat“), which used a powerful radar powered by a nuclear reactor, and served for monitoring NATO's fleet. When their lifespan expired, satellites would eject the nuclear fuel into the High Earth Orbit, in which it would remain forever (or at least until it became innocuous). However, there were a few accidents during actual performance. The most famous accident is the one from 1978, when „Cosmos 954“ from this series crashed over Canada, leaving behind radioactive fragments. After 33 launches, the "Rorstat" programme ended in 1988. In 1974 the Soviets began with the Ocean Reconnaissance Satellite programme „Elint“ (the series was called “Erostat“) which monitored NATO's ships by tracking their electronic emissions. The third generation of the Soviet's Reconnaissance satellites was called „Resurs-F“, and it was a greatly improved version of the „Zenit“: The first satellite from this series was launched on

25th May 1989, it weighed almost seven tons, and in the orbit it was „regrouped“ into two „subsatelites“- the main satellite was orbiting 300-350 km above Earth.

Other countries' spy satellites

In addition to the USA and Russia, nowadays, France, China, Japan, India, Israel and ESA (European Space Agency) can also launch satellites. China launched its first spy satellite in 1975, and in 1999 they launched as many as 17 satellites. All Chinese satellites operate on the principle of sending films to the ground in capsules, and their general code name is FSW („Fanhui Shi Weixing“ or „recoverable satellite“). In collaboration with Spain and Italy, France has developed the „Helios“ satellites. „Helios 1“ was launched in July in 1995. It sends images (up to 15 m resolution) electronically, and it was used during the attack on Yugoslavia. Bad weather conditions might have been able to obstruct „Helios 1“, but they will not obstruct „Helios 2“, which will be launched in 2003. Israel has been working on their space monitoring programme for more than four decades. The experimental satellite „OFFEQ 1“, constructed with the aid of South Africa, was launched in 1988. The „OFFEQ 2“, 115 kg heavy, was launched two years later, and was followed by „OFFEQ 3“ (225 kg) in 1995. „OFFEQ 4“ was launched in 1998, but it unfortunately crashed into the Mediterranean Sea. India has developed and launched the PSLV (Polar Satellite Launch Vehicle). Even though India claims that it is not a reconnaissance satellite for military purposes, the difference between „civil“ and spy satellites is only in the degree of technology, not in its nature. Japan has had technological possibilities for constructing and launching reconnaissance satellites into orbit for a very long time, but they started with the programme only during the late 90's, when they were forced to do so by regional threats, i.e. rocket testing of North Korea.

3.3 Commentary and analysis

The biggest problem with this translation was tenses. Since the author of this text wrote about multiple events in the past, which had reference to past, contemporary and future events, it was hard for me to follow and understand the timeline, as well as to understand and use the correct English tenses. I made some mistakes regarding the correct English tenses during translation, and because of this I had to go through my text a couple of times to correct the wrong tenses. For example, in the sentence " U drugoj studiji, iz 1956, predloženo je snimanje slika velike razlučivosti (…)" I got slightly confused because of the surrounding text and its timeline, and I could not decide on what tense to use. Finally I opted for the solution "it was suggested that high resolution photographs should be taken ". Another sentence, i.e. part of the sentence, for which I could not decide what tense to use was the following: " (…) koji će obilježiti cijelo sljedeće desetljeće." At first I wanted to put the expression into a future tense, but finally I changed the verb into a past tense and translated the expression as "marked the whole following decade ".

Apart from tenses, the original Croatian text had strange sentence constructions and word order, as well as too long sentences with a lot of information. Therefore I had to break up sentences and change the word order and the structure of sentences so that the translation would follow the rules of English grammar. One example of such a sentence is the following: "Još 1954. godine "Studija iznenadnog napada" Jamesa Killiana, američkog znanstvenika i jednog od osnivača NASA-e ….". It was challenging to produce a correct translation and a sentence construction, and after a lot of contemplating I decided to translate the sentence as follows: "In 1954, James Killian, a scientist and one of founders of the NASA, convinced, with his „Surprise attack study (….) ". Another such, but less complicated, sentence was the

one describing the “Resurs-F”, i.e “Resurs-F zvala se treća generacija sovjetskih osmatračkih satelita (….)”, and had to change the structure of the sentence so it would follow English grammar. This sentence resulted with the following translation: “The third generation of the Soviet's Reconnaissance satellites was called Resurs-F (….)“ Moreover, the already mentioned sentence constructions had often misled me, which resulted in mistranslations of certain structures and expressions.

During the translation of this text I also encountered some specific terms and expressions which required an in-depth thinking as well as research to find the correct English equivalent. These include the term “svemirsko osmatranje”, for which I discovered the term “space reconnaissance”. Another problem were the constructions which included the term “razlučivost”, for example “razlučivost (…) oko 14 metara”. At first I considered translating the expression as “14 meters resolution”, but after all, for the final solution I opted for the expression “ resolution (…) of around 14 meters”. I had a similar problem with the verb “snimati” in the sentence “ (…) opremljenih svemirskim radarima koji mogu snimati i kroz oblake”. I could not find the right and the correct verb to express “snimanje kroz oblake”, and after lengthy research I decided to translate the expression as “scan through clouds”, rather than to use verbs such as “filming” or “monitoring”.

This translation presented a great challenge for me because of poor sentence structures in the source text, as well as the vocabulary, so it required a lengthy research as well as brainstorming.

4.TRANSLATION OF A MEDIA TEXT

4.1 Introduction

This text deals with the evolution of media starting with radio and television. It mentions television as the most powerful medium because of its persuasiveness and means of presenting information. The technological development emerged from the development of a communication system, i.e. the cable and the satellite image transmission. Furthermore, this text covers the consequences of such development, which is decentralization of television, and describes the subsequent commercialization, popularization and tabloidization of television and its contents. But the influence of television as a medium is slowly loosing strength with the development of the Internet and network communication which combines the informative with the communicative function of the media. With the emergence of the Internet as a new medium, the traditionally set media perspective is changing, as the users are becoming both the creators of the content as well as the audience. But the problem with the new media is the possibility of manipulation of the low-educated and less-experienced users which might result in restricting people's rights, giving untrue or unreliable information, or even (Internet) violence.

4.2 Translation

Television in a new media surrounding

Viktorija Car

An old lady- television

From the perspective of social development, the 20th century was most dynamic when it came to media evolution. The radio and television were born. Seventy-five years have passed since the first television broadcast on BBC in 1936, and we can certainly talk about the domination of television as the most powerful medium at least during the last fifty years. What distinguished television from the newspapers and radio was the persuasiveness of television image, and unlike movies, the television picture presented in an informative style was not, or at least was not expected to be, a staged fiction. Television brought broadcasts of real events, as well as the statements of people who were influential in the political, economic, and cultural life of a country or a local community.

With a series of analyses concerning the influence of television on culture and on the intellectual life of people, Marshall McLuhan roused a great interest for this subject in the sixties. McLuhan described the basic differences between television and the printed works by claiming that the ways inwhich messages are received are more important than the message itself (the medium is a message). First of all, it is the credibility of the television image that contributes to the authenticity of television content, and it is one of the key criteria for the power and influence of television. It was precisely the image of „real life“ that drew the line between movie as fiction and television as an image, a reality created by the media. We will

highlight the fact that the television reality is only a mediation of reality, because even when it shows a live broadcast of an event without reporters' comments or participants' statements, the position and angle of the camera from where the event is filmed, i.e. the relationship between the filmed and non-filmed, remains important. By using a unidirectional communication channel, the one which goes from the creator of content to the viewer, television has dominated, and still dominates, as a source of information, knowledge and entertainment.From that time on, television continued to be the most popular medium. However, different formats of varous contents and new hybrid genres, as well as the interactive dimension of the internet, are slowly but surely taking over.

Three and a half decades ago (in 1975), Denis McQuail wrote that the technological development cannot be observed separately from the process of the development of a communication system. Due to a strong development in the 60s, the cable and the satellite image transmission irretrievably launched a wave of changes both on the American and on the European television market. Previously, modern technology had influenced the change of media content, as well as the organization of the media itself. Television in Europe started to liberalize, and the mass decentralization of television occurred in the 80s. Until then, television was almost solely under the public media service which was conjoined with the state. Then television, under the influence of a new commercialist approach, changed the content variety and the way of introducing the content to the viewers in accordance with a new purpose, to achieve higher ratings, which is an excuse for advertisers whose presence on television results in making profit. Television programs started to (1) commercialize- the advertisers were allowed to promote their contents and services not only during the minutes permitted by the law, which are separated from the program and labelled as a block of advertisements, but also within the television content packaged into journalistic forms and genres. Television programs also started to be (2) popularized, that is, simplified in order to be

more understandable and acceptable to the wide audience. The popularization, in its extreme, led to the (3) tabloidization and trivialization of contents through which the topics about the everyday life of noted and famous people are imposed on the audience as pseudoevents while, on the contrary, this is a content which does not satisfy the professional criteria of newsworthiness, or media content at all. It is important to emphasize that the popularization itself does not have to be negative if it is guided by an effort to make hardly understandable contents clearer to the wider audience. Popularization itself is in contrast to the elitism and the paternalism which result in a knowledge gap. That means that the „serious“ contents are reserved only for those who can afford a better quality education and information, while the groups which are ranked lower on the socioeconomic scale stay unprivileged.

The same process of changing television content later happened in the countries of the former socialist-communist block, and we have been witnessing these changes for past two decades. Even though the processes have not been finished yet, technology does not wait. Therefore, Europe is currently undergoing a very important process of replacing the analogue system with the digital. In the digital world, since it is not necessary to occupy the frequency area of radio waves anymore, the number of channels available for broadcasting has decupled, and it seems that the regulation is becoming meaningless. However, a large number of channels does not necessarily mean a large number of various programs and contents of good quality because the offer is mostly uniform. Hence, the challenge for the regulation is to find models through which the technological development and multitude of channels would match the public requirements, that is, to provide all citizens with equal access to the various program contents. Consequently, the new regulation model does not result fromthe definition of the media itself, but from the definition of public interest. We will deal with the media content suitable for modern audience at a later point in this paper.

