Mapping the translation needs and practices in development co-operation projects of NGOs

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Tämän pro gradu -tutkielman aiheena on kääntäminen ja viestintä vieraalla kielellä Suomen ulkoasiainministeriön rahoittamissa kansalaisjärjestöjen kehitysyhteistyöhankkeissa. Tutkielman on tarkoitus kartoittaa kyseisten kehitysyhteistyöhankkeiden kääntämiseen ja vieraskieliseen viestintään liittyviä tarpeita ja -käytäntöjä. Aihetta ei ole tutkittu laajasti muutoin, joten empiirinen osuus on erityisen merkittävässä roolissa.

Tutkielman alussa esitellään ulkoasiainministeriön laatimia suomalaisten kansalaisjärjestöjen kehitysyhteistyöhankkeiden ehtoja ja ohjeita, jotka ovat kyseiselle tutkimukselle olennaisia. Tutkielman teoreettinen osuus koostuu lähinnä metodologisesta pohdinnasta, koska aiempaa tutkimustietoa on vähän. Tutkimusmetodien analysointia on painotettu myös siksi, että empiirisellä osuudella on niin suuri merkitys.

Tutkielman empiirinen aineisto on yhtäältä peräisin tutkijan havainnoista, jotka saatiin omia varhaisempia hankehallinnointikokemuksia hyödyntäen sekä osallistuvan havainnoinnin menetelmää käyttäen kahden opiskelijajärjestön kehitysyhteistyöhankkeista vuosien 2009 ja 2012 välisenä aikana. Toisaalta aineisto on kerätty kyselytutkimuksen vastauksista. Kysely lähetettiin 35 suomalaiselle kansalaisjärjestölle, joiden kehitysyhteistyöhankkeita Suomen ulkoasiainministeriö rahoittaa. Järjestöt valittiin satunnaisotannalla.

Empiirisen aineiston analyysistä ilmeni muun muassa, että tutkijan alkuperäinen hypoteesi kehitysyhteistyöhön liittyvien tekstien kääntämisen yleisyydestä pitää osittain paikkansa, vaikka tekstejä käännettiinkin kansalaisjärjestöissä vähemmän kuin tutkija odotti. Tutkimusaineisto ei ole kuitenkaan tarpeeksi laaja, jotta tuloksia voitaisiin yleistää, sillä kansalaisjärjestöt, niiden hankkeet, käännöstarpeet ja asiantuntemus osoittautuivat odotetusti hyvin erilaisiksi. Tulokset sisältävät asiaa myös esimerkiksi järjestöissä kääntävien ja vieraalla kielellä viestivien taustoista. Jatkotutkimukset ovat kuitenkin tarpeen, ja mahdollisia tutkimusaiheita on runsaasti.

Asiasanat: kääntäminen, viestintä, kehitysyhteistyö, kansalaisjärjestöt, hanke

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The topic of this thesis is translation and foreign language communication in non-governmental organisations' (NGOs) development co-operation projects funded by the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland. The purpose of the study is to map out the needs and practices related to translation and foreign language communication in development co-operation projects. The topic has not been widely studied elsewhere, which is why empirical research plays a particularly significant role in this study.

This study introduces firstly the relevant conditions and instructions that the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland has set for development co-operation projects of Finnish NGOs. Due to the scarcity of prior research, the theoretical section consists mainly of methodological considerations. The analysis of the methodologies is also emphasized because the empirical research is so vital for the study.

One part of the empirical data of the study is derived from the researcher's prior project management experiences and from observations of two student organisations' development co-operation projects obtained by using participant observation in 2009–2011. The other part of the data was collected from the replies to a questionnaire sent to 35 Finnish NGOs that received funding for their development co-operation projects from the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland. The method used for selecting the NGOs was random sampling.

The analysis of the empirical data revealed that the researcher's original hypothesis on how often texts related to development co-operation are translated is correct to some extent, although fewer texts were translated in the NGOs than expected. Nonetheless, the research data is not sufficiently extensive to extrapolate the results to all organisations since the NGOs, their projects, translation needs and expertise proved to be highly diverse, as expected. Further, the results provide information on, for example, the backgrounds of the NGO people who translate and communicate in foreign languages. Nevertheless, it is necessary to continue to investigate the topic, and there are many possibilities for further research.

Key concepts: translation, communication, development co-operation, NGO, project

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1 Introduction

This Master's thesis examines translation and communication in foreign languages in non-government organisations (NGOs) that have development co-operation projects partially funded by the Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs. Translation in the third sector, in civil society, is a mostly unexplored field in Finland. Therefore, there was no strong theoretical basis to be tested in practice and not even much previous information on which this research could have been based. A Master's thesis can only shed some light on this topic; hence, this thesis hopefully becomes an inspiration for further studies.

The aim of the thesis is to map the translation needs and practices of NGOs that receive funding for their development co-operation projects from the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland. In a similar vein, this study aims at inferring initial, cursory information on the level of expertise in translation and multilingual communication that is available to the NGOs. In order to map out the translation needs and practices, a questionnaire was prepared and sent to selected NGOs, and their responses were scrutinised. Deeper information on the translation needs and practices was also derived from the researcher's own experiences and from using participant observation, but information from this source was narrower since it was limited to two organisations.

The initial hypothesis was that many Finnish NGOs translate texts related to their development co-operation projects. However, the hypothesis later changed when the researcher found out that project documents could also be submitted in English to the Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs since it therefore seemed more likely that only some organisations would translate such texts. The researcher also assumed that the level of translation expertise varies in different NGOs. Nevertheless, the presumption was that most NGOs have at some point had concerns over translation or communication in foreign languages.

This thesis consists of seven sections. The first section explains how the idea for this study emerged, and what the development co-operation projects of NGOs are, as they play a central role in this thesis. The conditions that the Ministry for Foreign Affairs has set for the projects are also described in order to demonstrate why translation and communication in foreign languages are often necessary in these projects. Finally, a brief description of volunteer and activist translation is provided.

The third section describes the methods employed in this study and elaborates the grounds for choosing these methods. It also provides further information on the NGOs examined in this thesis. The fourth section analyses the researcher's observations on the two organisations' project activities in Finland along with the questionnaire responses that the NGOs produced. The analysis of the responses provides broad information on the project-related communication and translation in the NGOs starting with budgets and human resources and closing with the NGOs' own comments. The analysis is followed by a discussion on ethics and on possible future prospects as regards research on translation, volunteering and development co-operation. The final section will summarise the main conclusions of this thesis.

2 Development co-operation projects and translation

The purpose of this section is to provide the readers with an overview of the background of this study, as the domain of development co-operation might not be familiar to all Translation Studies readers. Even the concept of NGOs may be new to them. It is, in effect, challenging to provide a definition of NGOs since they are so varied. Discussing the term thoroughly is beyond the scope of this thesis, but an NGO is commonly understood to be "a not-for-profit organization that is institutionally separate from the state" (Dictionary of the Social Sciences, 2012). According to the literal sense of this definition, businesses would also be non-governmental organizations, but there is a difference, although Hilger argues that

> [O]rganized civil society actors, in particular at the international level, are professionalised to such an extent that their practices are hardly distinguishable from the activities of public agencies and businesses.
> (Hilger, 2006:10).

NGOs might have diverse aims and sources of support (Dictionary of the Social Sciences, 2012) and they might represent different kinds of people. The members of an NGO could be practicing the same profession, whereas the members of another organisation might have nothing in common, except for the desire to promote human rights. Similarly, the NGOs' activities may range from promoting the rights of the disabled to organising dance lessons, for example. Although this thesis only deals with NGOs which have development co-operation projects, not all NGOs have these kinds of projects. Furthermore, development co-operation may not be the principal activity even in those NGOs which have their own projects.

After reading this entire section, the reader will hopefully understand what this study focuses on and why the study is necessary. Subsection 2.2 describes Finnish development co-operation in general and the projects operated by NGOs and funded partially by the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland in particular. The third subsection presents volunteer translation from a theoretical perspective since the NGOs might use volunteer translators in their projects. However, the reader will next discover where the idea of making this study originates from.

2.1 Background

The idea for this study arose from the researcher's personal experiences in development co-operation projects of NGOs. Translation and foreign language communication in the NGOs have so far received little attention in Translation Studies research. The topic has possibly been considered as non-essential perhaps due to the image of voluntariness attached to these activities even though NGOs play a considerable role in today's societies. The researcher's earlier experiences suggested that there might be a demand for translation experts in the NGOs, and the purpose of this subsection is to explain how this conclusion was reached.

Since the beginning of the year 2009, I have been a member of a group of students working collaboratively in order to execute development co-operation projects of the Student Union of the University of Turku (TYY, Turun yliopiston ylioppilaskunta) in Mexico. Only three people at TYY were paid for working for the project in Finland. The Financial Secretary and the Secretary for International Affairs of the student union participated in the project, but they were not actual project employees, as they mainly worked for the student union and used only a part of their working time for the project. In addition, the project had one part-time employee who received remuneration for being the person in charge of reporting and communication. Otherwise, the people dedicating their time for the project were volunteers, and I was one of them.

The project organisation also included a partner NGO in Mexico – the country where the actual project activities took place – and the language used in communicating with the partner was Spanish. Thus, being involved in the project management of the development co-operation project in Mexico meant reading many texts in Spanish and translating documents from Spanish into Finnish or vice versa. We translated official reports and brief communications about the projects. The hired part-time project employee was responsible for communication and reporting. Nonetheless, it was the duty of the Mexico group, the group of volunteers, to assist the project employee as much as they could, and the Financial Secretary and the Secretary for International Affairs also did their part. The translations were done collectively, but many participants still found the task arduous at times. Hence, I became curious of how other NGOs had arranged their translation and interpreting, especially since I believed that all NGOs might not have as large a pool of people with language skills as TYY has.

While engaged in the project work, I also had the opportunity to familiarize myself with project management by participating in trainings organized by KEPA (the umbrella organisation for Finnish NGOs who work with development cooperation). The training days covered different aspects of the development co-operation projects of NGOs, and offered a place to meet representatives of a number of organisations over the years and to learn about their experiences.

The final factor that channelled my interest towards this research topic was participating in the management of another project from the autumn of 2011 on, namely a project of the National Union of University Students in Finland (SYL, Suomen ylioppilaskuntien liitto). The project activities proper were implemented in Guatemala, and the main language of communication with the local partner was Spanish. The project activities in Finland were managed mainly by SYL’s Development co-operation co-ordinator and a few university students amongst the members of the Development Co-operation Advisory Board of SYL (KENKKU). As the language of communication was Spanish, SYL also made an effort to recruit students who knew Spanish to KENKKU. Since translation was a central activity for the Finns in the two projects I was familiar with, I wondered how many organisations had similar experiences.

This study focuses on translation for three main reasons. First, before doing any research, I assumed that translation was more common in the development co-operation projects of NGOs than it was in reality. This assumption was generated mainly due to my involvement in two projects where the documents were written in Spanish and had to be translated into Finnish before the Ministry would accept them. Second, I did not realize at the early stages of the research process that documents could also be submitted to the Ministry in English, which is another reason for why I initially believed that translation was included in most development co-operation projects of NGOs. After gathering more background information, I found out that the languages accepted by the Ministry included English. A third reason for focusing on translation was my educational background in translation and interpreting.

I acknowledged that I might pay more attention to translation-related observations in the course of the research process than someone without a similar background. The awareness of my background was necessary in order to analyze and question the observations and interpretations.

In short, the inspiration for this study arose from my own experiences. These experiences will be presented in more detail in section 4.1. By postponing the more extensive description, the readers are offered a chance to familiarize themselves with the development co-operation projects and the research methods beforehand. This enables the readers to obtain more tools for evaluating the observations.

2.2 Development co-operation projects and the support of the Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs

As this thesis focuses on translation and communication in development co-operation projects supported by the Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs (MFA), this section is dedicated to examining the development co-operation projects in more detail. The purpose is not to provide an exhaustive description of the projects, but a review of the relevant aspects for this thesis; therefore, the focus is especially on the Ministry's requirements concerning written documents.

Correspondingly, the terminology featuring in this thesis is that used by the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland. The field of development co-operation employs a variety of terms that are synonyms or near synonyms depending on the country, institution, et cetera. As this thesis does not focus on terminology, it is reasonable to use only one term to refer to one concept for clarity and consistency, though other terms may exist for the same concept. Since this thesis only concerns projects funded by the Ministry, it appeared natural to use solely the terminology employed by the Ministry. As such, the choice of terminology does not imply the superiority of the selected terms over any other variants.

As the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland is one of the key institutions in this field in the country, the information provided by the Ministry is of utmost importance. The Ministry is the governing body that defines the rules of the NGO development co-operation projects in Finland, and its website provides access to basic information on Finnish development co-operation. The new manual *The Development Cooperation of the Civil Society Organisations – Project Guidelines* is also available on the website. This manual comprises the Ministry's new conditions and instructions on development co-operation projects by non-governmental organisations or, to use the more recently adopted term, by civil society organisations (CSOs). The previous manuals appeared on the same website, but are at present available as paper versions only.

Before examining the Ministry's requirements in more detail, it may be useful to view the domain of development co-operation from a broader perspective. To begin with, it is important to notice that there is no single definition of what development co-operation is. Since it is a fuzzy concept with several near synonyms, it is necessary to define its meaning in this thesis. This thesis does not, however, aim to provide an exhaustive definition of the concept since it would require a lengthy discussion and is therefore beyond the scope of this thesis.

The Finnish MFA web-page (2010b) refers to development co-operation as "the practical work that is undertaken with the aim of improving the position of developing countries" and continues that the work is implemented via multilateral, country- and region-specific co-operation. This seems to be too narrow a way of describing development co-operation and does not suffice for a comprehensive definition. This definition could be complemented firstly by explaining that people often understood development co-operation as aid to developing countries in order to decrease the number of people living in poverty. This conception is regarded as valid to some extent even today, since one of the major goals of development co-operation continues to be the reduction of poverty – an objective mentioned even in the Millennium Development Goals (United Nations Millennium Development Goals website). However, the Millennium Development Goals as a whole (*ibid.*) aim nowadays at improving the quality of life of the underprivileged, and the co-operators recognize the same principle. If we compare development co-operation with humanitarian aid, development co-operation is, in principle, a longer-term process. Humanitarian relief aims to respond to sudden catastrophes, to help people survive crisis situations and to restore their living conditions to what they were prior to the disaster, whereas development co-operation strives for improving people's lives from the level of a normal situation. The difference between the two can be unclear, and sometimes humanitarian relief operations outlast development projects in the case of, for instance, prolonged crises. In addition, some countries including Finland treat the appropriations allocated to humanitarian relief as a part of the development co-operation appropriations (MFA, 2010c).

As regards the appropriations, Finland made in 2005 a commitment to allocating a minimum of 0.51% of its gross national income (GNI) for development co-operation by 2010 (The MFA webpage, 2010a). The Ministry webpage explains that this is the target that the European Council set in 2005 for the EU-15, the 15 countries that were EU Member States prior to May 2004. Finland met this target, as it donated 0.55% of its GNI in 2010 (OECD aid statistics). For 2013, Finland has reserved 0.55% of its GNI for official development assistance (ODA) appropriations, 1 118 million euro in total (The MFA webpage 2013). The state is committed to increasing by 2015 the appropriations allocated for ODA to 0.7% of GNI. The year 2015 coincides with the final year of the Millennium Development Goals; by the end of that year, the goals should be achieved (United Nations Millennium Development Goals website). In fact, 0.7 percent is the target level of development co-operation funding repeatedly confirmed by the governments of the world in the United Nations (UN). The UN is also the author of the Millennium Development Goals.

In Finland, the Ministry for Foreign Affairs' Department for Development Policy (MFA, 2011b) is responsible for development co-operation issues. Finland – like many other states – has different channels for implementing development co-operation (MFA, 2010b), namely country-, and region-specific co-operation and multilateral co-operation. Some appropriations are also directed to humanitarian relief as mentioned above. Within the channels identified above, there is also a range of means of distributing the Finnish Government’s development co-operation funds, including budget support, inter-institutional development co-operation (MFA, 2006) and financial support for UN organisations (MFA, 2008). A further means of distributing the funds is to sponsor Finnish NGOs in their development co-operation activities (MFA, 2010a). The sponsoring has various models, too, such as the Partnership Agreement Scheme (MFA, 2012b) and support to non-governmental organisations for conference visits (MFA, 2010d). Although there is a range of different forms of sponsoring, this study presents detailed information on Finnish NGOs’ development co-operation projects only, as the projects were chosen as the main focus of this thesis.

The total amount of funding provided to the NGOs is not insignificant: in 2011, the Ministry allotted 88 million euro for the implementation of development cooperation projects and for the provision of communication on development by NGOs (MFA, 2011a). Funding received can be seen as one of the factors that press NGOs to plan and implement projects of a good quality. Otherwise the practice of allotting funds for development co-operation projects would probably be increasingly criticized.

The development co-operation by NGOs has also often been understood ultimately as flows of financial resources but the co-operation point of view has gained more and more emphasis. Even those people who are mostly interested in the flows of money should actually pay attention to other aspects of the projects as well, as these aspects may have a major influence on how the funds are used. One of the most significant aspects is, in my opinion, communication. Its importance in general has been highlighted during the past few decades, but I believe that in the context of NGO development co-operation, communication should receive more attention than it has been given in the past. After all, communication between partner NGOs as well as with local population is often a vital element in a successful project.

The Ministry's support to NGO projects may be significant as a total sum, but it is even more significant for individual NGOs. If an NGO's project qualifies for the funding, the financial support from the Ministry is substantial; the Ministry may provide 85% of the funding or, in the case of projects for the disabled, 92.5% of the funding of qualified development co-operation projects (MFA, Department for Development Policy, 2005a: 27). The remaining share is self-financing from the organisation. The Ministry's new manual (MFA, 2012a: 5) specifies that a half of this share, that is 7.5%, can come from the indicated monetary value of donated goods which originate solely from Finland or from the indicated monetary value of voluntary work for the planning or implementation of the project performed entirely by the Finnish organisation. The remaining percentage (7.5%) needs to come from funds that the Finnish organisation has normally received from Finnish sources – donations, collections, events, selling products, et cetera – and the sources of self-financing need to be reported (MFA, Department for Development Policy, 2005b: 18). Nothing but money is accepted for the entire self-financing share (7.5%) of projects which aim to improve the status of disabled persons in developing countries, (MFA, Department for Development Policy, 2005: 18).

As explained above, the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland provides funding for development co-operation projects administrated by NGOs, but there are certain criteria on the basis of which organisations are eligible for applying for the support. The Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland (Department for Development Policy, 2005b: 8) defines a project as "a clearly scheduled group of actions that are carried out to attain specific objectives, utilising clearly specified means (inputs, resources) and implemented by an organisation established specifically for this purpose". Hence, a project has a beginning and an end, and between those two points in time, a defined group of actions need to be performed in a certain way. Usually the Ministry funds projects which last a maximum period of three years, but it is possible to apply for a continuation of an ongoing project (MFA, Department for Development Policy, 2005b: 17).

At the time the of launching the study, development co-operation projects had to fulfil the conditions set out by the MFA in *A Development co-operation manual for non-governmental Organisations, Part I and II* and be in accordance with the development co-operation policies of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland and of the recipient country. However, the application process of development co-operation project support underwent major revisions that came into effect in the spring of 2012, and in February 2012, the MFA (2012a) also published a new manual for development co-operation projects, the *Development Cooperation of the Civil Society Organisations – Project Guidelines*. According to the MFA webpage (2012a) the revised manual is based on the earlier version but includes some more detailed guidelines. The conditions have not thereby changed significantly but possible adjustments are reported on in this thesis when considered necessary.