The Internet- an anarchic hyper(inter)active enfant terrible

Media and communication studies are based on idea that the media rarely have a direct, mass, or momentary effect. There was an assumption that the mass and the interpersonal communication have been interlaced in order to produce some of the effects which are attributed to the media. With the development of the Internet and network communication, this idea has proved to be unsustainable. The new digital media offer the possibility to examine the communication channels offered to us by various media. Today, within the division into online and offline media, we talk about three levels of communication: one to one, one to many, and many to many communication. With its fast development, the Internet has intensively combined the informative with the communicative function of the media. The difference between the Internet and television was considerable during the time when video contents contained too much data for the Internet bandwidth. With the development of online platforms for video contents, the convergence of these two media grew stronger. This is about technologically enabled permeation of informative-communicative media contents and services. Marc Deuze summarizes the institutional features of the different levels of the convergence: (1) Partnership with the other media organizations (journalism or nonjournalism) with the aim to offer, promote and give a new meaning or news exchange, (2) cross media (integrated) marketing and management projects, (3) establishment of research and development strategies, and (4) contextual factors which refer to a local or an industrial law regulation and syndicate rules. In this paper we will focus solely on the relationship between the television content and online content, and on the convergence of television and the Internet. First, it is necessary to distinguish what sets television apart as a traditional medium from the new media.

Danijel Labaš listed four main characteristics of the new media: (1) digitality- processing the data in a digital form whose final result is the convergence between the traditional cultural industries and the new telecommunicational achievements. (2) multimediality- which is characterized by a strong integration of various codes and means of expression during the creation of a media text. (3) interactivity- which comprises the relationship between the two subjects or between multiple communication subjects, and (4) hypertextuality- a nonlinear binding of information sets.

Unlike in the traditionally set media perspective (newspapers, television, and radio) as a one way communication from the sender to the receiver, in the new paradigm, which was made possible by the Internet, the information does not have hierarchical structure. The Web 2.0 technology has enabled a full two-way communication and the decentralized structure of the Internet has resulted in users becoming both the creators of content as well as its audience. Today we speak of phenomena such as user generated content (publicly available media content created by the users themselves), citizen journalism (journalism in which the role of the reporter or analyst is taken over by the civilians, not the professional journalists), collaborative reporting (reporting via the web in which all the interested users are included) or crowd sourcing (massive collaboration such as the Wikipedia, which was enabled by Web 2.0, and its purpose is to gather information or ideas foraspecific purpose). This is about one anarchic, but a very democratic, structure which must be given acknowledgement for enabling the freedom of speechfor treating all the users equally regardless of their education level, ancestry, economic status, religion, political or any other belief. The freedom of speech has its price, of course, like any other freedom, and in this case it is the possibility of manipulating the low-educated, less-experienced, and most notably, children. Lejla Turčilo says that it is precisely this anarchic structure that brings the online media into question, and at the same time endangers the fundamental postulate of mediated communication according to which the

right to communicate is accompanied by the responsibility for what a person has said, written, or expressed in any other way. Initially, individual responsibility must be founded on respect for the human rights and freedoms fromwhich other rights and freedoms are derived. McQuail (1994) also describes individual responsibility as an imperative of media transmitted communication, and he points out that the issues of following the rules of politeness, as well as maxims of conversation, are highly dependent on every individual.

However, attention should also be drawn to the positive outcome of this anarchic structure, because it is the new media perspective that has changed the nature of information dissemination so the authenticity of the content cannot be addressed solely to the creator of the content. It is the two-way communication that has enabled the present day user to verify information by himself on several levels (by comparing the traditional media or by researching the Virtual space) and to become the medium of further information propagation at the same time.Due to reasons mentioned above, the Internet really seems to be an irrepressible enfant terrible which sometimes frightens, and is sometimes dangerous, but without which many of the contemporaries of informational-communicational revolution would not be able to live.

4.3 Commentary and analysis

During the translation of this text, I had some difficulties regarding the sentence structure. The sentences are very long, often with additional information, as well as with many inserted descriptions within one sentence. I had difficulties translating such structures as

I did not want to completely change the original sentence structure, but it was difficult to keep the original meaning in English sentences. Therefore some of the sentences were broken up. For example, in the sentence " Televizijski se program počinje (1) komercijalizirati (....), (2) popularizirati – pojednostavljivati kako bi biorazumljiviji i prihvatljiviji široj publici, što u svom ekstremu dovodi do (3) tabloidizacije i trivijalizacije sadržaja (...)", there was too much information which made the sentence too long, and I could not translate it into English without breaking the sentence into two parts. The translation resulted with a new sentence, „The popularization, in its extreme, led to the (3) tabloidization and trivialization of contents (...)", which enabled a smooth flow of thoughts.

Furthermore, I had difficulties with translating some terms regarding the media and Internet, such as "hijerarhizirajući predznak" ,"Internetske sfere", or "internetske kapacitete". I translated the term "hijerarhizirajući preznak" as "hierarchical structure", but for the other two terms, the appropriate translation was more difficult to find. After searching through dictionaries and Internet entries, the most appropriate solution for the term "Internetske sfere" was "virtual space", rather than "Internet sphere", and for "Internetski kapaciteti", I used the term "Internet bandwidth" because it closely corresponds to the meaning of the term.

Moreover, there were also some expressions which were a bit challenging during translation, such as "živa slika", "režirana fikcija" or "informativni formati". The term "živa slika" was really confusing to me, because I am not familiar with such terms, and at first I chose to translate it directly using an expression which I have encountered a couple of times, and it was the term "motion picture". Such translation appeared to be wrong. Therefore, the term "motion picture" was replaced by a simpler term, i.e. "film". The term "režirana fikcija" was problematic because I could not find the appropriate phrase which would convey the meaning of this term. At first I translated the term as "directed fiction", but upon further

research I opted for the term “staged fiction”. As for the term “informativni formati”, I considered it wrong to translate it simply as “informative formats”, and decided to use the term “informative style”. The same problems were caused by expressions such as “jednake mogućnosti pristupa” (“equal access”), “vrijednosti vijesti” (after a lengthy research I opted for the term “newsworthiness”) or “velik broj kvalitetnih sadržaja i programa” (translated as “a large number of various programs and contents of good quality”), which I had trouble translating because it was hard for me to omit the Croatian sentence structures. But those problems were solved by searching for the correct expressions in dictionaries, or by browsing the Internet pages and articles on the same topic.

5.TRANSLATION OF A TEXT ON PSYCHOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

Aggression and violence are phenomena which are a part of human, but also, animal nature. People have tried to explain and study these phenomena for a long time, and one of the possible approaches that are mentioned in this text is the psychological-psychiatric approach. This text deals with the forms of aggression and qualification of their causes, as well as factors by which aggression is modified. Aggression and violence are seen as an every-day occurrence, mostly because they are a part of human history, as well as a part of contemporary society. The authors of this text also blame the media for a high level of violence, as well as for inappropriate treatment of perpetrators by law, various organizations, and society in general. Moreover, the authors discuss whether aggressive behavior should be looked upon as a consequence of mental illnesses or disorders, and they also explain the difference between the two terms. I believe that aggression and violence are a huge problem of today's society, and they should be thoroughly studied with the goal of gaining insight into how to properly deal with violent perpetrators in order to decrease the number of instances of aggressive behavior.

5.2 Translation

The psychological and psychiatric aspects of violence

Vlado Jukić i Aleksandar Savić

Aggression and violence

A multidisciplinary approach is needed in order to define the terms aggression and violence. Consequently, it is necessary to define a framework within which these phenomena can be observed, before we enter the topic. One of such frameworks is the psychological-psychiatric framework.

Unlike violence, aggression as a phenomenon is often viewed and studied through the categories of biomedicine and psychology. It is imminent and related to people and animals. On the other hand, violence is related to people, and it belongs to the fields of study of psychology, law, criminology and sociology.

While violence is regularly related to aggression, not every form of aggression can be equated with violence. This is why it is necessary to give attention to the problem of aggression. The biological basis of aggression is dealt with in another paper. Therefore, in this paper, we will mostly deal with other foundations and aspects of aggression, and its biology will be mentioned subsequently, unless it is possible to avoid it.

The term aggression is derived from Latin (ad-+gradi), and means to move forward, to stride. Hence, there is nothing bad in the foundation of aggression, which nonetheless has a negative connotation- it is normal and desirable to move forward. It is probably because of this

meaning, that the use of the term aggression is today more commonly used in a positive sense. It is said that a sportsman must be aggressive, otherwise he will not reach his full potential and achieve desirable results. Likewise, positive connotation is attributed to aggression when it is present among managers. Erich Fromm gives a lot of attention to positively connoted type of aggression in his book "The anatomy of human destructiveness". He describes it as a benign form of aggression, unlike the malignant form which is negative and can have various destructive effects. When talking about aggression, we usually refer to an intentional, physically aggressive behavior directed toward another person or persons, even though aggression can also be directed towards things and objects, and it often is. The term, or rather, the problem of aggression, is associated with intent. If someone has hurt another person, or damaged some object unintentionally, then the term aggression is not used for denoting the behavior that preceded the act, i.e.it is not considered as a consequence of aggressive behavior (act), but rather as an accident. This approach to the qualification of the cause of what could be the consequence of aggression is particularly complicated in the forensic-psychiatric evaluation of mentally ill patients- the perpetrators of such acts (criminal or minor offence, or that is to say, if it is determined that the perpetrator was disordered, or has done something "that has features of a criminal offence"). Aggression is a term which denotes the feature of an aggressive person, of something that is aggressive, and the aggressor is the one who behaves in an aggressive way.

Aggression is not only a feature of humans, but also of animals. Aggressive behavior among animals is usually a reaction to any kind of threat to survival or hierarchical position. Even though aggression mechanisms among humans are much more complicated, aggression among animals is also tied to the mechanism of "fight-or-flight response", depending on the evaluation of a dangerous situation. A "greater threat" caused by a stronger opponent, in a situation of a possible escape, leads to fleeing. On the other hand, a "minor" danger leads to a

fight when it is caused by a weaker opponent who could be defeated, or when there is no possibility to take flight. Even though it is based on the same (biological) processes, aggression among people is modified through the factors of cultural, moral and social situation.

In which ways and how much a certain culture affects the aggression of its members, regardless of its development stage, is observable from the examples of some "primitive" societies. Aggressive behavior among the Zuni Indians (who live in the American state of New Mexico, counting 7000 members), is almost unheard of, since their basic characteristics include tenderness, helpfulness, and cooperation, and they primarily give affirmation to life. On the other hand, aggression is more common in the destructive society of the Dobu tribe, in which distrust is dominant, and everyone is seen as a potential enemy. A non-destructive aggressive society (Manus tribe) is seen as one in which the so called male aggression is present. Regardless of the wide-spread opinion that violence is less present among primitive, tribal people, the myth about the "peaceful savage" is shattered- it has been found that the murder rate in some tribes is higher than in the developed countries.

The significance of aggression and violence is evident from the fact that the whole history of humanity is marked by wars, murders and ill-treatment. It seems like everything that is not aggressive, is not interesting- it is boring. This is why the media from all over the world, and especially here, where even the serious papers turned "yellow", are full of the reports about aggression, violence, and their consequences. Either way, it is necessary to mention the psychological dimension of the media in the emergence and spread of aggression. Many books and articles are written about the media who stimulate aggressive behavior among their readers by their attitude and treatment of the problem of aggression. The publications and their text and graphics are often of such nature that even though they apparently condemn violence, they encourage it in two possible ways. On the one hand, they confront harshly the

perpetrators who have to be dealt with aggressively, and on the other hand, publications are such that they show that violence pays off: everyone moves out of the way for bullies, leaving them a free path, and nobody punishes them. And the responses to such publications of those who fight against violence are often controversial- at first, severe punishments are requested, and then, when and if the punishments are doled out, many protest against them requesting understanding, education and re-education. Organizations that deal with the prevention of aggression and violence are often led by individuals, as can be seen from the public offset, for whom such activities are only means of promotion, or even of acquiring certain financial assets.

When thinking about the causes of aggressive behavior, which is the basis of violence, it is impossible not to mention the Nobel prize winner Conrad Lawrence, the founder of modern etiology (the science about behaviors of animals and people), who believes that aggression is an instinct. It draws its strength from one live energy source. Energy is accumulated in the neural centers, which results in an explosion without a stimulus ("Spontaneity is what makes an instinct so dangerous"). According to this theory, which is accepted by many because it justifies us, it is not our fault that we incline towards violence and nuclear war because everything is conditioned by the biological factors that are out of our control. But it must be added that a man is not only a biological and instinctive being who acts upon its instinctshuman behavior is also driven by other mechanisms.

That is why there is a vast array of theories that explain the phenomena of aggression and violence. The aim of this paper is not to list and explain all the theories, but prior to gaining an insight into a more narrow psychiatric aspect of violence, it is important to mention that aggression has been most thoroughly studied through the psychodynamic and behavioralcognitive lens, and that the theories that have emerged from these frames of study are widely known. The psychodynamic theory is based on Freud's doctrine about the human

urge and the tendency to satisfy it. There are two basic drives mentioned by Freud- the constructive Eros which manifests itself as a drive for life, growth, reproduction, and a destructive Thanatos (death drive) which tries to destroy everything around it with the help of various mechanisms. According to the psychodynamic theory, aggression is a mental phenomenon which is expressed through interpersonal relationships, and it is a response to inadequate, excessive outer and inner restrictions or inability to control the achievement of satisfaction. According to this theory, aggression does not have to be expressed through any psychomotor form- unconscious aggressive impulses and wishes can lead to equal destructiveness as motor activity. Passive aggressive behavior toward ones parents and environment (which is an expression of an immature ego) is displayed by a person who does not act in accordance with their chronological age, for example, a 30-year-old who lives with their parents, lies around, does not work, and requests an allowance. The psychodynamic theory also explains inadequate emotional reactions that are aimed toward someone else (redirected aggression), and used instead of a physical reaction.

The "environmentalists", unlike the "instinctivists" claim that the human behavior is shaped by the environment, society and the culture people live in, and the enlighteners claim that the man is good and rational by nature, that bad examples, upbringing and institutions are responsible for his bad behavior. The cognitive-behavioral explanation of aggression follows the lead. Aggressive behavior, just like every other form of social behavior, is acquired through observation of a personal experience. A human being acts, feels and thinks in a way that has proven itself efficient for achieving what he wants. If aggression gets him what he wants, a man will be aggressive, and if he gains what he wants trough subjection, he will be submissive.

As an illustration of human aggression, in the context of obedience and situational conditions, it is useful to mention two experiments. The first one is from the Yale University (Stanley

Milgram, 1961), that confirmed that students, on teacher's demand, continued to torture their subjects with electric shocks regardless of their sobs and obvious feeling of pain (only 35% of subjects refused to "give" electric shocks, which were fake, but the subjects were unaware of this fact-when those who "received" the electric shocks started to moan, sob, and beg them to stop). The second experiment, conducted at Stanford in 1971, was shut down by the researchers because the "guards" were treating the "prisoners" in such a way that they were seriously harmed. The first experiment was designed in such a way that the subjects (students engaged in the experiment) gave an electric shock for every incorrect answer given by other subjects (students engaged in the experiment who were told to give wrong answers on purpose), and the subjects amplified the strength of electric shocks after each wrong answer. The subjects were pretending to receive electric shocks by squirming and sobbing, and begging the examiners to stop. The subjects continued to give electric shocks even though they did not know that they were fake and that it was all an act. Fourteen subjects, that is, 35% of all subjects, continued to give electric shocks to the other subjects. In the other experiment, the subjects were pretending to be prisoners and prison guards, not knowing that the other ones were not real prisoners, i.e. guards. The "Guards", as stated, showed their sadistic side.

Mental illnesses and disorders as causes of aggressive behavior and violence

Even though violent behavior is more present among "normal people", the widespread opinion states that the basis of aggressive behavior is mental illnesses and disorder. Even though this is not the case, since mental illnesses in some cases do encourage an aggressive behavior, and even violence, it is a good idea to mention them here.

Before further elaboration of this problem, it should be pointed out, that the terms "mental illnesses" and "mental disorders" are still being discussed (the term "mental" is often replaced

by the term psychical!?!) because some consider them synonymous, and some as words of different meanings. In this paper, the term “mental illness” is used for everything that is classified under the term “real, common mental illnesses” (for example schizophrenia, psychosis, dementia), and the term “mental disorder”, which does not have any known biological basis, that is, according to 10th revision of Illnesses and disorders of the World Health Organization, classified as a disorder (e.g. Personality disorder). It should be added that psychiatrists mostly consider the “real mental illnesses” to be the focus of their interest, and “mental disorders” or at least some of them, are viewed as belonging to the field of interest of some other profession.

5.3 Commentary and analysis

This article was not so hard to translate for me because in my free time I like to read articles and texts from the field of psychology. I am mostly familiar with the psychological terms, as well as with terms used in this paper, but still, there were some difficulties during the translation process. Since the text was written by scientists from the field of psychology, they used a specific style of writing. The sentence structure was complicated, and sentences often contained inserted additional information. It often took a long time for me to understand what the authors meant, mostly due to a confusing thought flow in the text, and I had difficulties translating the author’s ideas into English. Because the sentences were very long and descriptive, I had to break them up, as well as change word order in most of the sentences in order to translate them according to the rules of English grammar.

Moreover, I had difficulties with translating the terms “ispitivači”, “ispitanici” and “sudionik”, because even though all three terms are different, they were used to denote people

who were subjects with different roles in the same experiment that is mentioned in the text. I also had some problems with certain phrases and constructions such as “postizanje zadovoljstva”, for which I had trouble finding the correct English equivalent. The biggest problem with this translation was the specific terminology regarding journalism and media, like the expression “napisi i njihova oprema”. I deliberately translated the term “napisi” as “publications”, but I could not find a solution for the term “oprema”, mostly because I did not know what it refers to. I searched the Internet and dictionaries, and after no success, I contacted a person who is a journalist. After learning the meaning of the word I searched through online journalism dictionaries and translated the word “oprema” as “text and graphics” .

6.CONCLUSION

For the purposes of this B.A. thesis I have translated four texts, two of which deal with technology, while other two comprise the topics of media and psychology. This B.A. thesis also contains an analysis of each text, which depicts various difficulties I have encountered during translation. Those difficulties stem from my insufficient knowledge on different topics, i.e specific terms and expressions, as well as from clumsy and complicated sentence construction in the source text.

During the process of writing this B.A I have realized that the process of translation takes a lot of time and effort, and that it requires lengthy research of the given topic, and use of many various sources of information and language guides. Even though I have made many mistakes during the process of translation, at the end of this B.A I realized that, with the help of my mentor, I have learned a lot about the process of translation, and how to deal with different texts and challenges they represent. From this experience I have also learned that I love the process of translation, as well as facing various challenges, as it is an excellent way of learning new things, wheter it refferes to gaining more knowledge of English language, or knowledge in general.

APPENDICES

Appedix A

Mobilne komunikacije

Drvo znanja

Mobilne komunikacije danas su najbrže rastuća tehnologija u svijetu. Internet, mobilnost, dostupnost, brzina; komunikacija u svako doba i sa svakog mjesta postaje imperativ današnjice.