One of the most visible terminological revisions is that the Ministry currently uses the term *civil society organisation (CSO)* in its manual instead of *non-governmental organisation (NGO)*. On its webpage, on the other hand, the Ministry continues to address the organisations as non-governmental organisations. Therefore, the term used most often in this text is NGO or sometimes simply organisation. Otherwise, the most apparent difference between the two manuals is that the manual published in February 2012 provides the NGOs with more specific instructions. The next paragraphs will examine a range of selected conditions in more detail. The conditions presented originate mainly from the 2005 guidelines, but as mentioned above, the relevant amendments from 2012 will also be included. In order to avoid any misunderstandings, it should be emphasized once more that only the relevant conditions were included here and this is by no means a complete list of the application criteria; therefore, all differences between the two manuals are not listed here.

The NGO applying for a development co-operation project needs to be “a non-profit organisation (organisation, association or foundation), be registered in Finland and have the legal capacity to operate” (MFA, Department for Development Policy. 2005b: 17), and it can apply for support for each project for a maximum of three years (*ibid*. 2). The Ministry for Foreign Affairs requires the applicant NGOs to have a local partner in the recipient country (*ibid.* 18) and underlines that the partner should normally be an NGO “or other defined group that has functioned for a minimum of one year” (*ibid*. 6). The local partner has the main responsibility for the implementation of the project, whereas the role of the Finnish NGO is supportive and aims mainly at strengthening the capacities and capabilities of the NGOs in the recipient country (*ibid*. 20). The Ministry emphasises (*ibid*.) that the projects should not be aid based on the initiatives and interests of the Finnish partner. One could consider that the principle of launching the projects from the basis of the local population’s needs requires for efficient communication between the project partners.

Another prerequisite that the Ministry for Foreign Affairs has set for allotting funding is that the NGOs deliver a set of documents concerning the project. The first document to deliver is *a project plan* that describes, for example, the project activities and budget agreed on by the partner organisations. The Ministry recommends that the Finnish NGO and its planned partner organisation draft it in collaboration. In effect, the Ministry suggests that the initiative for the project should come from the project partner, that is, from the partner NGO in the receiving country (MFA, Department for Development Policy, 2005a: 10). Ultimately, the issues that the project tackles should be identified and brought up by the local population in the recipient area or community, which is a current trend in development co-operation. Recipient area, here, means the project sites receiving the assistance in the target countries. As the people of the recipient areas or communities do not ordinarily speak the national languages of Finland – presumably the primary languages of most Finnish organisations – the need for translating or at least communicating in a foreign language might arise at this point. However, at least translation is not always necessary as the Ministry accepts project documents in Finnish, Swedish and English.

The project plan is needed before it is confirmed that the project will receive the Ministry's support, but the Ministry requires the NGOs to deliver documents during and after the project, too, in order to continue its support. *Annual project reports* are to be compiled after each year of implementing project activities (MFA, Department for Development Policy, 2005a: 3) except possibly after the final year of the project cycle, as will be indicated below. The reports should describe among other things what has been done in the recipient area and in Finland, how the results are measured and how the financial resources of the project have been used. Needless to say, compiling the reports also necessitates clear communication so that both organisations understand what must be included and how the report should be written.

In addition to the annual reports, the NGOs need to present a *final report* to the Ministry after the last year of project activities if the project lasts for several years. The final report can also replace an annual report after the final year of implementing the project, but a final report must be submitted in any case. To be more explicit, an annual report cannot replace the final report. The final report is supposed to evaluate the results and the sustainability of the project, the lessons learned and the applicability of that knowledge in similar projects (MFA, Department for Development Policy, 2005a: 4). It should be reiterated that in order to be able to reflect upon these issues, the Finnish organisation and its local partner should be in an in depth dialogue with each other.

The Ministry also demands that the project partners, in other words the Finnish organisation and its local partner in the recipient country, draft a *co-operation contract* at the latest when the project is approved for the Ministry's support (MFA, Department for Development Policy, 2005b: 18). The co-operation contract is important because it designates the authorised representatives, roles and responsibilities, among other things (MFA, Department for Development Policy, 2005b: 20).

The changes to the application process that came into force in 2012 included some adjustments to the required documents. As from 2012, the Ministry requires that all NGO development co-operation projects with a budget that exceeds 100 000 euro during one application cycle must submit a *project document* (2012a: 41). The project document is an extensive description of the project and its background containing, for instance, a risk analysis; a reporting plan; a budget; and information on the development needs, the beneficiaries and the project objectives (MFA 2012a: 41-42).

There is still one further sector in the development co-operation projects where translation is possibly required, namely disseminating information. In this context, disseminating information refers to providing information on the project to the members and board of the organisation as well as to those people who are not involved in project work but might be interested in the project. This type of communications can be considered an obligatory element of a development co-operation project since the Ministry demands that "the NGO should actively inform the public about its projects and co-operation countries" (MFA, Department for Development Policy, 2005b: 8). The Ministry even asks the organisations to explain how they will distribute information and communicate in general and especially on their development co-operation activities (MFA, Department for Development Policy, 2005b: 3). Moreover, providing information is strongly recommended: If people in Finland are familiar with a project, they are naturally much more likely to donate money for it than if they are completely ignorant of the project. In order to facilitate public access to information concerning development co-operation projects, it would be wise to provide information on what has happened in the target area in one or both of the national languages of Finland. Therefore, at least some degree of translation may be necessary. The Ministry even allows NGOs to use a part of the project budget for spreading information on the development co-operation project or projects for which the NGO in question is responsible.

Finally, the Ministry must be notified of all changes to the original project plan and/or budget before their implementation. This applies if some of the funds provided are wanted for a purpose not specified in the project plan, for example. It is even necessary to request permission to retarget funds to an objective that was mentioned in the original plan, but that was originally allocated a smaller proportion of the total funds (MFA, Department for Development Policy, 2005b: 22). The 2012 manual (MFA, 2012a: 12) specifies that the NGOs need to apply for the *change of use of appropriated funds* for *"*all changes that alter the key objectives, activities or personnel expenses, or which change budget lines by more than 15%*"*.

As I see it, the prerequisites of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland set some requirements for communication as well (2012a: 4) since the Ministry demands that the organisations receiving support have a sufficient level of expertise in order to implement and administer their projects. The sufficient level of expertise includes, in my opinion, expertise in communication and translation if they are needed in the project. The Ministry also informs (*ibid.*) that it takes into account the organisation's capability to plan, monitor and implement the project when considering whether or not to grant the support. Effective planning, monitoring, and implementing require communication between the project partners if they are performed according to the Ministry's requirements. Furthermore, the Ministry requires that the organisation maintains contacts with its partner.

As the previous paragraphs have attempted to show, it is justified to conclude that clear communication is a prerequisite for preparing a feasible project plan and for co-operating in the implementation and evaluation phases because the obligations of both partner organisations and other stakeholders at each stage of co-operation must be accurately defined. Clear and sufficient communication is also crucial in order for the plan to be useful and effective. Most importantly, effective communication is necessary in order to meet the prerequisites of the Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs and ultimately to be able to implement the projects with the Ministry's support.

2.3 Related research

As was mentioned above, this topic has not been studied in Finland before, nor was there any relevant material available from other countries. In any case, research results from other countries might not necessarily have been applicable to the Finnish context since the conditions for the development co-operation projects of NGOs vary in individual countries and the languages or the language combinations are different from the languages used in Finland.

Hence, most of the theoretical references are, in fact, references to methodological manuals. Nonetheless, literature on methodology will be presented in the next section, while this subsection deals with the role of professional or trained translators who translate NGO development co-operation project texts. All aspects of the translator's role are not discussed here, but the purpose is to make the reader to ponder, for instance, the ethical dilemmas as regards volunteering. Therefore, I summarize Mona Baker's and Liisa Laakso-Tammisto's writings on translation and activism. Their views are accompanied by a summary of Anthony Pym's terminological debate on volunteering. I also cite Tiina Kontinen, a researcher from the Social Sciences, who observed the co-operation between Finnish and Tanzanian NGOs in Tanzania. Granted that Kontinen's study did not focus on translation, it succeeded in making a few pertinent remarks on real-life translation needs.

Kontinen (2007) observed the co-operation between small Finnish and Tanzanian NGOs in the development co-operation sector in Tanzania. The language-related issues featuring in her study are described below. Her observations may encourage NGOs to use translators, interpreters and other language professionals because it appears that using members of an NGO for translation and interpreting can cause confusion in project participants. Another option could be to give a member of the organisation clearly the role of a translator, and to define the role in detail. The next paragraphs discuss this aspect on the basis of some observations from the study conducted by Kontinen.

Kontinen (2007: 186−189) explains that the Finnish and the Tanzanian partners decided to organise a seminar in Tanzania and that a committee was established in Tanzania in order to see to the arrangements of the event. The committee was often in contact with the Finnish partner NGO. Kontinen mentions that the electronic correspondence between the Finnish NGO and the Tanzanian committee was handled by a young Finnish volunteer in Tanzania to whom many of the e-mails were addressed personally even though the topics frequently concerned the committee business and not herself. This was partly due to the Tanzanians' limited access to computer services and partly to their lack of skills in using e-mail. As the messages from Finland were mostly in Finnish, the volunteer proposed that they be written in English in the future in order to promote open communication. In the end, however, she had to translate and even try to decipher meanings for both parties. According to Kontinen, the volunteer felt that her role was confusing to her and to the Tanzanian committee members. A Tanzanian committee member, on the other hand, mentioned that it seemed that the volunteer was not able to live up to the expectations connected to her role in the beginning. Furthermore, the Tanzanians did not always know whether she passed on to them an opinion of, a question by or an ultimatum by the Finnish organisation. A committee member even stated in an interview that, on one occasion, the confusion rising from a particular e-mail resulted in the loss of many volunteer working hours in Tanzania.

Kontinen reports that even she herself was repeatedly asked to be a mediator or to deliver messages between the parties, although she was present as a researcher (*ibid*. 236−238). The opinions of the NGO members varied on whether this was her responsibility or not. The parties clearly did not all share the same view of the roles in the co-operation project, and it seems that having a professional translator and interpreter from outside the project might have alleviated the situation. Kontinen supports this, stating (*ibid*. 89) that inadequate language skills impeded co-operation between the partners since neither the Tanzanians nor the Finns spoke fluent English on all occasions. She mentions that Tanzanians who had been studying in Finland were actually used as interpreters at some point. Unfortunately, she does not give additional information on the experiences of those occasions nor on the educational background of these interpreters. This is unfortunate because the information might have provided us with new insights into this particular case.

In brief, if NGOs working with development co-operation projects recruited professional interpreters, translators and language experts, it might prevent the kind of confusion that was described above. Notwithstanding this and other reasons mentioned above, it should be emphasized that using a professional – whether a paid employee or a volunteer – may not always be the best solution; it depends on the NGO, on its members' and employees' abilities, and on the documents that need to be translated. Despite the advantages (removing confusion and augmenting the translation expertise), involving professional translators could cause other problems especially if an NGO were forced to use a different translator each time it needs a translation of any document. Insufficient background information could be a problem even if the translator remained the same. Translators or language professionals should, nevertheless, be able to overcome this problem assuming that the NGO provides adequate background material and assists them to perform their tasks well.

After listing some advantages of using translators or other language experts with professional experience or education, how to involve these professionals should be considered. It is justified to argue that at least most NGOs wish to direct money to actual project activities in the recipient country rather than project management in Finland. Hence, budgeting money for translation and communication in foreign languages is probably not their first priority. As the projects usually have limited budgets, it might be unlikely, at least for small-scale projects, to find sufficient financial resources to hire language professionals. Yet, as stated above, using language professionals might benefit projects because the professionals might work so efficiently that many working hours could be saved. An alternative to paid expert work could be volunteering.

During the past few years, the number of research on translation performed mainly by volunteers has been increasing notably, but it has mostly focused on translation occurring on the Internet. Pym (2011: 78-81) presents the recent terms *collaborative translation*, *community translation* and *crowd-sourcing*. He treats these terms as synonyms, and continues the list with the terms *fan translation*, *user-based translation, lay translation* and *self-organized citizen translation*. Could these terms be suitable for translation performed in the development co-operation projects of NGOs as well? Pym criticizes the term community translation because at least in the United Kingdom and Australia it can refer to written translation in the areas of community interpreting and thus create confusion; therefore, it will not be used in this study. According to Pym, collaborative translation refers to "group translating where the work is largely voluntary (i.e. unpaid in financial terms)". This brief definition would seem to suit the translation activities which are described in subsection 4.1 as a part of the results of the participant observation study. However, Pym finds fault with the word collaboration, as in English, "it always sounds like illicit help given to the enemy". Therefore, he prefers *volunteer translation* to the other terms.

As for volunteer translation, Pym explains (*ibid*. 108) that the term assumes that this type of translation differs essentially from professional translation in monetary terms. He argues that the term should manifest this difference, and states that "[i]f a professional translator is one who receives monetary reward, then the opposite term should be "volunteer" (qualifying the person, not the action)." Volunteer translation is the term used in this study, especially since this thesis is less internet-centred and examines translation from the perspective of NGO development co-operation projects.

In this thesis, ‘volunteer translator’ does not refer so much to a person as to a person’s role. As Pym defined, volunteering implies that the volunteer is not paid; thus, few people, if any, are in a position to do full-time volunteer translation since people also have to earn a living. As a consequence, some volunteer translators are professionals who volunteer in addition to their regular work. Others are students of translation and some might be people who are considered to be skilled in languages and capable of translating, but are not employed in the translation sector.

Both professionals and untrained translators volunteer to translate for NGOs, and there are even networks and organisations that bring together this type of volunteers and organisations in need of such volunteers. The translators have different reasons for volunteering, but the desire to contribute to efforts for the common good might be one of them. Nevertheless, the reasons for volunteering remain unknown, as there are no large-scale studies on what kinds of people volunteer for translation.

Volunteer translation, as compared to other varieties of translation, can be problematic. Volunteer translation could lower the esteem of translation as a profession or reduce the overall income of translators, by possibly lowering fees. A remonstration against this argument: provided that the translations are done free of charge, they should not influence the price level. Moreover, other professionals also volunteer, and it does not decrease the appreciation of their profession. An example of this is the NGO *Doctors Without Borders* or *Médecins Sans Frontières* that is known for its projects, for instance, in developing countries. I do not believe that people would argue that the doctors working for the organisation have lowered the esteem or salary levels of doctors.

Laakso-Tammisto adds a viewpoint to the discussion on *gratis* services. Although her examples concern interpreting, the same principles can be applied to translation. She argues (2007: 3) that interpreting performed free of charge or at a low cost should be of equal quality as the “mainstream interpreting”. She accepts the low cost option, which is understandable especially since conference interpreting often involves other costs in addition to the potential personnel expenses. After all, high quality conference interpreting requires some equipment that is not inexpensive.

Better access to technical solutions which help translation and interpreting professionals could actually be added to the list of reasons why NGOs are to be encouraged to consider recruiting professionals. Concerning translation in particular, IT tools such as translation memory programmes would probably not involve any additional cost to the professionals. Therefore, volunteer translators who would be in a position to utilize the technology in their voluntary activities as well might be willing to do so.

Abroad, there are even volunteer translator networks. Many networks or NGOs offer translation services free of charge for, for example, NGOs that plan and implement development co-operation projects. The organisations usually present the range of languages that their translators have and offer different services for charity purposes. The next paragraphs briefly present some of them and thereby add to the ethical contemplation. Baker (2006: 157-162) criticizes some organisations heavily, and her critique is displayed here as well, although this thesis does not attempt to evaluate translator networks.

A group called *Tlaxcala* is an international network for linguistic diversity, and its members are translators (Tlaxcala website).While Tlaxcala is not focusing only on developing countries, they are the focus of many of its activities since, for instance, many aboriginal people with endangered languages live in them. Tlaxcala is an example of a network that has an openly activist role. The members share a common philosophy expressed in Tlaxcala's own manifesto, which is the source of inspiration for its members' work.

Translators Without Borders is a translator organisation offering translations free of charge. However Baker (2006: 157-162) claims that unlike other organisations that she writes about, Translators Without Borders is not an agency that is only seeking to serve the public good. It is, in fact, an offshoot of a commercial translation agency, *Eurotexte*, and, according to Baker, it endeavours to benefit commercially from its *gratis* services by using them to improve its image. She continues that because of Eurotexte, other translation agencies are also encouraged to translate free of charge for positive publicity, and, consequently, it will become more acceptable to piggyback on a charity for commercial goals. What is even worse, she argues, is that that kind of model makes donors be pleased with them, while they do not answer the real needs of those who resort to their services. Baker states (*ibid*. 161) that "the model being promoted in the professional world of translation of companies such as Eurotexte encourages uncritical acceptance of the cosmetic use of humanitarian themes by corporate business.” Baker also claims that the model prevents individual translators and interpreters from advocating change or presenting criticism unlike in another kind of a network. These are strong words, and even Baker herself admits that people might disagree with her analysis. Her ethical reflection continues as other translator organisations are presented.

Baker (*ibid*.) states that, in contrast to Translators Without Borders, other organisations offering translation services for free (*Babels, Translators for Peace, Translators and Interpreters Peace Network and ECOS*) do not try to gain commercial or other profits even though, for instance, Babels does burnish its own image through promoting its activities and membership. Still, no one in Babels takes credit for the work, and there is no information on the founder of the website. Baker points out that Babels does not try to benefit commercially from its activities in any way; there are not even appeals for donations. I believe that using a charity for polishing one’s image is a complicated matter: It helps to achieve something without using the financial resources of a development co-operation project. Spending the resources on translation would otherwise reduce other opportunities to progress with the projects. On the other hand, questions can be raised about the ethics of burnishing one’s image with charity work.

Translations for Progress, on the other hand, is openly attracting students to enrol as translators by reminding them that it would help them develop their professional skills (Translations for Progress website). Yet, does the personal benefit aspect differ notably from the commercial one discussed in the previous paragraph? To illustrate: In an imaginary situation, there is a conflict between a small ethnic group and a state. The state orders a considerable number of translations from an agency. After the agency has submitted its offer, the ethnic group contacts the volunteer network attached to the agency. One can then wonder how likely it will be that the network refuses to translate documents that comment on the conflict and that are written by members of the ethnic group. Thus, establishing volunteer organizations that have close connections to enterprises can result in a situation where the needs of the weakest parties are not met. A distinction between independent volunteer translator organisations and organisations which have links to commercial enterprises could therefore be that the organisations with commercial links might concentrate more on translations that make the enterprise look good and not, for instance, on translations related to conflict situations that could potentially be bad for business. However, individual translators can equally want to avoid translations that might harm their business or their image.

This situation can also be reversed so that in addition to the negative, the positive aspects of volunteer translation networks can be associated with both types of organisations; I assume that commercial enterprises can follow equally high moral principles as individuals can. It depends on the enterprise whether or not it is genuinely trying to follow the principles of corporate responsibility or to do charity work or whether its efforts are merely a promotional gimmick. It can, of course, be arduous to verify enterprises' intentions, as is the case with the contemporary 'greenwash' phenomenon. However, as I try to argue, the black-and-white principle cannot necessarily be applied to charity efforts in general, as individuals also have their own motives. I presented above Baker’s warning that piggybacking on charity work might leave the real needs unaddressed, and I illustrated in the previous paragraph how the needs of the weakest parties might not be met. However, this is not, in my opinion, a problem of enterprises *per se*, as individuals can equally leave those needs unaddressed. In the previous example of a conflict between a state and an ethnic group, individual translators might also choose to turn down the assignment if they considered that translating for the ethnic group could, for instance, have a negative influence on their future opportunities to receive commissions from the state officials of the country in question.

Baker’s further conceptions upon activism and translation can be summarized as follows: Baker (2006: 105) argues that translators need to make a basic ethical choice whenever they choose an assignment. She explains that the choice is about whether to reproduce the ideologies that feature in the source text or whether to refuse to do so. The strongest way of refusing to reproduce the ideologies of the source text would be to refuse altogether to translate or to interpret on a given occasion. I agree that ethical choices have to be made since it would be dubious, for example, to translate instructions on how to make a bomb for someone who could potentially use it. Especially in more moderate cases, the ethical dilemmas are not the only ones having an impact upon a translator’s decision to accept or to refuse an assignment. Other factors sometimes influence the decisions more, such as the need to earn a living. Nevertheless, other factors do not eliminate the need to make an ethical choice each time.

3 Data and methods

The readers have seen a glimpse of what can be expected of development co-operation management in Finnish NGOs, but before examining the translation and communication practices of the organisations in detail, they should know more about the methods employed to obtain information on the practices and needs. Eskola (2010: 181−186 and 200−202) reminds us that researchers face many decisions in the course of their research work. He stresses the importance of making well-founded decisions; hence, this section is dedicated to explaining the choices made during the research process. Another salient reason for focusing on methodologies is the pivotal role of empirical research in this particular case: with no existing theories or models, the researcher had to start from scratch.

This section is divided into three subsections: The first subsection presents the epistemological starting point of this study and discusses its connection with choosing the different methods. The second subsection describes the methods chosen for conducting the questionnaire and the observation processes and justifies the choice of methods. The third subsection sheds more light on the NGOs examined in this thesis, while the fourth expounds the methods of analysis. In order to appreciate the choices introduced in subsections 3.2–3.4 this section begins with an epistemological discussion.

3.1. Methodological considerations

This subsection is dedicated to explaining which methods were chosen for this study and why. Epistemological reflection opens this subsection even though the idea of conducting this type of a study was not generated through theoretical reflection. On the contrary, the idea emerged from practice. Abduction or perhaps even induction was strongly present in the design of this study. Nonetheless, in presenting the methodology, it may be better to begin from the higher level and then shift towards the more specific details of the methods.

Epistemology does not have a determining role in this study since I believe in methodological eclecticism rather than in methodological fundamentalism. This is mainly based on my view that the different epistemologies are, for the time being, insufficient. To illustrate: I believe that the researcher can never study topics entirely objectively and that the previous experiences and views of the researchers always influence the findings to some extent. These views would lead me towards constructivism. However, I have to renounce this epistemology, too, because I cannot accept the idea that objects that are not perceived do not exist independently. I refuse to bind myself to rationalism either: there are so many different operating environments due to a variety of ever-changing variables – such as countries, organisations and natures of projects – that it seems highly unlikely that there is absolute truth about the NGO translation and communication practices and needs. I refer to empirical observations to some extent in reporting my own experiences and analysing the responses to the questionnaire but do not resort only to them. Hence, I agree with some conceptions of different epistemologies but find none which I would be entirely satisfied with. As a whole, I do not consider that an epistemological starting point is central for this study because, as stated before, I prefer methodological eclecticism since it enables the researcher to approach the research topic via the information that is needed in solving the research problem in a concrete manner (Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2002: 60). Therefore, it would not be necessary for me to judge what the nature and scope of knowledge is.

Nonetheless, the choice of methods has an epistemological dimension: Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2008: 23) explain that quantitative research contains the assumption that the research subject is independent from the researcher, whereas qualitative research considers the researcher and the research subject to interact with each other. This is why Gummesson (1991) believes that the researcher is involved in creating the research subject, as all interviews are a result of the co-operation of the interviewer and the interviewee. This study mainly draws on a questionnaire, and attempts in this way to minimize the influence of the researcher in the collection of data. Yet, I admit that the questionnaire might reflect my personal presuppositions. Moreover, my personal interpretations are highly present in the observation section. My own expectations and interpretations are present in this study in general as well; hence, this thesis is subjective, and I have deliberately described my background extensively in order to allow the reader to evaluate the results and conclusions with the help of as much relevant information as I can provide.

Thus, I would like to underline one point: this study should not be considered as objective because the researcher has previous experience from the field and consequently, preconceived ideas of the subjects of this research. Drawing from Koskinen (2008: 8), it could be said that this study is based on “observant participation”. She coined this term to distinguish between her own methodology and the generally recognised method of participant observation in the sense that she was a true participant before becoming a researcher. The same applies to me. The more common term, *participant observation*, implies that the person is simultaneously the researcher and the subject of the research. This role adds a certain degree of self-reflexivity to the study, as Koskinen points out (2008: 9).

When Jorgensen (1989: 26–27) contemplates participant observation as a method, he summarises that it strives for accurate and truthful findings. However, he continues that

> [r]ather than denying personal interests and values, the methodology of participant observation requires an awareness of how these thoughts and feelings influence research. By reporting personal interests and values, other people are able to evaluate further the influence of values on your findings.
> (Jorgensen, 1989: 27)

Moreover, Jorgensen (*ibid*.) asserts that participatory observation discards the conventional conception of and distinction between subjectivity and objectivity since in order to obtain accurate and truthful findings it is necessary to access the subjective reality of everyday life. From Jorgensen’s point of view (*ibid*. 56), the probability for accurate findings increases rather than decreases when researchers participate directly and personally in the everyday reality of the phenomena they study, as in that way, they understand better what they observe. Therefore, as stated, I have not tried to hide my own presence, but have described my background and values in so far as I have considered them to be relevant.

Gillham (2000: 2) argues that using one method rarely suffices in research. He (2000: 2) supports a multi-method approach by suggesting that using different methods may increase the coverage of the results; thereby it might also augment their reliability. Subsequently, it is reasonable to use the methodology in this study. The circumstances were favourable for performing multi-method research: As explained above, the opportunity to employ the participant observation method emerged effortlessly because I was already engaged in development co-operation projects of two organisations.

Secondly, it was relatively easy to find information on the Finnish NGOs whose development co-operation projects receive funding from the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland, which facilitated the questionnaire process. Despite the favourable circumstances, the use of a *multi-method approach* was not a coincidence, but a rational option.

3.1.1 Abduction and data-driven analysis

The method of conducting this research is not the most typical of Master's theses since the students usually approach their topic through theory (Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2002: 183) and then move on to testing it in practice. My approach is the reverse: I had certain hypotheses based on my personal experience of the subject matter, but there was little closely related theory available. Due to the lack of previous research on translation and foreign language communication by NGOs, most of the data on this topic was extracted from the content analysis of the answers by NGOs to a Webropol questionnaire drafted for the purposes of this study. Hence, this study could be considered to be mainly data-driven. As Eskola and Suoranta (1998: 19) explain, this type of research attempts to formulate theory based on the empirical data.

Data-driven research is supposed to draw only upon research data in order to form new theories, excluding all preliminary conceptions and theories, as Saaranen-Kauppinen and Puusniekka (2006) explain. Nonetheless, as was stated earlier in this section, this characteristic does not materialise in this study since the idea was generated from my personal experiences and the expectations that stemmed from them. My experiences can be treated as data to some extent, but it would be dishonest to assert that the data did not alter my thinking by forming preliminary conceptions. This dovetails with Tuomi and Sarajärvi's (2002: 98) remark that strictly inductive deduction is impossible because researchers are unable to do research without having any preconceptions of the research subject. They continue that being strictly inductive would be difficult because observations are commonly considered to contain theory; there are no objective observations because the researcher always chooses the research concepts and methods, which influence the results. In this sense, the methodology of this study approaches *abductive research*.

In abductive research, the researcher's intuition might direct the observations to issues that are presumably significant (Grönfors 1982: 33-37). Researchers might study several hypotheses simultaneously and they might also abandon a hypothesis or replace one at any time. Abduction allows the researcher to take advantage of surprising turns. Thus, a researcher's reflection is the principal tool of conducting research, but theory assists the process (Saaranen-Kauppinen and Puusniekka 2006). Tuomi and Sarajärvi (2002: 96−97) see that in abduction, the data-driven model alternates with previous thinking patterns, and it is the researcher who aims to combine these.

In the context of analyzing participant observation as a methodology, 'theory' can, in Jorgensen's opinion, be defined as a set of concepts and generalizations. The preconceptions originating from my first-hand experiences served as a guide that helped me in choosing the NGOs that would be investigated and the issues that would be relevant for the questionnaire and the participant observation process. In other words, they enabled me to use *theory-driven content analysis*. Tuomi and Sarajärvi describe theory-driven content analysis as follows (*ibid*.): theory-driven content analysis is connected to but not directly based on theory. Ergo, theory possibly helps in taking the process of analysis forward. The impact of previous theory needs to be recognised but previous knowledge will aid the researcher in finding new theories. The preconceptions will be briefly addressed again in section 3.1.3 *Participant observation*, but before exploring the method in more detail, selected aspects of quantitative and qualitative research are discussed.

3.1.2 Qualitative and quantitative

The methodological considerations have already covered to some extent the epistemology pertinent to this study. Thus far, for example, subjectivity, abduction and induction have been examined, but let us now place this thesis on the qualitative-quantitative axis. This study is predominantly qualitative because its purpose is to discover the translation needs and procedures of NGOs and because it focuses more on variety than on attempting to quantify how many NGOs follow certain practices or have certain needs. This dovetails with Hirsjärvi and Hurme's (2008: 58–59) analysis, as they explain that in qualitative research the goal is not to make statistical generalisations but to discover in-depth information. Saaranen-Kauppinen and Puusniekka (2006) mention that induction is often considered as qualitative research, whereas deduction, commencing with theory, is quantitative research. This study was launched from practical data, that is, by using induction.

Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2008: 58–59) continue that due to the nature of qualitative research, the researchers often use purposive sample. Purposive sample became quite naturally one of the tools of this thesis as well because the organisations observed were the organisations where I had been actively involved. Hirsjärvi and Hurme remark (*ibid*. 60) that a purposive sample can distort the results. In this study, nonetheless, the purpose was not to reflect the practices and needs of all NGOs through participant observation. On the contrary, the observations aim at giving an example of the needs while admitting openly that the two development co-operation projects and the NGOs which manage them have their unique characteristics which may not appear in any other project or NGO. To balance this data, a questionnaire was sent to recipients selected by random sampling, which is discussed later in this thesis.

Tuomi and Sarajärvi (2002: 60) state that the credibility of the analysis depends on the argumentation and on the sources used in the arguments. This argumentation and the different means of measuring the empirical material are, according to Saaranen-Kauppinen and Puusniekka (2006) and building on the thoughts of Töttö (2004: 9-20), the characteristics that mainly distinguish between qualitative and quantitative research. In spite of the differences, I am not eager to exclude quantitative analysis entirely. Excluding quantitative analysis for the reason of using qualitative analysis is not necessary, as will be argued in the next paragraphs.

Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2008: 21-33) analyse the juxtaposition of qualitative and quantitative research. Taking into account the views of many other scholars, they note that qualitative and quantitative research should not always be treated as two conflicting methods; qualitative data can, for instance, always be quantified. Saaranen-Kauppinen and Puusniekka (2006) seem to have similar views since they remind us that qualitative research can use statistics or analyse data in a quantitative manner, whereas quantitative research can use texts for data despite the fact that texts are usually considered to be qualitative data. Qualitative and quantitative research have differing characteristics; nevertheless, they can be used in various combinations. While Hirsjärvi and Hurme regard combining the two methods as fruitful, they also warn that the researchers should choose their method or methods carefully and not combine qualitative and quantitative research merely for the sake of using them both.

I believe that using the combination of the two methods, in other words conducting mixed method research, can be an asset in this thesis. Using quantitative research is possible to some extent because the respondents to the questionnaire were selected by random sampling. Nonetheless, the quantitative dimension should not be overemphasised because the percentages in the questionnaire results do not necessarily correspond to the percentages amongst all NGOs, as the NGOs are so varied. Regardless of a possible gap between the situation of all NGOs that have development co-operation projects and that of the respondent NGOs, it will be interesting to view the distribution of the responses. The percentages will at least indicate how many of the respondents answered similarly even if the answers do not allow us to make generalisations.

Thus far, the methodology has been discussed on a higher theoretical level, but little has been said about the more concrete methodological tools of this study. Most research data was obtained by using specific methodological tools, semi-structured questionnaire and participant observation, which are presented in subsections 3.1.3 and 3.1.4.

3.1.3 Participant observation

Participant observation was not chosen as one of the methodologies of this study purely for research purposes or because it was regarded as a useful methodology, as explained earlier. Jorgensen (1989: 31) explains that participant observers usually choose their field settings at least partly by virtue of previous involvement. This is obviously the case in this study. Participating in two development co-operation projects placed me at a useful vantage point for seeing how translation and foreign language communication were managed in the projects, and I had the chance to gain experience of these activities, as I was performing this work personally.

Jorgensen (1989: 12) points out that participant observation is especially useful when previous research information is scarce. Grönfors' opinion is in line with that, although Grönfors describes the benefits of all types of observation as he recommends the methodology especially for situations where previous knowledge of the topic is limited or there is no previous information (2001: 127). In those cases it can be impossible to prepare even an unstructured interview because researchers have nothing on which they can base their questions. Jorgensen (1989: 12) asserts that participant observation as a methodology suits almost all fields of human science. Participant observation is strongly descriptive by nature (*ibid*.), and the methodology is suited to studies that aim at generating theoretical interpretations. The main methods of collecting data in this methodology are direct observation and personal experience (*ibid*. 23).

Using participant observation often entails defining and redefining the problem under investigation (Jorgensen 1989: 16), which matches with the early stages of this study. Indeed, he (*ibid.* 32) explains that research problems are often generated as a result of "a flexible, open-ended, ongoing research process of identifying, clarifying, negotiating, refining and elaborating". In effect, the process of redefining started before the study was even launched because I was considering some issues I had noticed in the projects before choosing to consciously observe the projects by using the participant observation method.

Grönfors (2001: 125–126) proposes that using participant observation gives researchers a double role: They participate in the activities of the research subjects, while simultaneously working as researchers. Behar describes this paradoxical role as follows:

> Our intellectual mission is deeply paradoxical: get the "native point of view," *pero por favor* without actually "going native." Our methodology, defined by the oxymoron "participant observation," is split at the root: act as a participant but don't forget to keep your eyes open. Behar (1996: 5)

Behar continues that after the observation period, the researchers are to return to their offices and to log everything they saw and heard.

Jorgensen explains that the objective of the methodology is to learn about the insider's viewpoint. Yet, the researchers usually come from outside the community or the group that is investigated, and they cannot always blend in with the population of the community or the group (Grönfors 2001: 125–126). This might result in changes in the population's behaviour. Referring to other scholars, Jorgensen (1989: 15) also notes that "[h]uman beings likewise behave differently when they know they are being studied". The current study offered an opportunity to bypass this risk, since I perceived no change in my role after I started to observe intentionally. Since I had been a member of the group before I even considered investigating this topic, I could be considered a *complete insider*, in Jorgensen's terms (1989:55). Moreover, as I had established most of my relationships to other people prior to the research project, no additional efforts were needed.

The above advantages can perhaps be regarded as the most useful dimension of utilizing participant observation here since a group subject to observation can rarely be accessed as fully by a researcher and without the researcher's being considered an outsider. Grönfors (2001: 131) states that complete participation is rare but in this case it was possible since I was already a natural member of the group. Participating in the project activities gave me a broader and deeper understanding of the research subject as Grönfors (2001: 125) also affirms.

Jorgensen (1989: 7) analyses participant observation from a different perspective. He summarizes the views of some positivist scholars as follows: participant observation is a unique method of collecting data but cannot be used for explanatory theorizing. He does not seem to concur with this positivist view, but characterizes the type of participant observation that he prefers as a methodology that differs fundamentally from the corresponding methodology of the physical sciences. He asserts that the methodology he uses is an adaptation suitable for the human studies, where it can be useful for theory-building. Jorgensen continues (*ibid*. 8) that the practitioners of participant observation have been reluctant to define the procedures and techniques of participant observation, and even when they have defined the methodology, they have emphasized a range of characteristics; thus, there is no clear consensus of what features the method involves. Although Jorgensen later on describes many pertinent characteristics of participant observation, his way of conceiving the method as an art that has no unique style of execution (1989) encouraged me to use it in the way that, in my opinion, suited this research process best. To be more explicit, it encouraged me to present the general principles of how translation and communication were handled in the projects where I was involved. I return to this issue when I examine the methodology of analysing data obtained from participant observation.

Participant observation was, in effect, developed in the context of development research, and as this thesis is closely related to development co-operation, the method may seem less unusual for Translation Studies, too. Participant observation appreciates the experiences of different people (Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2002:81). Tuomi and Sarajärvi continue that in its original context, this type of observation actually aimed for change and that the researchers served, in a way, as catalysts. I probably also functioned as some kind of catalyst as I was bringing up my ideas in the projects where I participated. However, I do not believe that my personal influence in SYL’s or TYY’s projects was significant. When I became involved with SYL’s projects, I had already decided to study this topic and did not, therefore, make any suggestions concerning translation and communication. As for the latter, there were already students of translation involved, and for that reason, the level of translation expertise in TYY’s project might have been higher than on average to begin with.

Nonetheless, being a natural member of the groups has its disadvantages because my views are not necessarily as objective as those of an outsider, but research can never be entirely objective. Grönfors (2001: 125) reminds that researchers must know which features within themselves might have an impact on the findings, although they should not try to change their personality. Therefore, I reflected upon the potential effects of my personality on the findings but did not perceive them as influential especially because I was a member of TYY’s group already before commencing this study and had not decided to apply the participant observation method when joining SYL’s group.

Above, some advantages of using participatory research were introduced, but observation in general has its benefits in this study: By observing, the researcher sees matters in their natural context (Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2002: 81), and the information that the researchers obtain can be more multifaceted than the information drawn solely from a questionnaire. Grönfors (2001) adds that observation also allows the researcher to connect the data obtained by other methods better to their context.

In effect, Grönfors (2001) notes that observation should not be the sole method of any research, but it should be combined with other methods. This principle is followed in this study where a questionnaire is the main source of data. The reasons for selecting a questionnaire as the principal method of acquiring data are discussed in the next section.

3.1.4 Questionnaire

As stated above, a questionnaire was chosen as the main tool to discover what translation and communication needs and existing practices the NGOs have. Although Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2008) – drawing their view from a group of academics – list a number of reasons why interviews could be more useful for a research than questionnaires, I believe that a questionnaire has several advantages for the purposes of this thesis. This section will introduce those advantages and the method itself.

The main reason for constructing a questionnaire was that it allowed me to contact more organisations from a broader geographical area. Furthermore, interviews would have required substantially more resources, for hiring interviewers for example, which were not available, or time, as a large number of interviews carried out by only one person would have taken more time than available. Using a questionnaire eased the workload by eliminating the need for transcribing as well. Another reason for rejecting interviews is that I do not have interviewer training, so a questionnaire probably provided more objective information, especially since a questionnaire has the potential for more objectivity to begin with. Of course, using a questionnaire does not automatically make this study objective since the questions are formulated according to my subjective choices, and the analysis is also a subjective view, coloured possibly by my own experiences of NGO translation. Moreover, the answers and comments by the respondents are never absolutely reliable. Finally, a questionnaire was considered to be a suitable method because the questions intended to be used to obtain the data were simple and concrete enough to be presented in a questionnaire.