Pojam mobilne komunikacije danas uglavnom vežemo uz mobilne telefone. No, o čemu se ustvari radi? Svaka razmjena informacija čini komunikaciju, dok mobilnu ili bežičnu komunikaciju čini prijenost informacije (govora, slike, podataka) s jednog mjesta na drugo pomoću radiovala koji putuje kroz prostor. Takvi radiovalovi imaju različita svojstva, koja ovise o njihovoj prekvenciji i o prostoru kroz koji se šire. Mikrovalovi, koji su reda GHz (gigaherca), ne preskaču prirodne prepreke poput raznih zidova, građevina itd. Jako niske frekvencije radiovalova ili one reda nekoliko desetaka MHt (megaherca) prolaze kroz zidove i razne objekte. Prema tim svojstvima dizajniraju se bežični sustavi i određuje se frekvencijski pojas prijenosa radiosignala.

Da bi radiosignal uopće mogao nositi informaciju, sama informacija mora se prvo na neki način modulirati (pretvoriti u radiosignal). Prve bežične telefonske mreže koristile su analogne tehnologije za modulaciju frekvencija radiovalova u glas i obrnuto. Današnje mobilne mreže koriste digitalnu modulaciju-korisnikov glas prvo se pretvara u niz podataka (bitova) koji se onda moduliraju i prenose radiovalovima.

Kako je sve počelo?

U američkim istraživačkim laboratorijima, koji nose ime oca telefonije Aleksandra Grahama Bella, ranih 70-ih godina počelo je testiranje radiosignala za razvoj analognih mobilnih mreža, koje će biti prethodnici današnjoj modernoj mobilnoj telefoniji. Europa prvu generaciju mobilnih kounikacija sa analognim prijenosom doživljava 1980-ih godina. Zemlje Skandinavije i zapadne Europe istovremeno razvijaju različite analogne mobilne sisteme. Kao posljedica takve nekoordiniranosti javila se nemogućnost korištenja istog mobilnog uređaja dok se putuje po Europi. Isto tako, bilo je jasno da analogne mobilne mreže, sa svojim ograničenim mogućnostima (prisutnost smetnji, nemogućnost detektiranja pogrešaka, nemogućnost zaštite od prisluškivanja...) nikako neće moći zadovoljiti zahtjeve 90-ih.

Razvoj GSM-a

Osnovna ideja bila je stvoriti jedinstvenu Europsku mobilnu mrežu koja bi bila primjenjiva u svim zemljama Europe, a kasnije i na drugim kontinentima. Europska komisija za pošte i elektrokomunikacije CEPT (European Conference of Posts and Telecommunications) donijela je 1982. Godine odluku da se osnuje grupa nazvana Groupe Speciale Mobile (kratica GSM, čije je značenje kasnije preimenovano u Global System for Mobile communication), koja će razviti i odrediti standarde za buduću Europsku mrežu mobilne telefonije. Prve odluge GSM udruženja bile su uvođenje digitalnih umjesto analognih sustava, te puštanje u opticaj dva bloka frekvencija u području od 900 MHz, koji bi bili potpuno rezervirani za Europsku mrežu. Najznačajnije prednosti GSM sustava u odnosu na analogni su: mogućnost međunarodnog roaminga (mogućnost komuniciranja u mrežama drugih operatora/država), visoka kvaliteta zvuka, široka ponuda dodatnih usluga, malen i jeftin uređaj te sposobnost da ga koristi velik broj korisnika.

Sustav GSM usluga počeo je s komercijalnim radom sredinom 1991. Godine. Danas je GSm najrašireniji sustav mobilne telefonije. Uveden je u više od 150 zemalja i obuhvaća više od 45% ukupnog svjetskog tržišta mobilne telefonije.

Princip rada GSM-a

GSM mreža sastoji se od tri dijela: mobilne stanice (MS-Mobile Station) koja je slična bežićnom telefonu s dodatnim mogućnostima, primopredajne bazne stanice (BTS-Base Transciever Station) koja upravlja vezom s mobilnom stanicom, te upravljača baznim stanicama (BSC-Base Station Controller), koji upravlja većim brojem primopredajnih baznih stanica.

Mobilna stanica (MS): Digitalni mobilni telefon i SIM kartica (Subscriper Identity Module) zajedno čine mobilnu stanicu. SIM kartica se postavlja u mobilni telefon i predstavlja njegovu vezu s GSM mrežom. Dimenzije SIM kartice su 1x1,5 cm, a postoje i u veličini kreditne kartice i kao takve se koriste u nekim starijim modelima mobitela. SIM mikroprocesor se temelji na silicijskom čipu koji je dizajniran tako da podnosi temperaturni raspon od -25 C do +70 C i do 85% vlažnosti. Međutim, kako je silicij vrlo lomljiv kartica može postati neupotrebljiva ako se izloži fizičkim ili elektronskim utjecajima.

Sim kartica sadrži sve identifikacijske pojedinosti GSM pretplatnika, kao što su IMSI (International Mobile Subscriber Identity- broj čije prve 3 znamenke predstavljaju matičnu državu SIM kartice, sljedeže označavaju operatera u navedenoj državi, a ostale pretplatnikov identitet u njegovoj matičnoj mreži), memoriju za čuvanje telefonskih brojeva, informacije o troškovima, SMS poruke, brojeve pinova i informacije o međunarodnom roamingu. IMSI broj je neophodan kako bi se korisnik mogao predstaviti mreži.

IMEI (International Mobile Equipment Identifier) je identifikacijski broj koji je tvornički dodijeljen svakom mobilnom telefonu, a provjeravaju ga sve GSM mreže. Ukoliko je telefon

ukraden, GSM mreža upravo preko ovog jedinstvenog broja može onemogućiti njegovo korištenje (tako je zamišljen, no najčešće ga je moguće promijeniti uz pomoć odgovarajućeg softvera). On se obično nalazi ispod baterije telefona, a možete ga pronači na ekranu unosom koda *#06#.

Primopredajna bazna stanica (BTS): Sastoji se od radio-primopredajnika s antenom koji pokriva jednu zonu, a komunicira s mobilnom stanicom putem radiosučelja. BTS-ovi su međusobno povezani kako bi omogućili korisniku prelaženje iz jedne zone u drugu. Upravljač baznim stanicama (BSC): Ovaj je kontrolor neophodan za zajednički rad baznih stanica. Upravlja dodjelom i otpuštanjem radiokanala, te vodi računa o prelasku iz jedne zone u drugu. Cijeli niz baznih stanica spojen je na jedan upravljač koji nadgleda svaki poziv i odlučuje kada i kojoj baznoj stanici je potrebno dalje proslijediti poziv. Ostatak mreže: Određeni broj BSC-ova je pod kontrolom preklopničkog centra MSC-a (Mobile service Switching Centre). MSC radi u suradnji s četiri baze podataka- HLR (Home

Location Register), VLR (Visitor's Location Register), EIR (Equipment Identity Register) i AuC (Authentication Centre). OMC (Operation and Maintenance Center) centar je za održavanje mreže (konfiguracija mreže, dojava kvarova i sl).

Roaming i GSM standardi

Roaming je izraz koji podrazumjeva korištenje GSM mobilnih telefona i u mrežama drugih operatera. Korisnik svoju SIM karticu (i mobilni telefon) može koristiti u svim državama s kojima njegov matični operater ima potpisan ugovor o međunarodnom *roamingu*. Pritom se ne mijenja broj mobilnog telefona. Jedini je uvjet da država u kojoj se koristi mobilni telefon radi u frekvencijskom području koje sam mobilni telefon podržava.

U svijetu se trenutno koriste tri frekvencijska područja za GSM mobilnu telefoniju. Prvi, koji se obično označava samo skraćenicom GSM (Global System for Mobile Communication), je u pojasu 900 MHz i prisutan je u većem dijelu Europe i Azijsko-pacifičkom području.

DCS (Digital Celular System) razvijen je nešto kasnije u frekvencijskom području od 1800 MHz i danas se koristi u zapadnoj Europi. Često se skraćeno označava kao GSM1800. PCS (Personal Communications Systems) u frekvencijskom području od 1900 MHz, ili GSM1900, funkcionira na području SAD-a i Kanade, te u nekim zemljama Latinske Amerike i Afrike.

Stariji mobilni telefoni bili su isključivo single-band uređaji koji su radili samo u GSM900 standardu mobilnih komunikacija. Danas su široko prisutni i dual-band mobiteli, s podrškom mreže u području od 900 MHz i 1800 MHz, te triple-band uređaji koji se mogu koristiti u svim GSM mrežama svijeta. Osobine dual/triple band mogu imati i same GSM mreže, koje po potrebi vrše neprimjetna prebacivanja korisnika s jedne na drugu frekvenciju.

Mobilna mreža u Hrvatskoj

Mreža kojom je u Hrvatskoj počelo mobilno komuniciranje bila je Htmobitel (099), analogna mreža, temeljena na NMT 450 standardu (Nordic Mobile Telephone). Počela je s radom 1991. Godine. Ona i dalje pruža mogućnost komunicranja unutar cijele Hrvatske, te ima oko 80 tisuća pretplatnika.

Htcronet (098) prva je hrvatska GSM digitalna mreža. Pokrivenost Hrvatske Htcronet mrežom iznosi oko 98%. Više od 172 međunarodna roaming ugovora Hrtvatskog Telekoma omogućuje upotrebu Htcronet kartice unutar GSM mreža diljem svijeta. Trenutno ima oko 644 000 korisnika, od čega 189 000 stalnih pretplatnika Htcroneta i 455 000 korisnika Simpe.