I believe that the previous points outweigh the advantages of interviews even though the advantages of interviews in comparison to questionnaires may include better-motivated respondents; better control over the order of the questions, and more opportunities to ask for further information, to ensure that the questions are interpreted in a similar manner and to verify the validity of the responses by observing the respondents (Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2008: 34-37). Yet, I paid special attention to these questionnaire-related issues that might have had a negative impact. To illustrate, I explained in the cover letter why it would be important to answer in order to have a higher response-rate, and I asked for the possibility to send further questions if necessary in order to clarify misunderstandings. Moreover, the order was not of great importance in the questionnaire. Gillham, on the other hand, (2005: 81) criticizes questionnaires because the respondents "may not represent a balanced cross-section of the group you are researching". Yet, I believe that the cross-section could have been even less balanced with interviews if I had been able to conduct only a few interviews and collect data from them only.

Gillham (2000: 48) mentions that a response rate of 50% or higher can be considered fairly successful if the research participants are unfamiliar with the researcher. If the rate is considerably lower, less than 30%, the validity of the questionnaire is challenged. Hence, the aim was to exceed the 50% response rate acknowledging that even a higher rate would not suffice for drawing generalizations due to the unique characteristics of the NGOs.

3.2 Design

As the methodologies introduced above can be employed in several ways, one ought to contemplate how they can benefit the study the most and how certain practical issues should be organised. This subsection specifies the details of designing the participant observation process and the questionnaire study.

3.2.1 Designing the participant observation

No special arrangements were necessary for commencing the participant observation, as I was already a member of the groups managing the development co-operation projects in question. As mentioned above, I was able to develop a true insider view, especially since the first impressions were acquired before even planning to study this topic. After all, I made observations on TYY's project already before actually choosing to use participant observation for research purposes or even formulating the research plan. Consequently, there are no notes about the practices and needs of the first years of my engagement. Yet, I have included information from those years in this study because the general practices and needs have not changed significantly in the course of the years. Further, my prior experiences help with the contextualisation of this research.

I naturally needed the permission from the organisations that I wanted to observe because I opted for overt observation – personally, I regard it as more ethical, although I understand the reasoning of the advocates of covert observation. Before initiating the research work proper, I also requested the permission of the people who participated in the activities of the groups to be observed. No member of the groups objected; thus, the consent to incorporate my observations was given. I also requested the permission to use data from previous years; although I could not be entirely certain that all former members had received my request, I included some experiences predating this study.

Writing about memories from the past years is against many scholars' advice. Jorgensen (1989: 83), for instance, underlines the importance of immediate note-taking and warns that the human memory is undependable. Incorporating the observations from the past cannot be seen as an option recommended by Grönfors (2001: 134) who claims justifiably that the mere memory of the researcher does not suffice for providing accurate information. I agree with this principle as such; nevertheless, for the purposes of this study, I disagree since, as stated above, the observations from previous years – the principle used in the division of labour and methods of translating among other things – were general practices easy to remember, and I claim that the data is accurate.

Koskinen (2008: 52) defends incorporating memories to the research report, as she declares that "[o]ne way of taking advantage of previous personal experience is to actively engage in retrospection and reminiscence and to treat one's memories as an additional set of data". Therefore, I have included my memories, but they only cover matters that were easy to remember or to confirm. Whenever I was uncertain of something, it was not included at all. For that reason, the first year of my engagement to development co-operation projects is hardly represented in this study. Grönfors (2001: 136) also comments that previously made observations support new ones, whereas divergent observations catch one's attention. In my opinion, it would have been extremely difficult if not impossible to prevent my observations from previous years from having an influence on what kinds of observations I made and how I made them. What increases the validity of the past observations is that I observed similar practices before and after launching the deliberate observation and consequently, note taking. Hence, the observations are not based on mere vague images. I would rather say that the impressions that were formed prior to launching the conscious observation support the more recent findings. Therefore, I believe that the observations from previous years can be referred to in this study.

Even after choosing participant observation as one of my methods, it did not seem necessary to record in situ what people were saying or doing but rather to note what had been agreed on and what were the group's ways of working. Thus, no quotes are included in the findings of the participant observation process. I was often able to cross-check the tasks, for example, because they were often sent by e-mail after a meeting or sometimes even allocated via e-mail only. Taking notes at the meetings was not likely to change their natural flow since the participants often took notes in any case.

The issues that are raised in the findings display a subjective selection of data in the sense that not everything is recorded or incorporated in this thesis. The subjectivity is underlined especially in the memories from previous years, but researchers should, according to Grönfors (2001: 136), decide in any case what to log based on their subjective judgement. Grönfors (*ibid*.) adds that this kind of subjective selection is a sort of intuitive system, and when it comes to the observations from the previous years, my system was to record the established translation and communication practices that were easy to remember accurately.

Grönfors reminds (2001: 139) that the report on participant observation is a report on a personal experience, and the experience is based on the interaction between the researcher and the research subject. He believes that this personal touch should be preserved in the written report and in this way the authenticity, too. Choosing the subjective type of reporting resulted in the frequent use of the first person in this Master's thesis.

3.2.2 Design and execution of the questionnaire

A questionnaire was chosen as the main method of gathering data, but the question was what type of a questionnaire would suit this study best. The initial plan was to use mainly questions that would be open ended in order to avoid some of the problems of questionnaires, such as not offering suitable options for all respondents. Open ended questions first seemed to be the only option for this study because I considered that it would be difficult to prepare a questionnaire with a limited number of response options to choose from, as earlier research on this topic was scarce and consequently, virtually no hypotheses to test existed except for my own hypotheses. As the planning of the questionnaire proceeded, however, I noticed that many of the questions could, in fact, be multiple choice questions if the alternatives included one where respondents could fill in their reply. In the end, I succeeded in creating a variety of different types of questions and answers, as Gillham recommends (2000: 39).

Hence, I chose to use a semi-structured questionnaire with multiple choice questions whenever possible. The types of the responses varied between selected and specified ones. I chose not to use all the answer types that for example Gillham (2000:28–33) introduces because they did not seem suitable for the purposes of this questionnaire. Since I could not make use of any previous research that would have focused on this subject particularly, one of the challenges in planning this questionnaire was to decide which questions should be included. The website *KvantiMOTV* offered useful advice and examples in the section *Kyselylomakkeen laatiminen* which helped me to formulate the questionnaire both content- and layout-wise. The questionnaires *Eriarvoisuus Suomessa* (2009) and *Suomalaiset ja ympäristönsuojelu* 2000 (2000) provided me with further ideas on how to formulate the questionnaire and how to design the layout. The same sources helped me in drafting the necessary instructions on how to answer the questionnaire. Following the proposals of the webpage, I included additional advice to some questions.

There were four sections in the questionnaire, two of which featured subsections. The first section included what Gillham (2000:49) calls *subject descriptors*. They serve for receiving basic information on the organisation. I regarded the questions that were selected for this section to be the most important background information in addition to the information already available on the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland's list of organisations which receive the Ministry's development co-operation support (2011c). The second section aimed at mapping NGO's needs concerning written and oral communication in a foreign language or in several foreign languages. Section 2 was divided into two subsections: the first of them focused on foreign language communication in general, whereas the second subsection centred on the people performing the communication activities. The third section was divided into two in a similar manner, but the subject was translation instead of communication in foreign languages. Finally, the fourth section asked if the organisation or its partner organisation could be contacted again. Moreover, I left some space for comments on issues that the respondent might consider to be missing from the questionnaire or on other issues related to the questionnaire, as Gillham (2000: 35) suggests.

In developing the questionnaire, I benefitted greatly – as Gillham (2000) claimed – from piloting the questions and finally, from piloting the questionnaire. The initial versions of my questionnaire included questions that do not appear in the final version: some questions were omitted because the data that they could have provided was available from other sources, and other questions did not seem essential in the end. Moreover, the initial versions featured various sets of answers in order to discover the best-functioning alternatives, and based on the feedback, I selected the alternatives that would appear in the final questionnaire. This preliminary testing was put into practice several times by both laymen and experts of the domain echoing Gillham's (*ibid.* 35) recommendation. The experts were capable of reviewing not only the contents and the structure of the questionnaire but also the linguistic characteristics. This phase also helped to place the questions in a logical order while trying to apply the principle of commencing from the easy questions and proceeding to the more difficult ones – a principle named by many guidebooks on questionnaires and interviews, Gillham (2000:35).

The piloting proper was conducted by sending the questionnaire to people who were similar to the members of the actual sample – people working on development co-operation projects in NGOs – but not included in the sample proper. However, due to the tight schedule, I was not able to observe the respondents face to face during this phase as Gillham (*ibid.* 38) proposes, but carried out the piloting via electronic mail. Regardless of that, the feedback from the pre-piloting and piloting were extremely useful for avoiding some simple but potentially crucial errors.

After the first rounds of feedback for the questionnaire in the *Microsoft Office Word* processing software, I began to transpose the questionnaire to the *Webropol* software in order to launch the questionnaire on-line. When developing the questionnaire, I had decided to route the questions according to the principle explained by Gillham (*ibid.* 33–34) so that it would be possible to ask more specific questions without having to make the respondents read all the questions that did not concern their projects. This entailed that at some points of the questionnaire, the respondents would have been asked to answer the following question or to proceed to another question based on their previous answers. However, the *Webropol* software enabled me to use a *dynamic questionnaire* which offered the possibility of not having all questions visible for all respondents. To illustrate: after giving a certain answer to a certain question, the respondent jumps to another question determined by the author of the questionnaire and does not even see the questions in between. This function, nonetheless, requires the question which causes the jump to be on a different page than the question to which the respondent jumps. Therefore, on two occasions the questionnaire did not feature a jump because there was only one question that was answered if the reply to the previous question was “yes” and ignored if the reply was “no” or “don’t know”. For those occasions, the traditional routing was the more suitable option. The jump feature was, however, used for skipping an entire section (section 3) if it did not concern the respondent’s organisation.

When the first version of the questionnaire was finished, I asked some laymen for comments. After some modifications, I also asked experts on translation or NGO development co-operation to give their feedback. This was, in effect, the actual piloting of the questionnaire. In inviting people to participate in piloting the questionnaire, I followed Gillham’s advice (2000:42) and asked people who were similar to the people included in the sample. After the piloting, the questionnaire was ready to be sent to the NGOs.

The questionnaire had to be accompanied by a cover letter, which was included in the testing and piloting of the questionnaire proper, so it underwent the same rounds of feedback and revision. The instructions on KvantiMOTV also offered further advice on what should be included in the first follow-up letters and how much time should be reserved for answering. Gillham’s remarks (2000: 47) complemented this advice.

In the cover letter, I informed the respondents that I would later provide them with a synopsis of the research results to thank them for participating. The synopsis was planned to include rather general recommendations concerning translation and communication in the projects, as the respondent organisations represented a multitude of projects in very different countries. The English translation of the cover letter and the questionnaire are found in appendix 1.

As mentioned, the requests to answer the questionnaire were sent by electronic mail since electronic mail is a common communication channel for many NGOs. Moreover, electronic mail was inexpensive and easy to use in the study. The disadvantage of electronic mail and a questionnaire in general is that the response rate might be lower than, for instance, in phone interviews and consequently, the results may also be less reliable. Nevertheless, as indicated above, this study is mainly qualitative. Therefore, the rate is not the most significant factor in determining the reliability of the findings. Nevertheless, the aim was to have a response rate that exceeds 50%, as mentioned above. I estimated that timing was one of the determining factors when it comes to the response rates. I planned to send the questionnaire to the selected group during November since December is known to be a stressed month due to Christmas. Moreover, the first months of the year are likely to be a busy period for the organisations, as late spring is the deadline for applying for development co-operation project support from the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland and for submitting the annual reports.

The questionnaire was sent to the NGOs on 22nd November 2011. This was Tuesday, which is, according to Gillham (*ibid*. 46) a suitable day for sending questionnaires for organisations. Gillham's advice applies to mailing the questionnaire by traditional post but the justification – to have the questionnaires at their destination in time for the organisations to answer during the same week – applies even better as regards e-mail. There is a general agreement (see KvantiMOTV and Gillham 2000: 47–48) that a week is a sufficiently long response time for a questionnaire. Consequently, this was the time frame given to the organisations before sending the first follow-up.

The first follow-up letter to those organisations that had not yet answered the questionnaire was sent on Thursday 1st December 2011 giving the respondents an extra week. Gillham (2000: 47–48) recommends a second follow up; hence, a second reminder was sent on Thursday 8th December 2011 giving the respondents roughly one more week to reply. Moreover, I decided that I would accept possible late returns since I did not think that a difference of a few weeks would have had an impact on the contents of the responses.

It was originally planned that in the context of answering the questionnaire, the NGOs would also be requested to provide the contact information of their partner organisation(s) or of someone who could convey to the partner organisation(s) a message related to another questionnaire. This request was included in order to have some partner organisations in the developing countries answer a similar questionnaire from their point of view, and then compare the responses. Notwithstanding the high response rate of the questionnaire, only a few organisations agreed to deliver a message to their partner. Moreover, I estimated that the answers that I had received from the NGOs provided me with enough data. Hence, I decided to abandon the second questionnaire.

3.3 The NGOs under investigation

As has been stated above, participant observation was implemented in this study in two student organisations. Therefore, the observations comprise a case study that describes the practices and needs of two organisations that manage development co-operation projects. The questionnaire study, however, balanced the situation to some extent, since out of the 28 NGOs with an ongoing project at the time, chosen by employing random sampling, only one was a student organisation. In addition, the students of that organisation were from a university of applied sciences which, in Finland, is what is usually understood by different from university.

3.3.1 The NGOs under observation

Most NGOs have been established for other purposes than development co-operation; thus development co-operation projects are only supplementary activities for them. For example, the two student organisations I observed have numerous activities alongside the projects.

Within the National Union of University Students in Finland (SYL) as well as the Student Union of the University of Turku (TYY), there are designated people and groups who are in charge of the projects. The former organisation appoints members to its Development Co-operation Advisory Board (KENKKU) that manages development co-operation projects with SYL’s Development co-operation co-ordinator and with the member of SYL’s executive board responsible for development co-operation (National Union of University Students in Finland: 2011). KENKKU is divided into subgroups that see to the individual projects. I have participated in one of the subgroups working with the Guatemala project. Hence the observations in this study concern this group only. TYY has a particular Mexico group, a subgroup of TYY's Committee on Development Cooperation, that administers the project activities in Finland together with the project co-ordinator, with TYY's Financial Secretary and with the Secretary for International Affairs. To be more exact, during the first year of my participation, the project had a project secretary who received remuneration for being the person in charge of reporting. Since the autumn of 2010, the project secretary was replaced by a project co-ordinator working with the two Secretaries and the Mexico group, that is, the group of volunteers. I was a member of the Mexico group in 2009−2012, and served as the president of the group in 2010−2012. In the summer of 2012 I left the Mexico group to become the project co-ordinator.

Both groups observed, were asked for their consent via electronic mail. The consent was granted; ergo, the observations and prior experiences could be included in this study. The participants of the Guatemala group were students with diverse majors, but apart from me, no one studied translation and interpreting, nor did SYL's staff involved. The Mexico group consisted similarly of students majoring in different subjects but from the moment when I became involved in the project until July 2012, there were at least two students of translation actively involved, first as members of the group and later as employees. Contrary to Jorgensen's general recommendation, further information on, inter alia, the subjects' social status, gender and age will not be provided here because they are not relevant to this study, as the focus in not on the dynamics or interaction of the group but on the translation and communication needs and practices of the NGOs.

I already contemplated my own role in this study in section 3.1.1, which is why I will not elaborate on it here. It should perhaps be repeated that as a participant, I was both observing and being observed. With this in mind, the section moves on to describing the NGOs that received the questionnaire.

3.3.2 The recipients of the questionnaire

The NGOs who were to receive the questionnaire were selected by using random sampling. I took a sample of approximately 20% of the NGOs that receive funding for their development co-operation projects from the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland. Thus, I sent the questionnaire to every 5th organisation on the Ministry's list of NGOs that receive the project funding, or to a total of 35 organisations. The first organisation to be included in the group of informants was selected by drawing a number out of a hat, and from thereon, every 5th organisation was added to the list.

The contact information of the organisations that were selected could be found on-line. In most cases, it was possible to choose either the general e-mail address of each organisation or if the organisation lacked a general address, the address of the person responsible for the entire organisation, for development co-operation or for communications. In one case, I had to resort to sending a request for an e-mail address through the organisation's webpage, and once I could not contact the NGO at all since the telephone number provided on the website did not exist. The latter incident was connected to a problem of which I became aware only after having sent the cover letters and receiving a reply: One of the contacted organisations replied that they did not have a development co-operation project in 2011. It was only after this that I discovered that the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland's list of organisations which receive the Ministry's development co-operation support still included projects that had ended as early as in the year 2008. There were, in effect, altogether seven NGOs which did not receive support from the Ministry in 2011, amongst the 35 that I had contacted. Nevertheless, the changes in the sample were not considered as so substantial that it would have been necessary to select a new sample.

As NGOs were the recipients of the questionnaire, the cover letter included a statement that the questionnaire could be forwarded to the person responsible for the matters that the questionnaire concerned; joint answers were also possible. On the other hand, because the recipients were individual members of the organisations, it should be borne in mind that their perceptions of their NGO's work and practices might differ from the perceptions of their fellow members.

The cover letter was an important part of the questionnaire not only from the point of view of the researcher but also from the point of view of the potential respondents. As Gillham (2005: 12) and the section *Tutkittavien informointi* on the KvantiMOTV website note, those invited to reply to the research questionnaire should be so well informed that they can give their *informed consent*, that is, a consent based on information and the understanding of the consequences of participating. Hence, the cover letter had two functions: first, to convince the respondents to answer, and second, to convince them to do so without deceiving them for example by providing incorrect information.

In addition to selecting the NGOs that were to receive the questionnaire, I asked some people to help me pilot the questions and the questionnaire. In choosing these people, I followed Gillham's advice (2000: 35–36, 42–43): First, those who participated in piloting the questions were ordinary people able to comment, for instance, on the clarity of the questions from the point of view of someone who does not have any previous expert knowledge of the subject. The ordinary people were understandably not fully competent in analysing the contents of the questionnaire. Therefore after this phase, it was necessary to consult experts: I then involved language experts who did not have any substance information in this particular field and finally, I had feedback from experts on development co-operation projects. I used similar types of people in a similar order for the actual piloting of the questionnaire. Thus, the final comments before sending the cover letters came from people who were involved in the development co-operation projects of NGOs but were not included in the sample.

3.4 Analysing the observations and the questionnaire responses

This section describes how the observations and responses to the questionnaire were analysed. As already mentioned in this section, one of the methods of this research was theory-driven analysis. I explained above how theory, in this case my preconceptions, influenced the questions that were included in the questionnaire, for example. Keeping in mind and not repeating what was already explained, this subsection focuses on lower level methods of analysis. The methods applied for analysing the observations and the questionnaire responses naturally differ from each other, but the analyses also share common characteristics.

Strictly speaking, Rubin and Rubin (1995) instruct researchers on how to analyse qualitative interviews, but their methods of analysis share some features with the methods used in analysing questionnaires and observations. The features of analysing qualitative interviews that were convenient for this study are therefore described below. Rubin and Rubin (*ibid.* 224−229) advise the researcher to sort and summarize the data in an open, clear and fair way without omitting anything of importance and without adding one's own emphasis. They further invite researchers to ask if some information is missing from the data and why. Could it be that something is considered self-evident? They also suggest that the data be sorted according to the importance that respondents attach to issues. Sorting, sifting, constructing and reconstructing are means that Jorgensen (1989: 110) also recommends. For instance, sifting occurs quite naturally, in my opinion, when a researcher tries to present the results in a logical order.