VIPnet (091), drugi hrvatski telekomunikacijski operater, počeo je s radom 1999.godie. Trenutno pokrivenost VIPnet mrežom iznosi oko 95% Hrvatske, a sama mreža ima oko 650

000 korisnika, od čega 97 000 stalnih pretplatnika i 553 000 VIP.me korisnika.

I jedna i druga mreža nude niz besplatno dodijeljenih usluga ili usluga na zahtjev pretplatnika, koje mobilno telefoniranje čini jednostavnijim, kao što su: preusmjeravanje poziva, zabrana slanja vlastitog broja (CLIR), prikaz broja koji zove (CLIP), poziv na čekanju (CALL WAIT), konferencijska veza, blokiranje poziva, govorna pošta, SMS, WAP, itd.

Budućnost-mobilni Internet

Današnji razvoj tehnologije usmjeren je prema spajanju mobilnih komunikacija i Interneta u treću generaciju mobilnih sustava-3G, koje se temelje na mobilnom Internetu. Upravo je GPRS (General Packet Radio Service), koji omogućuje veće brzine prijenosa GSM mrežom, korak dalje prema sljedećoj generaciji mobilne telefonije. GPRS mobiteli imaju stalan pristup Internetu (on line) te je njima moguče istovremeno razgovarati i surfati Internetom. Već su napravljeni i prvi 3G modeli mobitela, koji su nešto veći od danas postojećih uređaja, imaju velike zaslone u boji za prikaz podataka, veće tipkovnice, pa čak i minijaturni miš. No, većina se temelji na tzv. „na dodir osjetljivim" ekranima po kojima se piše posebnim „olovkama". Osim prijenosa glasa, ti supermobiteli moći će pokrenuti glazbu u MP3 zapisu koju će „skidati" s Interneta u onim trenucima kad mobitel nije u upotrebi. Ta one koji su skloniji pisanoj riječi bit će modela s većim zaslonima kako bi na njima mogli čitati najnoviju literaturu izdanu u formatu elektroničke knjige. Većina modela predviđa i digitalni fotoaparat kao sastavni dio svoje opreme, što će omogućiti prijenos cijelih videozapisa. Svi prototipovi i prvi komercijalni modeli imaju slušalice koje su fizički odvojene od samog uređaja tako da korisnik može istodobno razgovarati i, recimo, pisati *e-mail*. Za krajnjeg korisnika, pojam mobilnog Interneta postat će mobilni telefon s mogućnostima malog osobnog računala.

Appendix B

Špijunski sateliti

Drvo znanja

Špijunski sateliti ili sateliti za osmatranje iz orbita (200-tihnjak km iznad vaših glava) doduše ne mogu čitati brojeve na tablicama automobila, ali vide ima li vozilo tablice. Ne mogu procijeniti točnu duljinu brade nekog čovjeka, ali mogu analizirati njegovu figuru ili prebrojiti ljude na uličnim demonstracijama.

A sve je počelo u godinama poslije Drugog svjetskog rata, kada je tadašnji SSSR postao ozbiljna prijetnja SAD-u- Na programima razvoja satelita u obje se zemlje počelo raditi od 1959. Godine, a prvi uspješno lansirani satelit upotrijebljen je isključivo u vojne svrhe.

Početak utrke

Kad je SSSR izvršio testiranja svoje prve atomske bombe (1953), proizveo bombarder koji je mogao prevaljivati velike udaljenosti (1955), počeo ulagati velike napore u razvoj projektila i tako započeo ubrzanu utrku u naoružanju, SAD su se našle izravno suočene s rastućom prijetnjom.

Još 1954. Godine „Studija iznenadnog napada“ Jamesa Killiana, američkog znanstvenika i jednog od osnivača NASA-e, uvjerila je tadašnjeg američkog predsjednika Eisenhowera da Sovjetski Savez intenzivno radi na razvoju raketa dugog dometa. U nastojanjima da uhvate korak sa sovjetskom vojnom industrijom, Amerikanci su započeli razvijati učinkovit sustav špijuniranja koji je, između ostalog, rezultirao rođenjem špijunskog aviona U-2. Drugi smjer

razvoja vojno-špijunske tehnike SAD-a bio je istraživački program kojim je trebalo razviti sistem satelita koji bi iz svemira motrili na SSSR. Godine 1954. Izrađena je studija o mogućnosti svemirskog osmatranja. Po njoj, filmovi i fotografije snimljeni u orbiti tamo bi se i razvijali, te bi ih se radiovezom slalo na tlo. Televizijska je opcija napuštena 1957. Jer slike nisu imale dovoljnu razlučivost, mada koncept satelita koji podatke šalju radioemisijama nije potpuno propao, već se razvio u seriju satelita kodnog naziva „Samos“ i „izdržao“ do početka 60-ih. U drugoj studiji, iz 1956, predloženo je snimanje slika velike razlučivosti i njihovo vraćanje na Zemlju u kapsuli, koja bi po padu bila izvučena iz mora ili uhvaćena u zraku, a filmovi bi se razvijali na Zemlji.

Razvoj američkih satelita

Špijunski sateliti koji bi snimljeni materijal skenirali i radiovezom slali na Zemlju razvijali su se sporo, pa je Eisenhower 7. Veljaće 1958. Odobrio CIA-i program razvoja satelita za osmatranje, šifriranog naziva „Corona“, koji će obilježiti cijelo sljedeće desetljeće. Ključ uspjeha „Corone“ bila je jednostavnost. Sateliti (dužine 5,8 m, promjera 1,5 m, s punim teretom teški 3,85 t) napravili bi tri kruga oko Zemlje snimajući fotografije i potom nerazvijene filmove u kapsuli bacali na Zemlju. Posebno opremljeni zrakoplov bi je „pokupio“ dok se spušta padobranom.

Prva lansiranja 1959. Počela su uglavnom neuspješno zbog problema s raketama. Prvo uspješno lansiranje bilo je trinaesto po redu kada je satelit stigao u orbitu i izbacio praznu kapsulu, a prva cjelovita uspješna misija zbila se 18. Kolovoza 1960. Kada je „Corona“ iz orbite izbacila kapsulu s filmovima. Slike su imale razlučivost (najmanja veličina predmeta koja se može razabrati) od oko 14 metara. Sateliti „Corona“ (označavani kao KH-1, KH-2, itd, pto je bila kratica za *keyhole* ili ključanica) već su prvom misijom fotografski bolje pokrili Sovjetski Savez nego sve misije aviona U-1 zajedno. Fotoaparati su brzo postajali sve bolji,

pa je već satelit KH-4 1962. Godine napavio fotografije na kojima su se mogli razabrati objekti veličine oko 2 metra. Sistem je postajao sve pouzdaniji: od svibnja 1966. Do veljače 1971. Zaredala su 32 uspješna lansiranja, a 25. Svibnja 1972. Lansirana je zanja „Corona“.

Tim je satelitima kartografirano 750 milijuna četvornih milja Zemlje (uglavnom Kine i SSSR-a), a u 145 misija snimljeno je 800 000 slika. Uz „Coronu“ su razvijana i dva manja programa- „Argon“ (za kartografiranje) i „Lanyard“ (koji je nadzirao specifične mete u SSSR-u), a djelovali su od 1962. Do 1964.

„Lanyard“, satelit oznake KH_& sposoban snimati detalje veličine tek 60 cm, bio je uvod u satelitski program „Gambit“ (prvi lansiran u srpnju 1963.), čija je zadaća također bila raditi snimke velike razlučivosti malog područja („Corona“ je radila prilično široke fotografije). „Gambit“ je djelovao od 1963. Do 1984. Godine. Prvi satelit tog programa (KH-7) snimao je slike razlučivosti pola metra, a zadnji (KH-8) čak 20 centimetara. Sedamdesete godine iznjedrile su „Hexagon“ generaciju špijunskih satelita koji su pravili izrazito detaljne snimke (razlučivosti 30.60 cm) puno većeg područja nego „Corona“. Između 1971. I 1984. Lansirano i je 18 (označenih KH-9). Godine 1976. Isnatrabhe uz svenura oioelo se stepenicu više lansiranjem prvog KH-11 (program „Kennan/Crystal“), a slijedio ga je KH12 (prvi lansiran 1992.) Naprednija elektronika ovih satelita omogućavala je oštrije snimke i razlučivost od 10 centimetara. Rotirajuće ogledalo nalik periskopu reflektiralo je slike na osnovno ogledalo, omogućavajući KH-12 da pod vrlo visokim kutovima nakrivljenosti fotografira objekte udaljene stotinama kilometara od njegove orbite. KH-12 nosio je puno više goriva od KH-11 (i do 7 tona), što mu je omogućavalo dulji rok uporabe i veću pokretljivost. Te 15-tonske satelite stručnjaci uspoređuju s Hubbleovim teleskopom, ali uperenim prema Zemlji umjesto u svemir. S visine od 320 km mogu snimiti i objekte veličine softball loptice,

a infracrvenim senzorima mogu registrirati čak i pojedinačnu logorsku vatru. CIA je 1986. Godine počela razvijati program satelita „Lacrosse“, opremljenih svemirskim radarima koji mogu snimati i kroz oblake. „Lacrosse-1“ u orbitu je godine 1988. Odnio Space Shuttle, a davao je slike razlučivosti 1 metar (sljedili su „Lacrosse-2“ 1991. I „Lacrosse-3“ 1997.)

Sovjetsko svemirsko osmatranje

Za sovjetske je satelite 1956. Godine zadužen „Prvi eksperimentalni dizajnerski ured“ ili OKB-1 kojim je upravljao Sergej Koroljev. Godine 1958. OKB-1 dobio je zadatak poslati čovjeka u orbitu. Kako ured nije imao dosta novaca da se bavi i programom osmatranja iz svemira i slanjem čovjeka u orbitu, Koroljev je ta dva svemirska programa kombinirao, pa su sovjetski špijunski sateliti bili vrlo slični onima predviđenima za ljude. Shodno tome, u početku su imali i isti naziv, pa su se oba tipa „svemirskih vozila“ zvala *Vostok* (istok).