Rubin and Rubin (1995: 224−229) further suggest that the researcher analyse similarities and differences within the data collected. By comparing the replies to this questionnaire, researchers could try to see whether there are NGOs which respond similarly to certain questions and in view of the replies, seem to have common characteristics. Comparing was also mentioned by Jorgensen (1989:108−109), who suggests that researchers should write about similarities and differences. Rubin and Rubin (1995: 224−229) encourage the researcher to synthesize divergent versions of the same issue or to separate differing explanations of the same concept or theme. At the same time, researchers should weigh the reliability of the differing data and create their proper interpretation of the matter. The weighing is based on factors, such as whether the respondent has first-hand experience and whether the view is biased. Finally, Rubin and Rubin remind that it is very important to carefully check the data in order to ensure a high level of accuracy, consistency and credibility. I believe that the relevance of checking the data is emphasized when it comes to my personal observations. Therefore, I sent the text including the observations to a representative of both organisations and made the texts available for other people involved, too.

3.4.1 Methods of analysing the observations

As regards participant observation in particular, Grönfors (2001) points out that notes are already a subjective collection of what the researcher considers to be important; thus, a part of the analysis already occurs at the phase where the researcher records data. This is particularly true as regards the observations presented in this thesis since the only observations that were preserved in writing were on events or issues that I presumed to be somehow noteworthy when they occurred.

As I mentioned above, Jorgensen's (1989: 4−11) ideas about the different ways of doing participant observation encouraged me to present and note only some matters instead of attempting to write everything down. I might otherwise have endeavoured to describe specific events on specific days, which would be less useful for the purposes this study. Since I chose not to, this study cannot be portrayed as an in-depth case study. An in-depth case study would have been too pervasive for this Master's thesis. The observations resemble more an introduction to two real life examples.

3.4.2 Interpreting the results of the questionnaire study

Similarly to the observations, the main method of analysing the questionnaire responses was descriptive analysis. To be more explicit, descriptive analysis means that priority was given to presenting the NGO's answers. The answers that the informants provided were so concise and pertinent that only few of the comments are not presented below, all others are included.

As mentioned above, quantitative analysis was applied to the data as well, which was feasible thanks to the Webropol software and to the high response rate. Twenty organisations responded, and as the questionnaire was originally sent to 35 organisations, the response rate was approximately 57%, which exceeds the minimum that Gillham (2000:48) set at 50% as was explained in subsection 3.1.4 The rate is even higher if we take into consideration that since the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland website included information on NGOs that no longer had ongoing projects, seven organisations should not even have received the cover letter. Thus, if we only count the number of organisations which did receive government support, the response rate is over 71%. This is an extremely high response rate, and shows that the study avoided one of the risks of questionnaire studies.

Using the software Webropol enables easy access to statistics in a graphical form. As the software calculated automatically how many respondents had chosen each alternative, no manual work was required. Some charts presenting the prevalence of different options have been appended to the text to help the reader to gain a picture of how many respondents chose the same alternatives when responding to multiple-choice questions.

Excluding the Webropol- software, computer assisted analysis would have been too expensive for the purposes of this study, and compared to the quantity of the data, it would have taken too much time to learn to master the analysis software. Gillham (2005: 146) states that it would probably not be worth the cost and time to acquire analysis software for less than 30 transcripts. Moreover, the data for this study was mostly retrieved from questionnaires with relatively few open questions. Further, as Grönfors (2001: 137) argues, people might never be able to develop software for qualitative research that would match the level of the quantitative analysis software because of the nature of the analysis. Hence, the researcher's subjective judgement on what is important remains the principal method of analysing qualitative data. Gillham's opinion (2005: 127) is in accordance with this approach, as Gillham argues that when researchers analyse their data, they decide subjectively upon what is significant. Rubin and Rubin (1995: 243) agree that deliberative analysis is required for qualitative theory building, and they fear that the researcher will use thoughtful analysis less often when qualitative data analysis programmes become easier to use. In short, the researcher's reflection and judgement were estimated to be the most suitable tools of analysis for this thesis.

Rubin and Rubin (1995: 229) underline that researchers have to ensure that all respondents are represented equally when presenting the findings. Gillham (2005: 162) echoes their view by stressing the "balance of selected quotations". As explained above, the respondents are not quoted directly in this thesis because the responses were written originally in Finnish. Some pertinent responses were, however, translated into English and then incorporated into this thesis.

The different methodologies used in this study have been displayed extensively in this section. Their advantages and weaknesses were also briefly discussed citing a range of academics who have written extensively on methodologies. In addition, I reflected my double role as a researcher and a subject of this research. After the lengthy methodological discussion, we proceed to examine the data.

4 Results and analysis

This section presents the results of the questionnaire study and the researcher's observations from those activities of two development co-operation projects that took place in Finland. The latter are examined both descriptively and analytically because the processes of analysis and observation were intertwined in the sense that the observations were continuously analyzed already before recording them in a written form. The results of the former are presented first in a descriptive manner and then examined in a more analytical way.

4.1 Observations from TYY's project in Mexico and from SYL's project in Guatemala

The observations from the Student Union of the University of Turku's project in Mexico extend over a longer period in time than those from the National Union of University Students in Finland's project in Guatemala, although I was already volunteering for both projects when participant observation was adopted as one of the methodologies of this study. As explained above, this is due to the fact that the researcher's involvement in the former project began as early as the beginning of 2009, while the Guatemala project was included in the participant observation study soon after I joined the group managing the project. For this reason, the observations of the Mexico project are also more numerous. The observations are not described in a chronological order since many of them occurred simultaneously and repeatedly. The next subsection will present the observations from the Mexico co-operation describing and analysing the selected aspects of the project.

4.1.1 TYY's project in Mexico

As explained above, my participating in the development co-operation projects gave rise to the idea of conducting this type of research. My first impressions of development co-operation project management by NGOs date back to 2008, but those experiences will not be described here because my impressions may no longer be accurate. After first learning about the project, it took some time before I begun to participate in its management. In the spring of 2009, we collectively translated from Spanish into Finnish a report that was written by the local partner organisation in Mexico and then revised according to the Finnish partner's comments. The partner organisation did not, in other words, write the report alone since it had received instructions on how to write the report and since the Finns sent comments and questions to help the partner rewrite some parts of the report. Some revision was required to ensure that the contents corresponded to the demands and recommendations of the Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs. During the same spring, TYY and the local partner also compiled a project plan for a new three-year project. The same process of making comments and translating the document from Spanish into Finnish was repeated here. In effect, the same process was repeated each time when working with documents that were to be delivered to the Ministry.

TYY instructed the partner in Mexico on how to write the documents that were to be sent to TYY. As a matter of fact, the Finns even phrased a slogan – *corto, coherente y conciso* – that encouraged the people at AJAGI to write in a short, coherent and concise fashion. The instructions were based on previous experience; the Finns recognised major cultural differences in text production. The Finnish organisation hoped to alter the style in which the Mexican organisation wrote reports submitted to the Finnish NGO and ultimately to the Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs. The goal was to ease TYY's workload in the revision and translation process.

The aim of commenting on and rewriting the texts in Spanish was to produce equivalent texts in Finnish and in Spanish. At one point, some people wondered whether this would be possible at all because the writing styles differed so fundamentally. It would be easy to enter into a profound philosophical discussion on the nature of translation in this context. One could ask, for example, whether equivalence in this context means that sentences are translated meaning by meaning or that the translation communicates the overall meaning of the text. Functional equivalence, for instance, could probably be applied to translating many reports, but in some cases, modifying the text in the course of the translation process can produce so substantial changes that it can no longer be indicated that the alterations result from following the principles of functional equivalency. It can further be questioned if equivalence is needed at all.

One of the special characteristics of the translation process was that the translations had a higher status than the source texts because the source text did not appear anywhere or serve any other purpose – the text that mattered was the Finnish translation to be submitted to the Ministry for Foreign Affairs. Hence, the translations were higher in the hierarchy of the texts, and the people translating were consequently allowed to phrase the target text quite freely provided that their translations did not change the facts presented in the source text. What made the rewriting even easier was that, on the one hand, the people in Finland could ask the Mexican partner if something was unclear and, on the other hand, the Finns were familiar with the topic of the texts, albeit some members knew more about it than others.

A translator's level of knowledge of the project also seemed to be linked to how much the project translators edited the target text, but I did not conduct any separate research on this aspect. Consequently, I cannot show that this tendency exists, although it seems logical on the basis of my own experiences of translating the project documents. I recall that at first, translating as a newcomer, I followed more closely the individual choice of words and attempted to make everything match with the source text in terms of contents at the paragraph level. By contrast, in spring of 2012, I even ignored entire sentences because I concluded that they would not be of any interest to the Ministry or I moved a paragraph into a different context, under a point which was better associated with the information it contained. Notwithstanding the possible connection between the members' familiarity with the project and the likelihood that they would alter the text, another factor possibly influencing translation style was that my translation expertise has increased over the years.

Most translations for TYY's projects were done collectively. As there were many people involved – some more familiar with the project than others – it was possible to keep some words, phrases or even paragraphs in their source language form until someone with more experience translated them or until the partner in Mexico was asked to explain what the item meant. There were usually some members in the Mexico group who did not know Spanish fluently enough in order to take part in the translation, but they were typically requested to proofread the translations in Finnish and to edit them. Others assisted with terminology if they had specialised in the central themes of the project. Since the autumn of 2010, it was the co-ordinator, the Secretary for International Affairs of TYY or the president of the Mexico group, who assigned different sections of the documents to one, two or three members of the group.

Nevertheless, those with more knowledge helped the others, and the members revised each other's texts.

To facilitate the translation process, the members of the group could access glossaries which contained phrases or words in Spanish with their Finnish equivalents. The glossaries were compiled by the project participants, and they featured terms and phrases from previously translated project documents. The members were also encouraged to seek information from previous project documents. After a few years, the Mexico group stopped compiling glossaries because seeking translations from the source and target texts seemed less time-consuming. Previous material did not only help the members to understand the source texts better, but familiarising oneself with the contents and vocabulary of the previous translations also enhanced the consistency of new translations, as it was then more likely that certain phrases or terms would be always translated in the same way.

Soon after joining the translation crew, I proposed that the Mexico group use a translation memory because in the three-year-projects, the annual reports were similar and the same terms were repeated in many sections of the texts. The translation memory would also have improved internal cohesion and accelerated the translation process. This idea was discarded for a number of reasons. First, no one from the Mexico group had translation memory software on their computer at home. Second, previous texts were so numerous that it would have required a great deal of time and effort – two resources that were scarce – to align them. Third, many people participated in translating the texts, so it would have been difficult to arrange the use of the translation memory with the financial resources available. To be more explicit, the organisation could not afford purchasing several licences.

Despite the Mexico group's prevalent translation practice that was based on co-operation and collective work, some texts were translated by individuals. In the end of 2010, a member of the Mexico group and I translated project brochures into Swedish and into English respectively. The other member had no translator training but majored in Nordic philology. As for the communication, the e-mail correspondence with the partner NGO took place in Spanish throughout the entire year. In some cases, for instance, when introducing new members of the group, parts of e-mails were first written in Finnish and then translated into Spanish, because not all the members of the group knew Spanish. However, the only exception to sending documents in Spanish to the partner was the co-operation contract that was, in addition to Spanish, written and sent in English.

As already mentioned, some of those involved in the project had studied translation, but I cannot define to what extent this influenced the translation practices in the project. The opinions and ideas of the students of translation were certainly taken into account, and they also tried to help the other students to translate the texts, for instance, by instructing the other students to consult previous reports and plans. Thanks to the expertise within the group of volunteers and employees actively participating in the project, the translation crew at TYY was sensitive to noticing possible problems in the translation process. Therefore, it was also an environment which provided the observer with many stimuli.

4.1.2 SYL’s project in Guatemala

As for the SYL’s Guatemala project, the translation practices are described briefly because the participant observation did not produce a great number of observations and because many of the observations were similar to those in the Mexico project. During most of the time between becoming a member of the Guatemala group and finishing the participant observation, the Guatemala co-operation was in a less active phase in Finland, which is the main reason for obtaining less data on the Guatemala project. In 2011, SYL did not have a project in Guatemala, which is why there was not much to translate either in the autumn of 2011. Moreover, SYL’s Development co-operation co-ordinator was the person to contact SYL’s partner organisations, so the actual members of the Guatemala group were not in direct contact with the partner organisation.

During spring 2012, the Guatemala group translated questions for the interim report into Spanish. The questions were to be sent to the partner organisation in Guatemala to provide a framing for the interim report. The members of the group each translated a set of questions. I was the only person studying translation and interpreting and did not make any proposals on how to proceed, but the group quickly reached an agreement that the contents of the text were more important than the wordings, especially since the group had been the one to phrase the questions in Finnish in the first place. The partner was instructed to write short, concrete and clear responses.

The group also translated texts introducing SYL in the spring of 2012. They were intended to be published on SYL's webpage and were addressed first and foremost to the partner organisation in Guatemala. This time, too, the group divided the text into smaller sections and assigned the sections to individual group members. I expressed my concern over the quality of the translation because no one from the Guatemala group was a native Spanish speaker, but since we did not have sufficient financial resources to have the text revised, the group had to trust the revision of the member who had the best language skills in Spanish. In the end, it was decided that the texts should not be published at all, as the level of the language revision was insufficient and as complementing the website with the Spanish language version would have required a great deal of work by SYL's Development co-operation co-ordinator.

I had the opportunity of accompanying SYL's Development co-operation co-ordinator on a monitoring trip to Guatemala in October–November 2012. Both of us were fluent in Spanish, so there were no major problems in communicating with the project partner or other stakeholders. Without sufficient knowledge of the Spanish language, communication would have been difficult, and an interpreter might have been necessary. In any case, the monitoring trip revealed how useful it can be to visit the projects sites and learn to know the project more thoroughly in order to be able to translate project documents more easily and accurately. Visiting the target sites and speaking with the beneficiaries and other local people helps to understand many matters better. To illustrate: prior to the trip, SYL received an interim report from Guatemala, where the project partner explained that avocado seedlings where placed in 'bolsas', that is, in bags. It was only when seeing in situ the seedlings in the plastic bags that reminded small refuse sacks that I understood what the 'bag' actually referred to.

Before proceeding to other matters, I will briefly describe the practices of SYL's other projects in order to provide a more comprehensive picture of the translation in SYL's development co-operation projects. Although I was only a member of the Guatemala group, I am also familiar with the other projects because all members of KENKKU have common meetings approximately once a month during the semester, and the members have a joint mailing list. No official documents of the other projects are translated into Finnish or in Finland because the language of mutual co-operation in those projects is English. As explained in section 2.2, the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland accepts reports and project plans in English. Some texts are translated into Finnish for disseminating information by the project groups in Finland. The groups also translate into English or write comments and other texts in English for the project partner. As for disseminating information, the person to translate texts into English has since October 2012 been SYL's in-house translator, who also translates into Swedish. Before employing an in-house translator, SYL purchased from the private markets individual English translations of some texts for disseminating information about SYL's projects.

After looking at translation practices and needs in the development co-operation projects of two NGO, we move on to examine the projects from a broader perspective. In what follows, the data obtained from the questionnaire study are presented and analysed in more detail.

4.2 Questionnaire

As explained in section 3.2.2, the questionnaire was divided into different sections. For the sake of clarity, this subsection will follow the same division to some extent. Thus, this subsection begins with a few general remarks on the findings and then moves on to examine first the background information on the NGOs, second the responses to the communication section of the questionnaire and third, the replies to the translation section. The final section of the questionnaire is described last, and there the focus is on the open comments of the respondents.

Before proceeding to the background information, it is important to clarify a few general points. The first responses arrived a few days after inviting the NGOs to answer the questionnaire, and I read through the answers that I received. I then discovered that the questionnaire did not function entirely as I had intended: in question 13 it was supposed to be possible to choose only one answer but in reality, the respondent was able to choose more. If the respondent chose several options, the jump function of the alternative *no, only communication directly in the target language is included* took the respondent to question 28 even if the respondent had also chosen the alternative *yes, translation is included*. The latter alternative was supposed to guide the respondent to the fourteenth question. I then realised that question 13 was unclear and was not accompanied by sufficient instructions. Not being able to correct misunderstandings is mentioned as one of disadvantages of questionnaires by Gillham (2000: 10), of which this particular response was a typical example. Nevertheless, the *Webropol* software enabled me to make small modifications to the questionnaire. Thus, I added to question 13 a clarification where I asked the respondents to choose only one alternative. I also specified that it was already presumed in the alternative *yes, translation is included* that the NGO had to communicate in one or more foreign languages.

However, this error had already led to some consequences: two organisations did not answer the questions of the translation section, although the section would have concerned them. I soon asked them to answer a separate but an otherwise identical translation section, but I did not receive any reply. Hence, some potentially significant information might be missing, but I trust that some tendencies appear from the answers of the remaining organisations as well. As information derived from the questionnaire answers is provided by the respondents, its validity is to be assessed accordingly.

The questionnaire was perhaps too long or the respondents felt that they were asked the same questions twice because at the end of the questionnaire, the response rates dropped slightly in some questions. Further, one respondent reported that the questions did not suit their organisation very well. This respondent did not answer questions 5, 6, 10, 12, 14, 15 and 18−27, and also commented that the estimated time for filling in the questionnaire was incorrect. I will return to these issues at the end of this subsection.

To clarify, the term *project translator* refers in this thesis to the translators who translate texts related to development co-operation projects. This is distinguished from other professional or trained translators because some of the project translators may be professional translators, while others could be people who have only translated in the context the development co-operation project they are involved in.

In addition, it should be noted that the questionnaire was in Finnish and the respondents filled it in likewise in Finnish. Consequently, there are no original direct quotations in this study. The contents of the comments that appear in this study were translated into English with the aim of preserving the relevant expressions as close to the original comments as possible. Hence, many comments attempt to imitate quotes. This may have resulted in some expressions which seem strange in English.

The last remark before proceeding to the actual findings: although all questions were also analysed on a deeper level in order to find possible connections between different factors and to be able to categorize the organisations, the deeper analysis of all questions is not presented since the questionnaire responses did not always reveal any linking factors. Moreover, it was necessary to categorise the organisations on the basis of only a few factors since it would have required too much time to identify and analyse the characteristics of twenty NGOs in great detail.

4.2.1 Background information

Altogether, 20 NGOs answered the questionnaire. Question 2 revealed just how diverse the NGOs were: the number of full-time employees varied from 0 to 700 according to the respondents. The average number of full-time employees would not be very informative because the range was so wide. Therefore, the numbers of employees are better presented in categories. Most of the organisations – ten to be more exact – had less than fifty employees. One had seventy, and another organisation 109 employees, whereas three NGOs had approximately 250–330 full-time employees. The largest organisation had 700 employees. Two NGOs had no full-time employees, while two had not indicated any number. As these two organisations had, however, specified their number of volunteers, I presumed that they had no full-time employees. What increases the reliability of the reported numbers is that the figures were mostly very exact, such as 32 or 3.