Prvi pokus slanja špijunskog satelita („Zenit-2“) izveli su u prosincu 1962. Prvi pravi operacijski let zbio se u listopadu 1963. Pod tajnom oznakom „Cosmos-20“. Poput „Corone“, i „Zenit“ je imao cijele serije (Zenit-2,Zenit-4,Zenit-6), s različitim mogućnostima snimanja. U orbiti su provodili kratko vrijeme i onda bacali kapsulu u kojoj se za razliku od „Corone“, nalazio sav koristan teret satelita, a ne samo kapsula s filmovima. Seriju „Yantar“ SSSR je uveo 70-ih godina. Prvo (neuspjelo) lansiranje bilo je 1974.godine. Ti sateliti postepeno su zamjenjivali „Zenit“ (zadnji je lansiran 1992.), a u operativnom su stanju bili mjesecima.

Tehnologija „Yantara“ bila je osnova sovjetskih elektro-optičkih satelita, od kojih je prvi poslan u orbitu 1982.

Početkom sedamdesetih SSSR je lansirao i seriju satelita za radarsko osmatranje oceana („Rorsat“) koji su koristili moćni radar pogonjen nuklearnim reaktorom, a služili osmatranju flote NATO-a. Kad bi im istekao vijek trajanja, nuklearno gorivo bi odbacili u visoku orbitu,

u kojoj bi ono vječno ostalo (ili bar toliko dugo dok ne postane bezopasno). U praksi je ipak bilo nekoliko nezgoda. Najpoznatija je ona iz 1978. Kad je „Cosmos 954“ iz te serije pao u Kanadu ostavljajući za sobom radioaktivne krhotine. Program „Rorsat“ završio je 1988. Godine, nakon 33 lansiranja.

Sovjeti su 1974. Započeli s programom satelita za nadgledanje oceana „Elint“ (serija se zvala „Eorsat“) koji su brodove NATO-a nadzirali prateći njihove elektronske emisije. „Resurs-F“ zvala se treća generacija sovjetskih osmatračkih satelita, jako poboljšana inačica „Zenita“. Prvi satelit ove serije lansiran je 25. Svibnja 1989, težio je skoro 7 tona, a u orbiti bi se „pregrupirao“ u dva „podsatelita“- glavni satelit orbitirao bi 300 do 350 km iznad Zemlje.

Špijunski sateliti drugih zemalja

Osim SAD-a i Rusije, satelite danas mogu lansirati Francuska, Kina, Japan, Indija, Izrael i ESA (Europska svemirska agencija). Svoj prvi špijunski satelit Kina je lansirala 1975.godine a 1999. Lansirali su ih čak 17. Svi kineski sateliti uglavnom rade na principu bacanja filmova na tlo u kapsulama, a njihova generalna oznaka je FSW („Fanhui Shi Weixing“ ili „Sateliti koji vraćaju“). Francuska je u suradnji sa Španjolskom i Italijom razvila satelite „Helios“. „Helios 1“ lansiran je u srpnju 1995. Slike (razlučivosti do 1,5 metara) šalju elektronički, a korišten je prilikom napada na Jugoslaviju. Loši vremenski uvjeti mogli su ometati „Helios 1“, ali neće i „Helios 2“, koji će biti lansiran 2003.

Već više od desetljeća Izrael radi na vlastitom svemirskom osmatranju. Eksperimentalni satelit „OFEQ 1“ , izgrađen uz južnoafričku pomoć, lansiran je 1988. Dvije godine poslije lansiran je „OFEQ 2“ težak 115 kg, a 1995. Na red je došao i „OFEQ 3“ (225 kg). Godine 1998. Lansiran je „OFEQ 4“ , ali se nažalost srušio u Mediteran.

Indija je razvila i lansirala satelite PSLV (Polar Satelite Launch Vehicle). Iako Indija tvrdi da nije riječ o satelitu za osmatranje u vojne svrhe, između „civilnih“ i špijunskih satelita razlika je tek u stupnju tehnologije, a ne u njenoj naravi. Japan već dugo ima tehnološke mogućnosti

za gradnju i slanje špijunskih satelita u orbitu, ali s time je počeo tek kad su ga kasnih 90-ih prisilile regionalne prijetnje, tj. raketni testovi Sjeverne Koreje.

APPENDIX C

Televizija u novomedijskom okruženju

Viktorija Car

Stara dama-televizija

Iz perspektive razvoja društva 20. stoljeće bilo je najdinamičnije kada je riječ o razvoju medija. Rođeni su i radio i televizija. Od prvog televizijskog emitiranja, na BBC-ju 1936. godine, prošlo je 75 godina i zasigurno možemo govoriti o pola stoljeća dominacije televizije kao najmoćnijeg medija. Ono što je televiziju razlikovalo od novina i radija bila je uvjerljivost žive slike, a za razliku od filma, televizijska slika zapakirana u informativne formate nije bila, ili se barem nije očekivalo da bude, režirana fikcija. Televizija je donosila prikaze događaja koji su se zaista dogodili te izjave osoba utjecajnih u političkom, gospodarskom, kulturnom i inom životu neke zemlje ili lokalne zajednice.

Šezdesetih godina prošloga stoljeća Marshall McLuhan (1964) je serijom analiza utjecaja televizije na kulturu i intelektualni život ljudi pobudio veliki interes za tu temu. Tvrdeći da je put kojim su poruke prenesene važniji nego sama poruka ("medij je poruka"), McLuhan je opisao temeljne razlike između televizije i tiskanih djela. Prije svega, riječ je o uvjerljivosti žive slike koja pridonosi vjerodostojnosti televizijskog sadržaja, a ona je jedan od ključnih kriterija televizijske moći i utjecaja. Upravo je ta slika "stvarnoga života" ono što je povuklo granicu između filma kao fikcije i televizije kao slike, medijski konstruirane, stvarnosti. Podcrtat ćemo da je televizijska stvarnost uvijek samo konstrukcija stvarnosti, jer čak i onda kada uživo prenosi neki događaj, i to bez

novinarskog komentara, bez izjava sudionika, ostaje važan i položaj i kut kamere iz kojeg se događaj snima, odnos između snimljenog i nesnimljenog. Koristeći jednosmjerni komunikacijski kanal, onaj koji ide od tvorca sadržaja prema gledateljima, televizija je dominirala i još uvijek dominira kao izvor informacija, znanja i zabave. Postala je najpopularniji medij i to još uvijek jest, iako je internet, s mnoštvom raznolikog sadržaja zapakiranog u različite formate i nove hibridne žanrove te uz komunikacijsku dimenziju kao svoju glavnu prednost, polako, ali sigurno ugrožava.

O tome da tehnološki razvoj ne možemo promatrati izdvojeno od procesa razvoja sustava komuniciranja pisao je Denis McQuail još prije tri i pol desetljeća (1975). Snažnijim razvojem u 60-im godinama 20. stoljeća, kabelski i satelitski prijenos slike nepovratno su pokrenuli val promjena i na američkom i na europskom televizijskom tržištu. Tada nova tehnologija utjecala je na promjenu medijskog sadržaja, ali i na samu organizaciju medija. Televizija u Europi počinje se liberalizirati i u 80-im godinama 20. stoljeća Europi se dogodila masovna decentralizacija televizije. Do tada gotovo isključivo u okrilju javnog medijskog servisa vezanog uz državu, televizija u novom komercijalnom ruhu mijenja izbor sadržaja i način njegove prezentacije gledateljima, a sve s novim ciljem – ostvariti što veću gledanost koja je argument za oglašivače, čija prisutnost na televiziji rezultira ostvarenjem profita. Televizijski se program počinje (1) komercijalizirati – dopušta se ogla- šivačima da svoje sadržaje i usluge promoviraju unutar televizijskog sadržaja zapakiranog u novinarske forme i žanrove, a ne samo u zakonom dopuštenim minutama odvojenim od programa i označenim kao blok oglasa, (2) popularizirati – pojednostavljivati kako bi bio razumljiviji i prihvatljiviji široj publici, što u svom ekstremu dovodi do (3) tabloidizacije i trivijalizacije sadržaja – pri čemu se teme iz svakodnevnog života poznatih i slavnih nameću publici kao pseudodogađaji, a riječ je o sadržaju koji ne zadovoljava. profesionalne kriterije vrijednosti vijesti, odnosno medijskog

sadržaja uopće. Valja naglasiti da popularizacija ne mora biti loša sama po sebi ako se vodi pokušajem da teže razumljivi sadržaji postaju jasniji širem krugu publike, jer kao takva ona je suprotnost elitizmu i paternalizmu koji dovode do jaza u znanju, odnosno do toga da su "ozbiljniji" sadržaji rezervirani samo za one koji si mogu priuštiti kvalitetno obrazovanje i informiranje, dok skupine niže rangirane na socioekonomskoj ljestvici ostaju zakinute.

Isti proces promjena televizijskog sadržaja, u zakašnjelom valu, dogodio se i u državama bivšeg socijalističko-komunističkog bloka i tim smo promjenama svjedoci posljednja dva desetljeća. Iako nije riječ o završenim procesima, tehnologija ne čeka pa se trenutno u Europi odvija vrlo važan proces zamjene analognog signala digitalnim. U digitalnom svijetu, s obzirom na to da više nije potrebno zauzimati frekvencijski prostor radijskih valova, broj kanala slobodnih za emitiranje udeseterostručio se te se čini kako regulacija postaje beznačajna. Međutim velik broj kanala ne znači istovremeno i velik broj različitih i kvalitetnih programa i sadržaja zato što je riječ o uglavnom jednoobraznoj ponudi. Stoga je izazov regulacije pronaći modele kojima će se tehnološki razvoj i brojnost kanala uskladiti s potrebama javnosti, odnosno osigurati jednake mogućnosti pristupa različitim programskim sadržajima za sve građane. Iz toga slijedi da novi model regulacije ne proizlazi iz same definicije medija, nego iz definicije javnog interesa. Multimedijskim sadržajem koji bi bio po mjeri moderne javnosti pozabavit ćemo se poslije u ovom radu.