The number of part-time employees varied from 0 to 84. Instead of providing an average, it is more feasible to divide the organizations into the following categories: The number of part-time employees in most respondent organisations (10) ranged from one to ten. In three NGOs, the corresponding figure varied between twenty and fifty, while one organisation had 84 part-time employees. Two organisations had no part-time employees at all. Four organisations did not indicate the number of part-time employees in their NGO, but as they had reported a number of their employees and/or volunteers, I presume that the empty box meant they had no part-time employees. The respondents seemed well-informed about the number of their part-time employees as well because most of the reported figures were very accurate, similarly to those of full-time employees.

As for the volunteers, one organisation replied that there were no volunteers in the organisation, whereas another respondent stated that their organisation had 26 000 volunteers. It is not possible to provide the reader with an average because a few respondents estimated in words how many volunteers they have. In addition, nine NGOs had 2−12 volunteers. Two respondents reported that their NGO had dozens of volunteers while another respondent estimated that they had approximately one hundred volunteers. One NGO that did not seem to fit into any category since it had 3700 volunteers. In total, seventeen respondents provided information on the number of volunteers. Similarly to the employees, I assumed that there were no volunteers in the three NGOs which had left this item blank.

Like in question 2, some respondents left either the volunteer, employee or part-time employee box empty. The assumption was that the number was zero because the respondents had given numbers for at least one of the three types of roles as stated. In order to avoid this uncertainty, the respondents should have been instructed to write 0 if they had no one in the category in question. With no explicit comment by the respondents, it is not certain there really were no employees or volunteers even though the employee or volunteer box was left blank.

Despite this uncertainty, I combined the information on the numbers of employees and volunteers with the assumed zeroes. In this way, the NGOs could be organised differently into four categories based on connections found between the replies to certain questions. The categories are simplified as they take into account mainly the number of employees; the number of volunteers varied so markedly and seemed to have so little effect on the translation and communication practices that the total number of categories would have been unreasonably high. The categories formed were **large NGOs**, **medium-size NGOs**, **relatively small NGOs** and **small, voluntary NGOs**. The headings of these categories should not be misconstrued as referring to the actual size of the NGOs, measured, for example, by their membership or financial resources.

In this context, size refers to the number of employees as follows: Organisations with more than a hundred full-time employees were considered as large NGOs, and when part-time employees were included, the number of all employees was higher than 190 in all of the five NGOs in this category. Medium-size NGOs had more than ten full-time employees but less than a hundred, and possibly some part-time employees or volunteers. The minimum total number of employees was 17 in the six organisations grouped in this category. In the category of relatively small NGOs, which consisted of six organisations, the NGOs had less than 10 full-time employees and less than 3 part-time employees. However, each NGO had at least one employee. The final category of small, voluntary NGOs contained three NGOs with no employees (full- or part-time) and the maximum number of volunteers was twelve.

All organisations except one answered question 3. The question inquired about the self-financing share of the organisations. Only one organisation had less than 3000 euro or, in the case of a project for the disabled, less than 1500 euro for self-financing. More than 3000 or 1500 euro was indicated for self-financing in 14 projects. Three organisations replied that some of their projects included more than 3000 or 1500 euro and other projects less. One respondent did not know their share of self-financing. The relative sizes of the categories reflecting the self-financing shares are also presented in diagram 1 below.

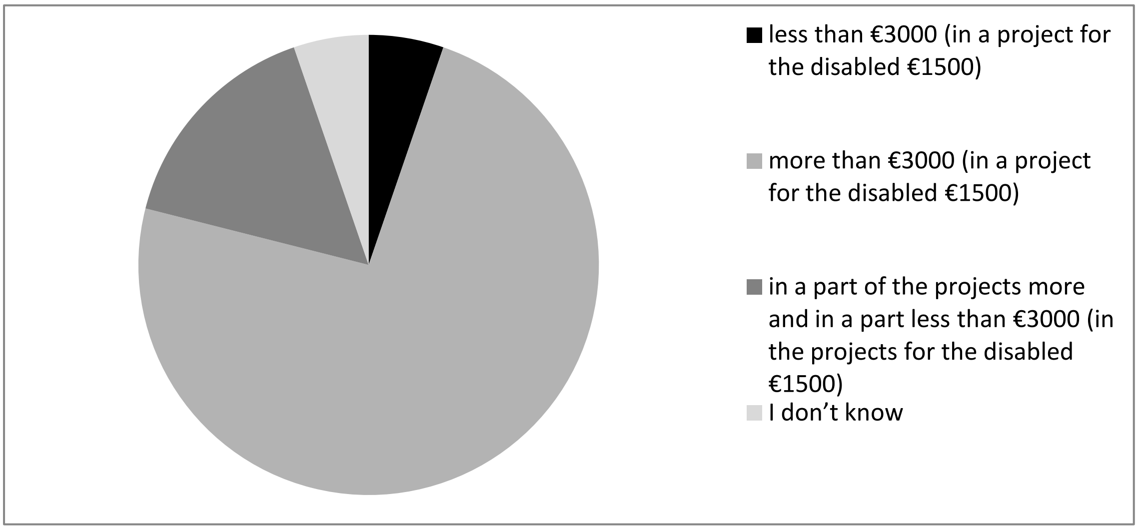

Diagram 1. Self-financing shares of the development co-operation projects of NGOs.

A deeper analysis of the questionnaire data did not reveal any connections between the self-financing share and other factors. Nonetheless, question 2 serves another purpose as well. By asking the amount of self-financing in the projects, I also acquired an indication of the amount of other financing: The Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs demands that the self-financing share of a development co-operation project is at least 15% and in the case of projects for the disabled, 7.5%. Thus, the organisations whose budget (including the Ministry's support) was at least 20 000 euro should have had a self-financing share of at least 3 000 euro. The reason for including this limit in the questionnaire was that in projects where the total budget was 20 000 euro or more, the NGOs needed to include slightly different details in their project reports and in the project plans than those NGOs whose project budgets are less than 20 000 euro. As a part of the reforms in 2012, a different limit was set, but it did not affect the results based on this questionnaire because they were obtained prior to the reform.

Nonetheless, this checking procedure does not necessarily apply to projects where the budget which includes the Ministry's support is less than 20 000 euro because their self-financing share can be higher than 3 000 euro. This is due to the fact that the Ministry sets no cap for the self-financing share, only the minimum. To illustrate: if an NGO has a project with the total budget of 10 000 euro, they would be able to ask for 5 000 euro from the Ministry even if they would have provided the project with another 5 000 euro by themselves. However, with a self-financing of 5 000 euro, they would technically be allowed to apply for funding for a project with a total of circa 33 333 euro.

Based on the replies to the questionnaire study, one of the organisations might, in fact, have a similar situation to the one described above. Looking back, this NGO's share of self-financing would have enabled them to have a project of more than 20 000 euro but they had nevertheless opted for a total budget of less than that amount. Most respondents seemed to place their projects into the correct categories when viewed in the light of the information provided by the Ministry's website. However, one respondent indicated that their project's self-financing share was less than 3 000 euro, although that should not have been possible according to the total budget. Two respondents stated that they had some projects with more than 3 000 euro of self-financing and other projects with less than 3 000 euro, but all their shares ought to have been higher than 3 000 in order to correspond to the total budgets displayed at the Ministry's website.

The inaccuracies in the figures might have arisen from misunderstandings: the respondents might not have remembered, for instance, that the questions concerned only projects that receive funding from the Ministry for Foreign Affairs. To avoid this, it might have been necessary to remind all respondents of the framework of the questionnaire in the context of this particular question. Another possibility is that people who are informed about translation and communication issues are not acquainted with the finances of the projects. Other possible reasons will not be speculated here; next, the analysis shifts to communication in foreign languages.

4.2.2 Communication in foreign languages

Question 4 focused on the variety of languages used in project work. All organisations mentioned English and most of them Finnish as the languages they use regularly. The prevalence of English is most likely due to the fact that it is one of the three languages that the Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland accepts as a language of reports and applications. It is also the only amongst the three that is widely spoken in recipient countries. In fact, English is so widely spoken around the world that even without the status provided by the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, it could be the language of choice for co-operation in many projects. There were, however, some NGOs that used other languages regularly as well. The languages that were mentioned were Spanish, French, Portuguese, Chinese, Swedish and Somali.

This question also inquired about languages that were needed occasionally in the projects. The occasionally used languages also included French and Portuguese, and Russian was similarly specified as an occasionally used language by two organisations. In addition to these, in one NGO the list of occasionally used languages included languages that are more exotic to most Finns, namely Pemba, Swahili and Khmer. The respondent added that 'there could be other languages as well'[1]. One respondent explained that 'all the languages of their 30 countries of co-operation' are occasionally needed. In a similar vein, 'all local languages corresponding to the language of each [recipient] country' were used occasionally by one organisation. Sign language was also mentioned by one NGO.

Some connections between the size (measured by the number of employees) and the use of languages seemed to exist since the NGOs that tended to use foreign languages in addition to English were mostly either large or middle-size. However, not all large or middle-size organisations used other languages. By contrast, two smaller organisations also used foreign languages apart from English: a relatively small student organisation, which occasionally used a small local language, and a small volunteer organisation

[1] Single quotation marks appear in this section to indicate that the extract of text is a translation of a quote.

where some expatriates of the recipient country volunteered, and thereby naturally used their mother tongue.

Thus, at least English appears to be very commonly used by the NGOs, and a range of other languages are needed in some projects. However, or perhaps thanks to using English, only two respondents out of 19 considered communication in foreign languages to entail relatively much work in the administration of their projects, whereas 17 regarded that it did not.

In question 6, the organisations were asked to think about elements in foreign language communication that they regarded as the most challenging. In total, 18 respondents answered the question. Of listed alternatives, three respondents chose *understanding*[2] and another three *producing text* as the most challenging task. Two NGOs considered that *finding the people with sufficient knowledge and skills* was the most difficult element.

Those respondents who did not find any of the listed alternatives to be the most challenging element were asked to describe the challenging elements in writing. Half of the respondents to this question answered the question in this way. Three of them reported that communication in foreign languages did not cause problems for their organisation. Thus, a new category seems to emerge from their written answers. This should, in fact, have been one of the given alternatives in the first place. On the other hand, another written answer could actually be integrated into the existing category of the alternative *finding the people with sufficient knowledge and skills* because the respondent stated that the most arduous task was ‘to find suitable and competent translators’. Other most challenging elements are listed as follows:

- ‘communicating with the beneficiaries when travelling in the target area’
- ‘accustoming new personnel to work in English’
- ‘translating English-Finnish due to structural differences’
- ‘having to translate text into Finnish or sometimes into English from Somali’
- ‘composing formal letters in the British style’, and

[2] Italics are used in this section to mark the questions and response choices that the author of this study had formulated for the questionnaire and translated into English.

- the fact that ‘the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland does not have forms in French’, which ‘makes it more difficult for the partner in the South’ to fill them in

The penultimate item of the list could, in effect, be placed in the category of challenges with *producing text*.

Question 7 asked *how many people typically participate in communicating in one or more foreign languages in the project work of your NGO*. The majority of the respondents (13) stated that in their organisation, two, three or four persons communicated in foreign languages in the context of the projects. More than seven persons was the second most common response with five organisations. One respondent answered from five to seven and another replied that in their organisation only one person participated in translation or foreign language communication. The distribution of the responses is presented graphically in diagram 2 below.

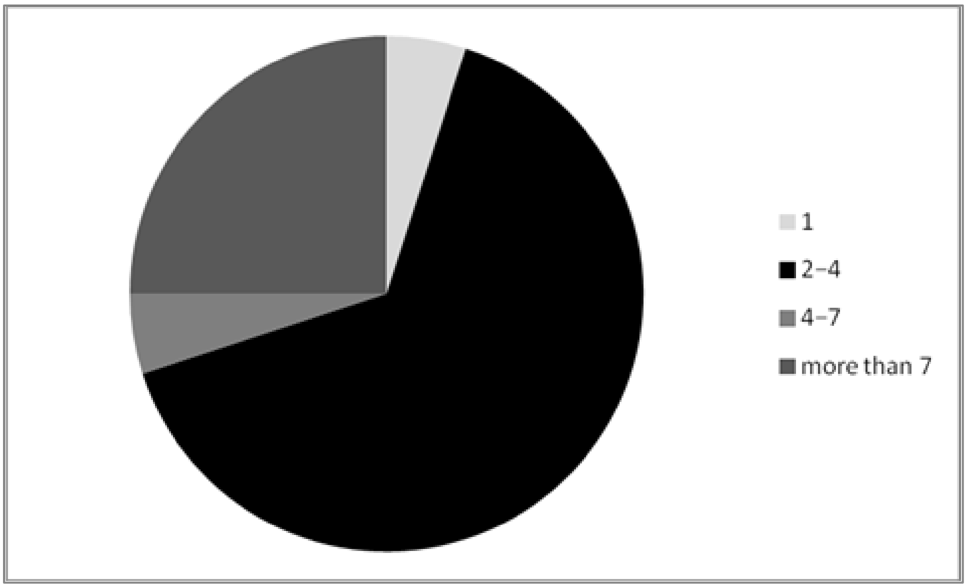

Diagram 2. The number of people who, in the context of project work, participate in communicating in foreign languages. The diagram sectors display proportionally in how many NGOs a certain number of people dealt with communication. The numbers beside the colour-codes indicate how many people participated in communication within an individual NGO in each category.

The only organisation to have typically one person working with communication was a small volunteer organisation presumably with no employees and few volunteers. On the other hand, almost all of the organisations with more than seven persons participating in the communication were NGOs which reported a high number of employees. The smallest of these organisations had 45 full-time employees. Nonetheless, there was also one NGO with 270 employees where only 2−4 persons were reported to take part in project communication.

The respondents were requested to report on the overall roles of the person or persons in the organisation. All of the twenty respondent NGOs placed their communicating members in one or more categories. Most organisations – sixteen altogether – named *hired project employees* as a group of people attending to communication in foreign languages. This seems quite natural, as a hired project employee is most likely at least partly responsible for communicating with the project partner since this communication is a crucial part of the project. Yet, as can be seen from diagram 3 below, many of the organisations identified other types of participants as well. *Volunteers who also participate in other project work* were the second most common group responsible for communication in foreign languages, although they were involved in the communication in notably fewer NGOs, that is, in seven organisations. A *hired professional translator* worked in four respondent NGOs, and a *hired expert in languages or communication* in three organisations.

Thus, it can be stated that, in addition to the people who are involved in the so called typical project management, there are also many hired employees who specialise in language-related professions. Nonetheless, only two organisations reported using a *volunteer translator*, while none of the organisations had a *volunteer* who was *expert in languages or communication* and no organisation used a *volunteer translator network*.

Three NGOs had also chosen the alternative *other* but their specifications are mostly categorizable into the listed alternatives. Had the alternatives been clearer, the respondents might have been able to place their people there themselves. One respondent wrote that the person responsible for the foreign language communication was their ‘project co-ordinator’; thus, the co-ordinator fits one or the other of the two most popular categories of this question depending on whether the project co-ordinator was an employee or a volunteer. Another respondent elaborated that ‘professional translators translate official documents, such as the strategy of the organisation, the development co-operation programme, ethical guidelines and agreements’. The third respondent named ‘the president of the NGO’ and ‘the treasurer’ as the persons responsible for communication.

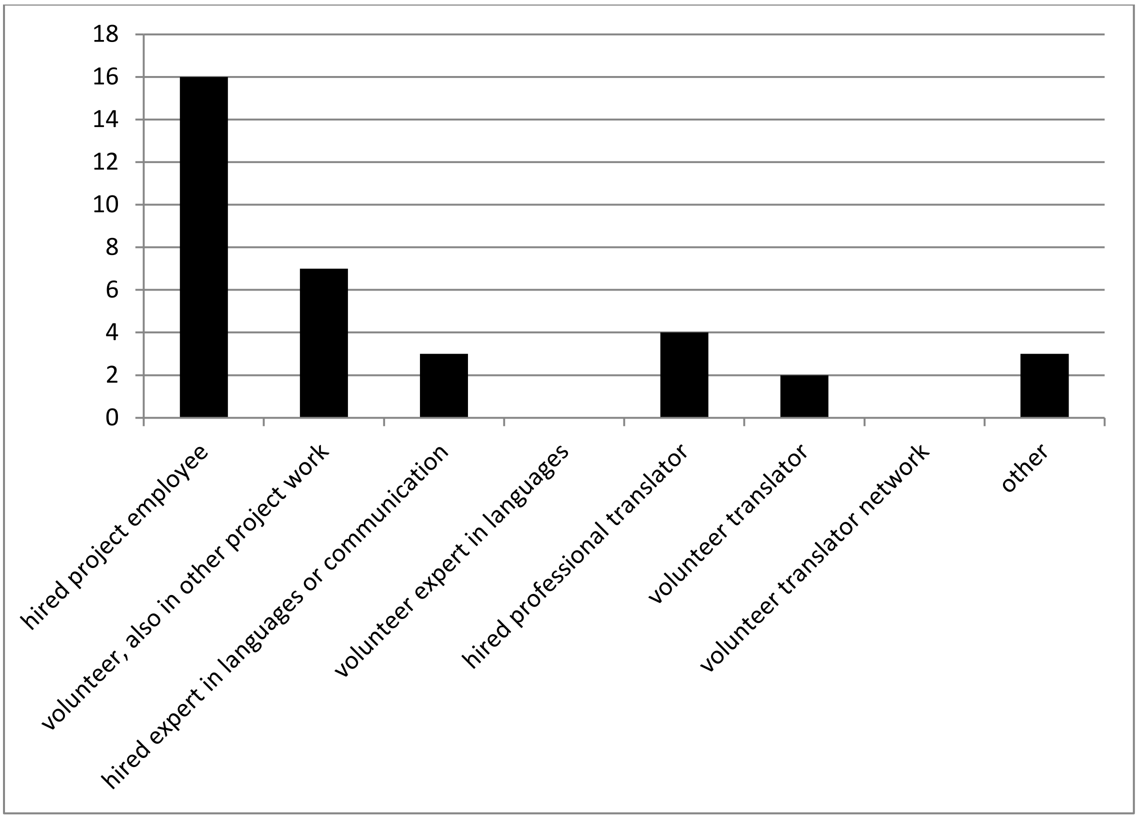

Diagram 3. The people responsible for communication in foreign languages.

The above figures do not provide accurate information on the roles amongst all organisations but display a possible tendency that project employees are most often in charge of communication in foreign languages. The reliability of inferring such tendencies from the replies will be discussed in more detail in the next section. However, one important reliability-related point must be raised here because it might seem perplexing that the total number of responses exceeds the total number of the respondents. This is simply due to the fact that the respondents were allowed to choose several options if those responsible for foreign language communication had diverse roles in their organisation.

If the results are examined in the light of the organisational categories that were formed, some additional tendencies are discovered. In all of the organisations with no employees, volunteers participating in other project activities as well were responsible for communication in foreign languages, which is understandable. Moreover, the fourth organisation that only had volunteer(s) who communicated with the partner(s) had less than 10 employees. This implies that project volunteers are the only persons to deal with communication when the NGOs are relatively small.

The hired project employees were the only persons to handle communication in foreign languages in several NGOs, so diverse that the questionnaire did not show any links between the factors that were investigated. The same applies to organisations where the persons who saw to communication were hired project employees and volunteers also participating in other project activities.

However, all of the NGOs using hired or volunteer language professionals or translators had either a large number or at least ten full-time employees in staff. This indicates that language professionals or translators assist relatively large organisations. Furthermore, all of these NGOs used at least one foreign language in addition to English at least occasionally. Thus, the number of employees and the range of languages would seem to be connected to the tendency of using language professionals.

When analysing the replies to the next question, *do the people who are responsible for communication in one or more foreign languages in your organisation have some of the following forms of language-related training*, it is important to remember that the result does not reveal anything about the commonness of any type of training amongst all those who participate in foreign language communication in the projects. Instead, the result indicates how many organisations have people with this type of a background.

Nine respondents indicated that in their NGO, the people responsible for communication in one or more foreign languages had pursued *language studies*. This was the most common background within the organisations, as can be seen from diagram 4 below. The people responsible for communication had studied *translation* in two organisations. Amongst the NGOs which specified that their people in charge of communication had pursued language or translation studies, all NGOs but one were either large or middle-size. The educational background might be related to the presence of professional translators or language experts at least at the organisational level and most likely at the individual level as well. However, the backgrounds of those dealing with communication were not studied individually, so the questionnaire does not provide any evidence of this.

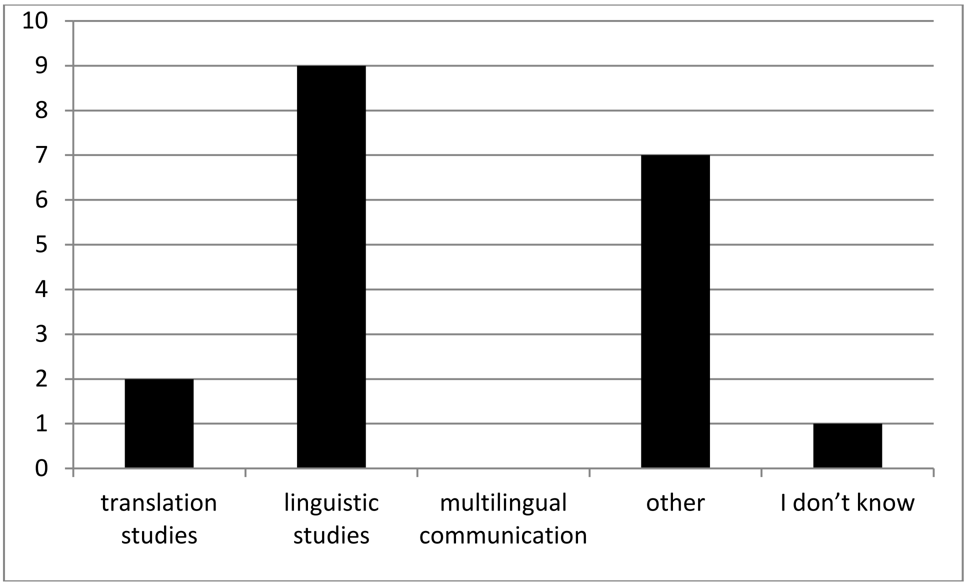

Diagram 4. Background of the people responsible for communication in foreign languages. The columns portray the number of organisations.

No one in the respondent organisations had studied *multilingual communication*. One respondent did not know what kind of studies their communicators had pursued. Seven respondents had opted for the alternative *other*, and one of them reported that their people communicating in foreign languages had ‘none of the types of training mentioned’ in the alternatives. Another respondent explained that the language-related training was acquired in ‘health care projects’ when working as ‘a professional in health care’. Others adduced more general types of training: Three mentioned ‘general English classes at school’, while one respondent reported ‘general studies at school and at the university plus general experience’. Another person added that the ‘classes at school’ were later supplemented by ‘using the English language continuously at the international level of the NGO’. Two persons specified ‘learning in practice’, and one of them also listed ‘internships at a young age’ and ‘using the language continuously at work’.

The above question was not answered by four respondents. When examining the responses that were provided, I discovered that one respondent had chosen the alternative *other* and explained that they did not have any training, as was mentioned above. I then realized that ‘no training’ should have been one of the options.

In addition to the language-related educational background, language-related work experience is also considered important information in the attempt to identify those responsible for communication in foreign languages in development co-operation projects. Therefore, question 11 dealt with whether *the people responsible for communication in foreign languages in the NGOs had performed any language-related work in addition to the duties related to development co-operation projects* of the NGO. Five respondents told that the people communicating in foreign languages in their organisation had performed other language-related work, whereas ten indicated that their people had not. In addition, two respondents reported that some of the people dealing with communication had relevant work experience.

Most of those who had studied languages and all of those who had studied translation had also gained language-related work experience. On the other hand, the persons whose language skills had been acquired in practice also had language-related work experience. Three respondents did not know the language-related work record of those responsible for communicating in their NGO. Since they were all large organisations, their respondents were possibly unacquainted with the people translating for the projects.

The seven respondents who had answered *yes* to question 11 were asked to specify the type of work that their people responsible for foreign language communication had performed outside the projects. The separate options of *translation*, *interpreting* and *communication directly in foreign languages* were each selected by five respondents. Furthermore, the alternative *other* was chosen by one respondent who explained that the history of their person or persons included 'literacy work in the South', that is, in a developing country.

Question 8 dealt with whether the organisation had *earmarked funds for communication in a foreign language in the project budget*. Four respondents indicated that they had allotted funds for this type of communication, whereas the majority (16) stated that they had not allocated any funds for the given purpose. Unsurprisingly, all NGOs that had earmarked funds used other languages in addition to Finnish and/or English in their project work at least occasionally. The question was limited to communication in one or more foreign languages; therefore, it does not concern translation from or into a foreign language. We will return to the funds allotted for translation work later in this section.

4.2.3 Translation

The previous subsection focused on foreign language communication in the development co-operation projects funded by the Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs. However, it did not discuss translation, which is the focus of this subsection. In the questionnaire, the subsection was opened with the following question: *Does the project work include translation or does all communication take place directly in the target language (for example in English).* The purpose of this question was to direct those whose projects did not include translation to the end of the questionnaire by means of using the jump-function as was explained in subsection 3.2 Design.

Eight respondents answered that their projects only included communication directly in the target language, whereas 14 respondents indicated that their projects do include translation. As mentioned earlier in this section, two respondents chose both the alternative *yes, translation is included* and the one that was at first formulated *no, communication in the target language is included*. Hence, they accidentally jumped to the end of the questionnaire even though the questions of the translation section would have concerned them. As was explained, I asked these respondents to answer a separate but otherwise identical translation section of the questionnaire afterwards, but I did not receive any reply. As soon as I noticed the fault, I rephrased the negative alternative to the form *no, only communication directly in the target language is included* and further clarified the question by adding a comment.

An important finding here is that the questionnaire gave no indication that only some types of NGOs would have translated and others not. Thus, this data does not adduce evidence on why NGOs translate text in their development co-operation projects. It is equally noteworthy that even though English was the only foreign language used in a large proportion of the NGOs, translation was needed in the majority of NGOs − not only in the NGOs which used a foreign language that is less commonly spoken in Finland.

The data presented above indicated that translation was involved in several projects. However, translation work did not seem to burden the organisations much; eight respondents did not regard translation as laborious in relation to the available project resources, whereas one organisation found that at times it required much work and that other times it did not. Only two NGOs reported that translation required a relatively great work input. Of the three NGOs that found that translation produced relatively a great deal of work, two were small organisations with volunteers only and one had three full-time employees, 2 part-time employees and 10 volunteers. Thus, the limited human resources could be connected with the NGOs' impression that a significant work input was necessary to deal with translation. One of the organisations that regarded translating texts to be a relatively burdening activity commented in question 4 that 'translating is important but, on the other hand, it increases the workload'.

The result concerning question 14 – that translating did not burden most organisations – was slightly inconsistent with the researcher's experience because, as pointed out in section 4.1.1, the members of the Mexico group felt that translation was an arduous part of the project. This might be linked to the size of the NGO and especially to the languages used. It may also be that the workload originating from translation activities varies considerably in individual NGOs or even within projects. This hypothesis is, in effect, in concord with the researcher's experience because at SYL, for example, project reports and plans were not translated, with the exception of the Guatemala project where project-related texts were translated from Spanish into Finnish or vice versa, as described above.

The purpose of question 15 was to map out the most challenging elements in translation, and the respondents had the opportunity to choose several elements. Two respondents considered that for their organisation, *understanding* was the most challenging element in translation and equally many considered it to be *producing text*. One respondent chose the alternative *finding the people who would have the necessary information and skills*. Two respondents felt that there were no challenges or at least no specific ones. One of them explained that 'there are professional translators available in Finland'. 'No challenges' would also have been a valid pre-prepared alternative in the questionnaire. One respondent pointed out that 'the structural dissimilarities of the languages and the conceptual differences' were the major challenges. Another respondent mentioned that 'translation generates more voluntary work'.

Question 16 was included in the questionnaire in order to find out *from which language into which language the NGOs translate texts*. Most organisations appear to translate either from or into English but the second language varied. Altogether, the language combinations seem remarkably diverse because none of the NGOs had exactly identical language combinations. In one case, nonetheless, there was no certainty of the language combination since the respondent specified only English. Below is a list of languages involved in the translation processes. Each bullet presents the languages of an individual NGO.

- French-English-French[3]
- English
- English-Spanish-English
- English-Portuguese
- English-Portuguese-English, English-Finnish-English
- Finnish-Russian-Finnish, Finnish-English-Finnish
- Finnish-English
- English-Finnish-English
- English-Finnish
- Finnish-English, sometimes also Finnish-Somali
- Finnish-English, Finnish-French, Finnish-Spanish, Finnish-Portuguese, Finnish-Chinese. ‘Translations into so called rare local languages if necessary’, in other words, if there are situations where ‘the local people participating in the project need to understand the texts as well’. Those types of texts include, for example, ‘ethical guidelines and codes of conduct’.

The language combinations were diverse but the documents that were translated seemed to be fairly similar with each other. The next two items in the questionnaire addressed the commonness of different types of documents. The alternatives included five types of documents that I anticipated to be extensively present in NGO development co-operation projects, but the respondents also had the opportunity to specify other types of texts. The replies to the two questions are intertwined and are therefore examined together. Diagram 5 below illustrates how many organisations need translations of a certain type of a document. The diagram is followed by the respondents’ estimations on how many of each type of documents are translated during a project. As the figures are

[3] A hyphen between two languages means that the first language is the source language whereas the second is the target language. To illustrate: French-English-French means that the NGO translates from French into English and from English into French.

estimates, too much focus should not be placed on them. The question was included, nevertheless, in order to gain a better insight into how much translation work the projects contain.

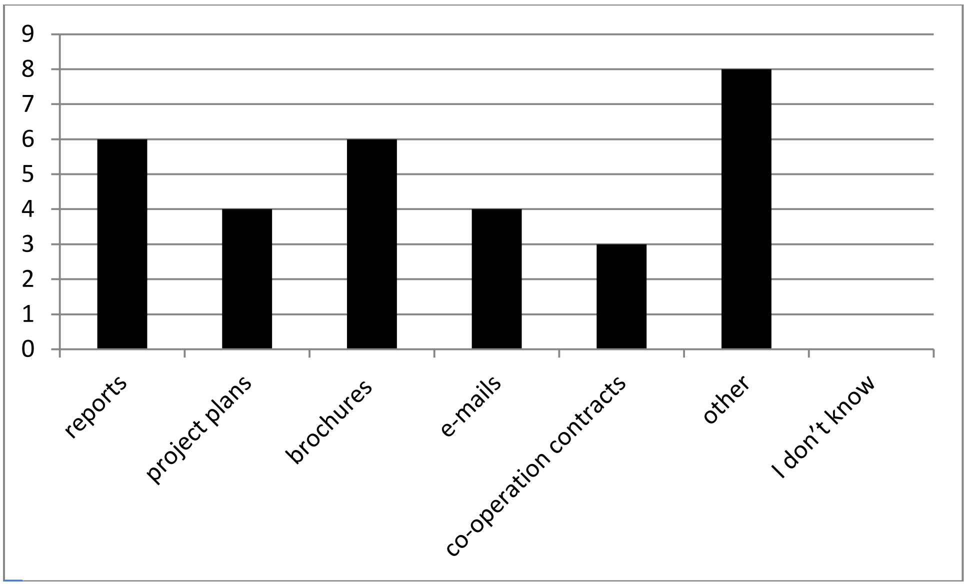

Diagram 5. The number of organisations that translated the specified types of documents.

Several NGOs reported that they translate several of the pre-given document types, while some only specified one or few document types. The results revealed that six organisations need their *reports* translated: Two of them had to translate one report per year, while another NGO needed one or two translations. One NGO had four reports translated each year, and another organisation appeared to have twenty reports translated during a project. Yet another NGO reported that they translate dozens of pages.

Five organisations reported that they translate *brochures*: Two of them translated one or two and another translated a few during a project. One organisation needed ten brochure translations, and another NGO a few brochure translations each year. One respondent did not elaborate on the number of their brochure translations.

As for *e-mails*, four organisations translated them. One respondent explained that they translate e-mails a couple times in a month. One respondent stated that their organisation translates only some e-mails during an entire project, whereas another explained that they translate quite a few. One estimated that they translate sixty e-mails during a project.

Four organisations needed translations of their *project plans*: three of them one plan for each project, whereas one NGO reported to translate three project plans during a project. Some NGOs needed translations of *co-operation contracts* as well – three of them one per project. One organisation translated three co-operation contracts. As mentioned above, all of these numbers mere estimates.

Some respondents also specified other texts that their NGO translated, as shown by the list below. If they mentioned any numbers, they are introduced in brackets after each type of document.

- ‘annual report and financial statement’
- ‘Foreign Ministry forms’ (2)
- ‘the local organisation’s other documents (for example finance-related) or other documents concerning the project’ (1-2)
- ‘the constitution of the organisation’[4] (1)
- ‘manuals and guidelines’
- ‘instructions on project work’
- ‘presentation materials (circa 10)’
- ‘news and articles are translated from the basis of reports and plans’ (10)
- ‘education materials’

Question 19 concerned a slightly different topic: whether the translations were made by *people who also participate in other project work* or by *people who participate only in translation work*. Seven respondents stated that the texts of their organisation are translated by people who also participate in other project activities. By contrast, two NGOs reported that their project translators are people who participate only in translation work. In two organisations, people both inside and outside the projects appear to translate. This arrangement satisfied nine organisations and did not satisfy one. One respondent considered the arrangement both satisfying and dissatisfying. The replies to these two questions as well as to question 21 will be examined in more detail below.

[4] The respondent wrote in Finnish ”*yhdistyksen perustuslaki*”, but might actually refer to *perustamiskirja*, which is a charter connected to the establishment of an association.

Those who were satisfied with the arrangement had diverse reasons to be content: One respondent explained that ‘someone involved in the project work knows the terms and nuances better’, whereas a translator who does not take part in the project is not familiar with the terms and nuances or does not ‘catch’ their meaning. As one might conclude, the organisation in question uses as translators only people engaged in other project work as well. In the same vein, another respondent emphasizes the positive effects of the fact that the translator is familiar with the terms and all aspects of the projects. Another respondent stated that ‘a sufficient level in communication is achieved by using Google Translator to translate [texts] from English into Portuguese and vice versa’.

In addition to these respondents, a further respondent who was likewise satisfied with their arrangement (translations done by people involved in other project work as well) reported that ‘using English and translating is not a problem’ for them, ‘so it is natural that’ they themselves use the language. This respondent continued that they have ‘collaborated with’ their ‘Russian translator for such a long time that the translator has been given other roles in the project as well’. This respondent further notes that ‘it is good that the translators know the terms and all aspects of the projects’. In one organisation, on the other hand, there is not much to translate because the NGO has material mainly in English. They only translate resumes for disseminating information. Those texts include brochures, texts on the website, brief project descriptions and news and articles appearing in the member magazine. As one might remember from section 2.1, the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland accepts texts in English and in Swedish in addition to Finnish. Two other respondents did not explain in more detail why they are satisfied. Another respondent felt that question 21 was unclear and did not understand what exactly was meant by the question: whether the aim of the question was to find out why the NGO had arranged their translation in the described manner or why the arrangement functioned well or poorly.

Two respondents were pleased with their arrangement where people both from within and from outside the project participate in translation. One explained that their secretary usually handles communication with the recipient country but that the organisation once asked a student of the English language to translate an official document. The other did not elaborate on the reasons of their positive attitude.

Furthermore, a respondent felt that their NGO's arrangement – that the translation work is performed by people who participate only in the translation – was both satisfying and unsatisfying. This respondent writes that the 'translators' expertise on the topic is often poor and the revision of the texts requires an enormous amount of time'. There was only one respondent who was dissatisfied, but the reason for the dissatisfaction did not seem concern the actual translation arrangement: this respondent criticised the Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs for wasting resources, as the Ministry 'refuses to translate its project forms for different reasons'. This respondent argues that in this manner 'each' organisation translates the forms time and again with the Foreign Ministry funding in their project budgets. One organisation did not answer question 19, 20 nor 21. Judging by the comments in the final part of the questionnaire, the questions were ignored because the questionnaire was too long.

The previous paragraphs analysed how translation was organised in different NGOs. A later question tackled this issue further by asking the NGOs to indicate whether they had *earmarked funds for translation in the project budget*: three had, while the majority, eight organisations, had not. All three who had earmarked funds were either middle-size or large NGOs, but since they were only three, one should not jump into conclusions about the tendency to allocate funds for this purpose. In the three organisations that had earmarked funds, translations were made by people who were engaged in other project activities as well.

In question 22, the respondents were asked to tell *how many people typically participate in translating texts related to the project work*. Compared to the communication in foreign languages, the results seem to indicate that fewer people participate in translation than in communication: Four organisations stated that only one person translated, and five respondents reported that they had two, three or four persons who translate. One respondent replied that their organisation had 1−4 persons who translate. Two respondents left this question unanswered. The replies imply that amongst the respondent NGOs, it was slightly more common that the organisations had equally many people participating in both translation and communication in foreign languages (6 organisations) than that they had more people participating in communication than in translation (5). By contrast, only one organisation reported to have a higher number of project translators.

When looking more closely at the people who translate project texts, the replies to question 24 showed that their backgrounds are rather diverse, both within a single NGO and in different NGOs. The backgrounds are presented in diagram 6 below.

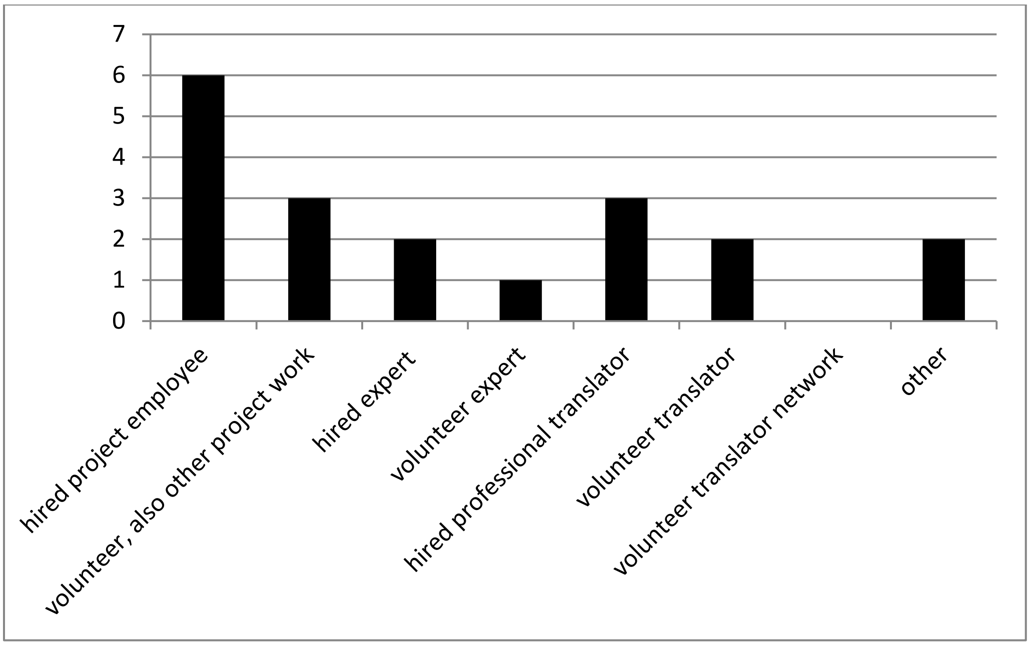

Diagram 6. The backgrounds of people who translate for development co-operation projects of NGOs.