Internet-anarhično hiper(inter)aktivni *enfant terrible*

Istraživanja medija i komunikacije uopće utemeljena su na spoznaji da ~~medi~~ji rijetko imaju izravan, masovan ili trenutačan efekt. Pretpostavka je bila da se masovna i interpersonalna komunikacija prožimaju kako bi proizveli neki od efekata koji se pripisujumedijima. Razvojem Interneta i mrežnog komuniciranja ova se ideja pokazala

neodrživom. Novi digitalni mediji pružaju mogućnost da se preispitaju komunikacijski kanali koje nam nude različiti mediji. Danas, unutar podjele na *online* i *offline* medije, govorimo o tri razine komunikacije: komunikacija jedan na jedan, jedan mnogima te mnogi mnogima.

Internet je svojim brzim razvojem intenzivno spajao informacijsku s komunikacijskom funkcijom medija. *Online* izdanja novina, radijskih i televizijskih programa bila su tek prvi korak kojim je internet približio ta tri donedavno potpuno različita medija. Razlika između interneta i televizije bila je prilična sve dok su videosadržaji bili podatkovno preglomazni za internetske kapacitete. Razvojem *online* platformi za videosadržaje pojačala se konvergencija ova dva medija. Riječ je o tehnološki omogućenom prožimanju medijskih informacijsko-komunikacijskih sadržaja i usluga. Mark Deuze sažima institucionalna obilježja različitih stupnjeva konvergencije: (1) partnerstvo s drugim medijskim organizacijama (novinarskim ili nenovinarskim) sa zadaćom ponude, promoviranja, davanja novog zna- čenja ili razmjene vijesti; (2) krosmedijski (integrirani) marketinški i upravljački projekti; (3) uspostavljanje istraživačke i razvojne strategije te (4) kontekstualni faktori koji se odnose na lokalnu ili industrijsku zakonsku regulativu i sindikalna pravila. U ovom radu zadržat ćemo se isključivo na odnosu televizijskog videosadržaja i *online* videosadržaja te konvergenciji televizije i interneta. Za početak je potrebno razlučiti po čemu se televizija kao tradicionalni medij razlikuje od novih medija.

Danijel Labaš navodi četiri glavna obilježja novih medija: (1) digitalnost – obrađivanje podataka u digitalnom obliku čiji je krajnji rezultat konvergencija između tradicionalnih kulturnih industrija i novih telekomunikacijskih dostignuća; (2) multimedijalnost – koju karakterizira snažna integracija različitih kodova i sredstava izražavanja prilikom kreiranja medijskog teksta; (3) interaktivnost – koja obuhvaća odnos između dva subjekta ili izme-

đu više subjekata komunikacije te (4) hipertekstualnost – nelinearno povezivanje skupova informacija.

Za razliku od tradicionalno postavljene perspektive medija (novina, televizije, radija) kao jednosmjerne komunikacije od pošiljatelja prema primatelju, u novoj paradigmi koju je omogućio internet informacija nema hijerarhizirajući predznak. Web 2.0 tehnologija omogućila je potpunu dvosmjernu komunikaciju, a decentralizirana struktura interneta rezultirala je time da su korisnici postali i stvaratelji sadržaja i publika. Tako danas govorimo o fenomenima kao što su *user generated content* (javno dostupan medijski sadržaj koji kreiraju sami korisnici), *citizen journalism* (novinarstvo u kojem su ulogu izvjestitelja ili analitičara preuzeli obični građani, a ne novinari profesionalci), *collaborative reporting* (izvještavanje putem *weba* u čiji proces su uključeni svi korisnici koji za to pokažu interes) ili *crowd sourcing* (riječ je o masovnoj kolaboraciji poput Wikipedije koju je omogućio Web 2.0, a čija je zadaća prikupljanje informacija ili ideja s određenim ciljem). Riječ je o jednoj anarhičnoj, ali vrlo demokratskoj strukturi kojoj se mora priznati da je omogućila slobodu izražavanja, izjednačivši sve korisnike neovisno o stupnju obrazovanja, porijeklu, ekonomskom statusu, vjeri, političkom ili drugom uvjerenju. Naravno da i sloboda izražavanja, baš kao svaka sloboda, ima svoju cijenu, a ona je u ovom slučaju mogućnost manipulacije slabije obrazovanima manje iskusnima, a ponajprije djecom. Lejla Turčilo kaže da upravo ta anarhična struktura *online* medija dovodi u pitanje te istovremeno ugrožava temeljni postulat medijski posredovane komunikacije prema kojem pravo na komunikaciju uvijek dolazi uz odgovornost za izrečeno, napisano ili na bilo koji drugi način izraženo. Individualna odgovornost prije svega mora biti utemeljena na poštivanju temeljnih ljudskih prava i sloboda iz kojih proizlaze i sva daljnja prava i slobode. I McQuail (1994) opisuje individualnu odgovornost kao imperativ medijski posredovane komunikacije te naglašava da pitanja

koja se dotiču strategija uljudnosti (engl. *politeness*), kao i pitanja poštivanja konverzacijskih maksima (engl. *maxims of conversations*), u velikoj mjeri ovise o svakom pojedincu.

Međutim treba skrenuti pozornost i na pozitivnu posljedicu ove anarhične strukture, jer upravo je ta novomedijska perspektiva promijenila prirodu same informacijske diseminacije pa vjerodostojnost sadržaja više ne možemo adresirati isključivo na stvaratelja sadržaja. Upravo je dvosmjerna komunikacija omogućila da današnji korisnik može sam provjeriti informaciju na nekoliko razina (komparacijom tradicionalnih medija ili istraživanjem internetske sfere) te pritom i sam postaje medijem daljnje informacijske propagacije. Zbog svega navedenog internet nam se zaista čini kao neukrotivi *enfant terrible* koji ponekad zastrašuje, koji je ponekad opasan, ali bez kojeg mnogi suvremenici informacijsko- komunikacijske revolucije ne bi više mogli (pre)živjeti.

APPENDIX D

PSIHOLOŠKO-PSIHIJATRIJSKI ASPEKT NASILJA

Vlado Jukić I Aleksandar Savić

AGRESIJA I NASILJE

U definiranju agresije i nasilja potreban je multidisciplinarni pristup. Zato je prije govora o ovim fenomenima potrebno barem definirati okvir iz kojeg se oni promatraju. Jedan od takvih okvira je psihološko-psihijatrijski. Agresija se kao fenomen, za razliku od nasilja, češće promatra i proučava u biomedicinskim i psihološkim kategorijama. Imanentna je i vezana uz ljude i životinje. S druge strane nasilje je vezano uz ljude i područje je interesa psihologije, prava, kriminologije, sociologije.

Dok je nasilje u pravilu vezano uz agresiju, svaka agresije se ne može svesti na nasilje. To je razlog zbog čega se potrebno osvrnuti i na problem agresije. O biološkim osnovama agresije riječ je u drugom članku. Zato će ovdje uglavnom biti riječi o drugim osnovama i aspektima agresije, a njezina biologija bit će eventualno spomenuta, ako je to nemoguće izbjeći.

Sam pojam agresija dolazi iz latinskog jezika (*ad- + gradi)* i znači kretati se naprijed, koračati. Dakle, u osnovi agresije, koja sada ipak ima negativnu konotaciju, nema ništa loše – normalno je i poželjno kretati se naprijed. Vjerojatno je iz ovog značenja danas sve češća upotreba pojma agresija u pozitivnom smislu. Tako se kaže da športaš mora bitio agresivan, jer ako nije takav onda neće postići moguće i poželjne rezultate. Isto tako pozitivna konotacija agresiji pridaje se ako je ona prisutna u menadžera. Erich Fromm toj, pozitivno konotiranoj, vrsti agresije obraća veliku pozornost u svojoj „Anatomiji ljudske destruktivnosti“. On je naziva

benignom agresijom, za razliku od maligne koje je negativna i koja može imati različite destruktivne učinke. Kada se govori o agresiji u pravilu se misli na namjerno fizičko agresivno ponašanje usmjereno prema drugoj osobi ili osobama, mada agresija može biti usmjerena, što često i jeste, i prema stvarima i predmetima. Uz pojam, ili bolje reći problem agresije veže se i namjera. Ako je netko drugoga ozljedio ili oštetio neke predmete nenamjerno onda se za ponašanje koje je prethodilo tom činu ne upotrebljava pojam agresija, odnosno ne smatra se da je ono posljedica agresivnog ponašanja (čina), nego nesretnog slučaja. Ovaj pristup kvalifikaciji uzroka onoga što bi moglo biti posljedica agresije, posebno je složen u forenzičko-psihijatrijskim vještačenjima duševnih bolesnika - počinitelja takvih djela (kaznenih ili prekršajnih djela, ili kako se to kaže, ako se utvrdi da je počiniteljibio neubrojiv, „onoga što ima obilježje kaznenog djela“). Agresivnost je pojam kojim se označava svojstvo onoga koji je agresivan, onoga što je agresivno, a agresor je onaj tko provodi agresiju.

Agresivnost je svojstvo ne samo čovjeka, nego i životinja. Agresivno ponašanje životinja u pravilu je reakcija na bilo kakvo ugrožavanje opstanka ili mjesta u hijerarhiji. Kod životinja je uz agresiju, a tako može biti i kod ljudi, mada su mehanizmi nastanka agresije kod ljudi puno složeniji, vezana aktivacija mehanizma „borbe ili bijega“, ovisno o procjeni opasnosti – „velika“ opasnost od jačeg protivnika, u okolnostima mogućnosti bijega, dovodi do bijega, odnosno „mala“ opasnost koja dolazi od nešto slabijeg neprijatelja, kojega bi se moglo svladati, ili ako nema mogućnosti bijega, dovodi do upuštanja u borbu. Agresivnost je kod ljudi, iako se zasniva na istim (biološkim) procesima kao i kod životinja, modificirana čimbenicima kulture, morala i socijalne situacije.

Koliko i kako kultura, ma na kojem stupnju razvoja bila, utječe na agresivnost njezinih pripadnika, vidljivo je iz primjera nekih „primitivnh“ društava. Tako je agresivno ponašanje u Zuni Indijanaca (žive u američkoj državi New Mexico i još ih je 7000), u kojih su blagost,

pomoć i suradnja osnovne značajke i kod kojih je afirmacija života primarna, gotovo nepoznato. S druge strane u destruktivnom društvu plemena Dobu, gdje vlada nepovjerenje i gdje se u svakome vidi potencijalnog neprijatelja, ono je često. Kao „nedestruktivno-agresivno društvo“ (pleme Manus) spominje se ono u kojem je prisutna tzv. muška agresivnost. Iako je rašireno mišljenje da je među ljudima primitivnih, plemenskih naroda, manje nasilja, nedavno je taj mit o „miroljubivom divljaku“ srušen – otkriveno je naime da je stopa ubojstava u nekim plemenima viša nego u razvijenim zemljama.

Značenje agresije i nasilja vidljivo je i iz činjenice da se praktički cijela povijest čovječanstva promatra kroz ratove, ubojstva, stradanja. Čini se da sve ono što nije agresivno, nije nezanimljivo, da je dosadno. Zato su mediji diljem svijeta, a posebno u nas gdje su i ozbiljne novine „požutjele“, puni izvješća o agresiji i nasilju i njihovim posljedicama. U svakom slučaju i ovdje treba navesti psihološku dimenziju medija na pojavnost i širenje agresije. Mediji su ti, a o tome su napisani mnogi članci i knjige, koji svojim odnosnom i svojim tretmanom problema agresije i nasilja u čitatelja potiču agresiju. Napisi i njihova oprema su često takvi da, iako naoko osuđuju nasilje, nasilje potiču, i to na dva načina. S jedne strane oštro se obračunavaju s nasilnicima na koje, uostalom, treba ići agresivno; na nasilje treba odgovoriti nasiljem, a s druge strane, napisi su takvi da pokazuju da se nasilje isplati: pred nasilnicima svi se miču, ostavljaju im slobodan put, nitko ih ne kažnjava. A odgovor onih koji se bore protiv nasilja na takve napise često je kontroverzan – prvo se traži strogo kažnjavanje počinitelja nasilja, a onda, kada i ako budu kažnjeni, mnogidižu glas protiv kažnjavanja tražeći razumijevanje, edukaciju, preodgoj. Udruge koje rade na prevenciji agresije i nasilja često vode pojedinci, barem se tako može iščitati iz mnogih njihovih medijskih istupa, kojima je ta aktivnost sredstvo promocije, pa čak i način dolaska do određenih novčanih sredstava.

Govoreći o uzrocima agresivnog ponašanja koje je u osnovi nasilja nemoguće je ne spomenuti nobelovca Konrada Lorenca, osnivača moderne etologije (znanosti o ponašanju životinja, ali i ljudi) po kome je agresija instinkt. Ona crpi snagu iz jednog živog izvora energije. U neuralnim centrima kumulira se energija te dolazi do eksplozija bez stimulusa („spontanost je ono što čini instinkt tako opasnim“). Po ovoj teoriji, koja je mnogima prihvatljiva i zato što nas eskulpira, nismo krivi što idemo prema nasilju i nuklearnom ratu, jer sve je uvjetovano biološkim čimbenicima koji su izvan naše kontrole. No, odmah treba dodati da čovjek nije samo biološko i nagonsko biće koje se ponaša samo instinktivno, nego da ljudskim ponašanjem upravljaju i drugi mehanizmi.

Zato i postoji niz teorija koje objašnjavaju fenomen agresije i nasilja. Ovdje nije cilj nabrajati i tumačiti sve te teorije, ali je ipak, prije uvida u uži psihijatrijski aspekt nasilja, potrebno spomenuti da je agresija najtemeljitije proučavana s psihodinamskog i bihevioralnokognitivnog stajališta te da su i teorije nastale u okviru tih učenja najpoznatije. Psihodinamska teorija temelji se na Freudovom učenju o nagonima i čovjekovoj težnji da ih zadovolji. Dva su osnovna nagona koja spominje Freud – konstruktivni eros koji se manifestira kao nagon za životom, rastom, reprodukcijom i razorni tanatos (nagon za smrti) koji ra- znim mehanizmima sve oko sebe nastoji destruirati. Prema psihodinamskoj teoriji agresija je mentalni fenomen koji se izražava u interpersonalnim odnosima, a odgovor je na neadekvatna vanjska i unutarnja pretjerana ograničenja ili nedostatke kontrole u postizanju zadovoljstva. Agresija, po ovoj teoriji, ne mora biti izražena bilo kojim oblikom psihomotorike – nesvjesni agresivni impulsi i želje mogu dovesti do jednake destrukcije kao i motorička aktivnost. Nesvjesnu agresiju prema roditeljima i okolini (a izraz je nezrelog ega) manifestira, npr. osoba koja se ne ponaša u skladu sa svojom kronološkom dobi pa kao tridesetpeto- godišnjak živi s roditeljima, izležava se, ništa ne radi, traži džeparac.

Psihodinamska teorija objašnjava i neadekvatne emocionalne reakcije usmjerene ka drugome umjesto fizič- ke reakcije (premještena agresija).

„Environmentalisti“, za razliku od „instinktivista“ tvrde da čovjekovo ponašanje oblikuje okolina, društvo i kultura u kojoj živi, a prosvjetitelji kažu da je čovjek po prirodi dobar i racionalan, da su za njegovo loše ponašanje krivi loši primjeri, odgoj, institucije**.** Na sličnom je tragu kognitivno-bihevioralno objašnjenje agresije. Agresivno ponašanje stječe se, kao i svi drugi oblici socijalnog ponašanja, promatranjem ili osobnim iskustvom. Čovjekčini, osjeća i misli na način koji se pokazao uspješnim u postizanju onoga što želi. Ako agresijom dobiva ono što traži, bit će agresivan, a ako to dobiva podložnošću, bit će podložan, submisivan...

Korisno je, kao ilustraciju ljudske agresivnosti u kontekstu poslušnosti i uvjetima okolnosti, spomenuti dva ekperimenta. Prvi je onaj sa Sveučilišta Yale (Stenley Milgram, 1961.) kojim se potvrdilo da su studenti na za- htjev profesora nastavljali s mučenjem elektrošokovima sudionika u eksperimentu unatoč njihovom zapomaganju i očitoj boli (svega 35 % ispitanika je odbilo „davati“ elektroškove - radilo se o lažnim šokovima, no oni to nisu znali!) – kada su oni koji su im bili „podrvrgnuti“ počeli jaukati, zapomagati i moliti da prestanu...), a drugi, onaj sa Stanforda 1971, kada su sami ekperimentatori zaustavili pokus, jer su „stražari“ toliko maltretirali „zatvorenike“ da su ovi ozbiljno trpjeli. Prvi pokus bio je dizajniran tako da su ispitivači (studenati uključeni u pokus) na svaki netočan odgovor koji su davali ispitivani (studenti uključeni u pokus koji su dobili uputu da namjerno daju netočne odgovore), ispitivanima davali „pojačavajući struju“ nakon novog netočnog odgovora, „elektrošok“. Ispitivani su se, glumeći da zaista dobivaju elektroškove, grčili i zapomagali moleći ih da prestanu. Ispitivači su, iako nisu znali da se radi o glumi ispitivanih i lažnim šokovima, nastavljali. Njih 14 što je 35 % od svih „ispitivača“, nastavili su šokiranjem ispitivanih... U drugom pokusu ispitivani su „glumili“ zatvorenike i zatvorske

stražare ne znajući da oni drugi nisu pravi zatvorenici, odnosno stražari. „Stražari“ su, kako je navedeno, pokazali svoje sadističko lice.

Duševne bolesti i poremećaji kao uzročnici agresivnog ponašanja i nasilja

Iako je među „normalnima“ znatno više nasilja, raširено je mišljenje da su u osnovi agresivnog ponašanja duševne bolesti i poremećaji. Iako, dakle, tome nije tako, s obzirom da duševne bolesti ipak u pojedinim slučajevima mogu potaknuti agresivno ponašanje, pa i nasilje, dobro je o tome ovdje progovoriti. Prije daljnjeg elaboriranja ovog problema dobro je napomenuti, jer je to jedino moguće, da se o pojmovima “duševne bolesti“ i „duševni poremećaji“ (često se pojam„duševni“ zamjenjuje pojmom psihički!?!) još uvijek vode rasprave i po nekima oni su sinonimi, a po drugima riječi s različitim značenjima. U ovom članku pojam „duševna bolest“ upotrebljava se za sve ono što se podrazumijeva pod pojmom „prave, klasične duševne bolesti“ (npr shizofrenija, psihoza, demencija...), a pod pojmom „duševni poremećaj“ ono što nema, barem se sada za nju ne zna, nikakvu biološku podlogu, odnosno za ono što i u svom nazivu po 10. reviziji bolesti i poremećaja Svjetske zdravstvene organizacije naziva poremećajem (npr. poremećaji ličnosti). Treba dodati i to da psihijatri uglavnom svo- jim interesom smatraju „prave duševne bolesti“, a „duševne poremećaje“, na neki način, ili barem neke od njih, drže područjem interesa nekih drugih
struka.

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