In six organisations, *a hired project employee* was engaged in translation activities. In three relatively small NGOs, translation work was performed by only one project employee who knew either English only or English and other languages. These three were the only NGOs where only one person was translating. In one of the organisations, Google Translate was named as the translator alongside with the hired project employee. In the remaining two organisations where a *hired project employee* translated, people from other categories also translated. On one occasion, *volunteers who also participate in other project work* translated with other people, whereas in two organisations, volunteers translated alone. These two organisations were small with no employees.

Three organisations reported that they hired *professional translators*, and in one NGO, the *hired professional translator* was the only translator of the project. In two organizations, translations were made by *volunteer translators*, while another two organizations had hired *language or communication experts* to do translation work. The organisations which used professional translators and/or language experts and possibly other people who translated were mostly middle-size and one was large. All of these used English and some other language(s).

In one organisation, a *volunteer expert in languages or communication* translated texts for the NGO’s development co-operation project. One NGO did not specify the status of their translator(s). Another respondent appeared to have misunderstood the question or perhaps even the point of the entire section since the response was that ‘the project finance department writes the applications directly in English (no separate translation)’. This is a surprising comment because it implies that no translation takes place in the NGO, although in order to enter the translation section, the respondent had had to answer *yes, translation is included* in the project work to question 13.

None of the organisations used a *volunteer translator network*. One reason for this might be that no translators who know Finnish are members in these networks or that the NGOs are not familiar with these networks.

Even more detailed information on the backgrounds of the people who translate project texts was asked in question 25, which concerned the possible language-related training of the NGO’s translators. In four organisations, the people who translated had a history of *language studies*. Language studies were specified by NGOs that used language professionals, but surprisingly, no translators had pursued *translation studies* or *multilingual communication studies*. This is surprising because in the communication section translation studies were named.

Three organisations specified other studies, which were ‘English studies at school’ and ‘basic studies at the university etc.’ In the NGOs that mentioned English studies at school, those translating were also involved in other types of project work. One respondent might have understood the question in a slightly different manner since the explanation was that ‘depending on the project, the person is an expert of the field’. Two respondents (both from large NGO’s) did not know the educational or professional background of those responsible for the translation work within their organizations. Two NGOs, in addition to the three mentioned earlier in this section, did not answer the question at all.

Question 26 sought to map out the language-related work history of the people who translate for the projects. First, the respondents were asked to indicate whether *the people responsible for translation have performed language-related work in addition to the duties related to development co-operation projects*. In five organisations, the people who translate had performed other work as well, whereas in four organisations they had not. All of those who had not performed other work in the language or translation field were either project employees or volunteers participating in other project work as well. On the other hand, in those organisations where there were hired translators or language professionals, the project translators had language-related work experience, mostly from translating combined, in some cases, with other experience. Two respondents did not elaborate on their translators' language-related work history. Among those five organisations where the people performing translation work had engaged in other language-related work as well, several types of work were listed: Four respondents reported that their translators had translated in other contexts as well. In two cases, translators had also worked as interpreters, and in two cases, the translators' work experience included communication in foreign languages. One respondent was not able to specify the type of work that their project translators had performed.

4.2.4 The future

This subsection deals with the final part of the questionnaire, with the heading *The future.* The purpose of this subsection was to find out which organisations could be contacted later on if necessary. Moreover, the initial plan was to try to send a similar questionnaire to the partner organisations in the developing countries by asking the Finnish NGOs if I could contact them. However, only three organisations were interested in forwarding a questionnaire to their partners. One organisation even explained that their partner NGOs already have many arduous tasks and the Finnish organisation does not want to strain them additionally. As the questionnaires to the partners were expected to provide only interesting supplementary information, and not the key data in any case, the original idea to contact the partner NGO's was abandoned.

The last item of the questionnaire was a box for open comments on issues regarding the questionnaire. One of the comments was already discussed above, but many other respondents commented on various issues. The comments are described in more detail below.

Some respondents felt that the wordings of some questions were confusing. One respondent commented on the Finnish word for ‘communication’ (*viestintä)* explaining that the project work has its own components for communication that are not connected with project management. This might stem from the fact that a project budget can be itemized by having disseminating information and project management under separate budget items. However, the question dealt with all project work performed in Finland, which includes both disseminating information and project management. This respondent explained that for communication purposes (not including communication for project management) they need to translate reports and news usually from English into Finnish. Hence, understanding the wording differently did not matter in the end because the answer covered the information that the question attempted to find out. Another respondent was confused because similar questions appeared in two different sections (communication in foreign languages and translation).

One NGO operated in 30 countries and had 68 development co-operation projects and programmes. All communication concerned with the project and all material was in English, which is the working language of the personnel. In this questionnaire, the representative of the organisation answered the questions only from the point of view of their projects in South-America because in those projects, the material was translated into Spanish. Another respondent reported that the working language of the project was English and for that reason everyone involved used English. However, they translate from Spanish into English and sometimes from French into English, too. Further, another organisation reported that they attended to everyday activities with their partners in English, French, Portuguese and Spanish, and that language skills were a requirement in the recruitment process. In their work, only the central documents were translated from Finnish into other languages and nothing is translated into Finnish. Another comment echoed the same message: the NGO did not ordinarily use translation services because those working for the project were required to have good spoken and written language skills.

One respondent commented that the questions were not very suitable for their organisation because the NGO had hundreds of projects in 30 different countries. The respondent clarified that almost everyone works in a foreign language and ‘as one of the information officers, I do not feel that I can properly answer’ the questions. Therefore, another person from the NGO might have been able to answer other questions. The respondent complained that the estimated time for answering the questionnaire was too short. In this case, the lack of time prevented this respondent from seeking more information for hundreds of projects. In the project work proper, the regional co-ordinators communicated while the communication department was in charge of disseminating information according to the respondent. The main target group of the communications were the Finnish donors and the general public. At the end of this comment, this respondent actually answered some previous questions by explaining that their project documents were in English, French or Spanish and that they also produced brochures in those languages. Their yearbook was also in English.

One comment revealed that when the organisation visits the recipient country, either the personnel of the partner organisation or the trainees recruited by the Finnish NGO have acted as interpreters. Another respondent provided further information on translation activities during their projects: ‘The partner in the South translates some extracts [...] for local activities. The Finns do not translate’. One person complained that ‘the questions are not quite relevant to the everyday activities’, ‘things are done in other ways as well’. The respondent apprised the researcher of not having the time to investigate the subject further.

The open comments also included some positive feedback, as one respondent considered the topic to be important and another considered the questionnaire to be suitable.

5 Discussion

The methods chosen for this study appear to be effective in relation to the resources available. Interviews might have provided different kinds of data, and the researcher might have been able to individualise the questions more, as the interviewees would have provided new data in the course of the interviews. However, this questionnaire was suitable for a general mapping, and enabled the researcher to include data from a greater number of NGOs. Analysing the participant observation data and the researcher's prior experiences produced different kinds of data thereby broadening the perspective. Nonetheless, it would have been better to obtain the data from NGOs which would not have been so similar as the two student organisations were.

The questionnaire could have covered a different set of questions because they were in this case prepared subjectively, albeit that they underwent the piloting process. It was somewhat challenging to formulate the questions since, as emphasized at the beginning of this thesis, previous research on translation and communication in NGOs is scarce. Therefore, I had to include some aspects and ignore others.

Preparing a questionnaire that would suit all respondents was anticipated to be an arduous task but piloting the questionnaire was supposed to help in meeting this challenge. However, none of the respondents to the preliminary questionnaire were from an organisation with as many projects as the respondent whose organisation had hundreds of projects, and that was a deficiency in the planning of the questionnaire. A more heterogeneous group of respondents piloting the questionnaire might have improved the applicability of the questionnaire.

As a consequence of the scarcity of prior research, a number of interesting issues for further investigation arose during the research process. One of these was related to the motives for translation since the questionnaire did not ask why the NGOs have decided to translate or not to translate their documents. As those NGOs which translated did not seem to share common characteristics, a new survey could attempt to identify why NGOs choose to translate their documents.

This study has shed some light on the backgrounds of the volunteer translators, but there is plenty o room for further research. Some networks might offer a possibility to examine their characteristics since some translator networks have a procedure of asking their volunteers to create profiles with translator, interpreter or editor information about themselves.

Awareness of translation problems would be another interesting research topic: to what extent are the key people aware of factors that might affect the translation of project texts? One could investigate the instructions that Finnish NGOs have given to their partners on how to write the reports, what kind of style to use, et cetera. This information might reveal whether Finnish NGOs foresee any potential translation or communication problems. Cultural factors were not analysed in this study, but cultural differences between Finland and the target area could be expected to be potential challenges.

Cultural factors could also be examined from the partner NGOs' perspective. The original research plan included a questionnaire for the partner organisations in the recipient countries in order to learn about their views. This plan was not put into practice as was explained above, but this type of a questionnaire could provide valuable data. It would be intriguing to find out how much thought NGOs – in Finland and in the recipient countries – give to translation and communication in foreign languages.

This investigation could be expanded to other NGOs internationally, or nationally to all NGO development co-operation projects in Finland. After all, this study has already indicated that the practices and needs of the NGOs examined in this thesis were diverse. Performing a similar study in different countries might also produce new findings.

Another intriguing topic for future studies could be translation as a process in the NGOs. This thesis described the process in two organisations, but the processes in other NGOs may well be completely different. The collective nature of the translation process was characteristic of the observed NGOs, and if this practice were more common, it would be interesting to investigate how different actors participate in the process and how they behave.

Professional or trained translators or language experts were identified as potential contributors to the translation process, and the benefits and negative consequences of such participation were examined briefly in this thesis. I wish to emphasize again that whether NGOs should hire expert translators for translating project documents is a delicate question. Their expertise is evidently a welcome supplement, but if other project management duties are performed by volunteers, how can it be argued that translation should not? This logic also functions in reverse: in cases where there is remuneration for other tasks, translation should also be compensated.

In the beginning of this thesis, I argued that communication is central in development co-operation projects funded by the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland. Before conducting any research, I also assumed that translation was a noteworthy element of the projects. Further, I anticipated that it would be desirable that trained translators or language professionals translate project documents. The hypotheses changed during the research process, as I learned more about different projects. In contrast to what was expected, I would not recommend that all NGOs hire translators or use volunteering professional translators. Expertise is evidently useful, but in some cases there is no real need for translation; hence, no translators are needed. Moreover, it is the duty of the NGOs to assess on a case-by-case basis whether it would be wise to involve professional translators.

The questionnaire responses and the researcher’s observations indicate that the relevance of any given arrangement depends on the project and on the project partner. To illustrate: if the partner organisation in the developing country has a high reporting capacity, it is easy to use an external translator and to receive a high-quality translation. Yet, if the partner is less skilled in reporting, it may be best that the documents are translated within the NGO because there people know what information should be included in the report. They can also easily contact their partner to ask questions and rewrite some text extracts if they know that the partner means something else than what could be inferred from the source text. In an ideal case, a translator – whether on the payroll or not – would be involved in a project in other ways, too, and know the project well. In this way, the benefits of having translation expertise and specific knowledge of the project would be combined.

Although it would be too bold to claim that trained translators as a rule would be the best people to translate in development co-operation projects, I do believe that a translator in the expert role would have much to contribute to NGOs. Translators would be able to instruct the organisations and their partners to draft documents that would be easier to translate, for instance. Establishing this type of collaboration might require an inquiry into the ideas that NGOs have of translators as experts. For example, do the organisations know that translators can offer this type of expertise? Are they aware of the principle that translators translate according to the commission they are given? To be more explicit, do they know that if they instruct the translator to deliver a document with the facts in a concise form, they will not receive a verbose word-for-word translation?

The questionnaire attempted to measure the translation or communication expertise of the NGOs only by asking the respondent NGOs to describe briefly the backgrounds of the people who translate or communicate. Evaluating the level of translation expertise within the NGOs more profoundly could actually be a topic of another study. The information obtained from the questionnaire did not portray the level of expertise in a very precise manner, but the results implied, nonetheless, that it might be advantageous for many organisations to learn more about translation and communication in foreign languages since especially the latter activity has a central role in a project. In this manner, NGOs could be more aware of the decisions concerning translation and foreign language communication in their projects. Similarly, they might know better where to seek assistance if necessary. A concrete way of increasing the awareness of the NGOs could be, for instance, that KEPA arrange a training day on translation and communication for the interested parties.

Returning to the ethics of volunteer translation, the dilemmas of volunteer translators may range from whether to accept or to reject an assignment to whether it is acceptable to work free of charge or not. The choice of working free of charge or accepting a low remuneration may influence the status of translation as a profession. What in general reduces the pay rates and the employment rate is currently a controversial and widely-debated issue in the translation business. In my opinion, this debate is not relevant regarding the development co-operation projects of NGOs since it was argued in section 2.3 that especially working free of charge should not have an impact on the fees. Further, instead of demanding NGOs to hire professionals, the development co-operation projects of NGOs should rather be considered as special employment opportunities in some organisations for competent and resourceful translators. The NGOs do not exist to serve as repositories of commissions for translators; translators are there to serve the NGOs.

Finally, an increasing number of studies on different varieties of volunteer translation, such as those discussed above, could be integrated into research on development co-operation-related translation to examine the topic from new angles. By contrast, I do not regard the varieties of volunteer translation to be a relevant future research topic because I have demonstrated in this thesis that volunteer translation does not differ remarkably from other forms of translation. The major difference is that volunteer translation is not financially remunerated, but this does not have to bear any other consequences. For this reason, volunteer translation should not be drawn into lengthy discussions on ethics or, above all, be blamed for lowering the esteem of the entire profession.

6 Conclusions

This thesis examined the translation and foreign language communication needs and practices of NGOs in Finland, focusing on the organisations that have development co-operation projects funded partially by the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland. This topic has not been researched before, and there was no theoretical framework upon which to rely. The solution proposed in this thesis was to provide a detailed description of the methodology and on research data obtained for this particular study.

The research data was derived from two different sources: First, the researcher used the methodology of participant observation to collect information on the translation and communication practices in two NGOs. Second, a group of NGOs, which have development co-operation projects funded by the Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs and which were selected by applying the random sample method, received a questionnaire on translation and communication activities linked to their project work.

The two methods complemented each other as they allowed the researcher to examine the topic from differing points of view. The first method provided more detailed information on, for instance, how the translation process proceeded in the two organisations, what kinds of tools and approaches were used and what type of writing instructions the Finnish partner gave to the local partner NGO. It is important to remember that the observations represent the situation of two similar organisations only, and as other NGOs differ substantially from these two organisations in their nature and size, the conclusions about the two organisations observed cannot be extrapolated to all NGO engaged in development co-operation projects.

The observations of the two student organisations (TYY and SYL) revealed that the people who participated in translating project-related documents were also involved in the projects in other ways. In both projects, the language of communication with the project partner was Spanish. At TYY, some of the people who translated were students of translation, but at SYL none of the members of the Guatemala group studied translation, except for the author of this thesis. The translations were done collectively: the texts were divided into sections and revised by other members of the group. In the Mexico project, previous documents were useful in the translation process, and it was also easy to ask other members of the group or the authors of the texts for more information when the translator had trouble understanding the meaning of the source text. What was also noteworthy about the translation process was that the source text was lower in the hierarchy of the texts than the target text, that is, the translation. This resulted from the fact that the form of the source texts was of little importance, while the (required) contents were highly relevant. In addition, the Finnish NGOs instructed the project partners in the recipient countries on how to write the project documents. The partners were given instructions because the different cultures in the recipient and donor countries had differing writing conventions.

The questionnaire responses, on the other hand, sketched a less profound but wider perspective of the translation practices in twenty NGOs. The questionnaire sought to discover whether development co-operation projects encompassed translation or foreign language communication, how much translation or communication was involved, who translated, which languages were used, and whether any financial resources were used for translating and foreign language communication.

The response rate to the questionnaire was high, but any general conclusions on the translation and communication practices of the NGOs should not be drawn, as the responses indicated that the NGOs with development co-operation projects are manifold and have their own distinct characteristics. Most respondent organisations were relatively small while some NGOs had thousands of volunteers. Furthermore, the number of translations as well as of people participating in foreign language communication and in translation varied.

The language combinations of the NGOs in their development co-operation projects were different, depending naturally on the recipient area and the language skills of the people involved. All organisations mentioned English and most of them Finnish as the languages they use regularly, while a number of other languages were used occasionally.

Based on the questionnaire responses, communication in foreign languages does not generate a heavy workload, although in the majority of the respondent organisations less than four persons participated in foreign language communication in the context of the projects. In most organisations, at least some of the communicators were hired project employees, although volunteers participating in other project work were also often involved, and so were language professionals in a few cases.

A majority of the organisations had not earmarked funds for foreign language communication in the project budget. Thus, many communicators – whether professionals or not – did not receive any remuneration for their work.

Foreign language communication is practically compulsory in the projects. Even translation was surprisingly common, although slightly less common than communication alone: fourteen of the twenty respondent organisations replied that their projects include translation. Similarly to communication, translation work did not seem to burden most organisations much. This was slightly in conflict with the researcher's experience but probably reflects the heterogeneity of the NGOs contributing to development co-operation projects. The texts were translated either from or into English, but the second language varied. Altogether, the language combinations encompassed a considerable diversity since the respondents named no identical sets of language combinations. The types of the translated documents were likewise heterogeneous.

The similarities between translation and communication also extend to the type of persons performing the work; although fewer people seemed to participate in translation than in communication in foreign languages. In most organisations, project-related texts were translated by people who participate in other project activities as well, and most organisations found the arrangement satisfactory. Despite the fact that hired project employees were more frequently attending to translation work, few NGOs had allotted project funds for translations. This applied even to cases where translation experts were responsible for this work.

Based on the analysis of the research data and on the researcher's own views, it seems that NGOs have different strategies on what to translate. The human and other resources of the NGOs and of the projects influence the ability or need to translate, as do the Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs' regulations. Due to the divergent starting points, it does not seem sensible to give any strong recommendations on whether the NGOs should, for instance, use professional translators or project personnel. Both have their advantages, as the translators or other language experts can undoubtedly contribute their know-how to the projects, whereas the people who are engaged in the project have indispensable general knowledge of the project. A combination of the two is perhaps the best asset.

An interesting finding is that the questionnaire responses gave no indication that only certain types of NGOs would translate while others types of NGOs would not. Thus, this data does not adduce evidence on why NGOs translate texts related to their development co-operation projects. It is equally noteworthy that although English was the only foreign language used in a large proportion of the NGOs, translation was carried out in the majority of the organisations, not only in the NGOs which used a language less commonly spoken in Finland. The range of languages seems to have an influence on who participates in translation or communication in foreign languages, nevertheless. The questionnaire responses revealed that when English was the only language used in the projects, the organisations did not tend use language experts. Instead, the language or translation experts were used when there was a demand for languages less commonly spoken in Finland.

To conclude, translation and foreign language communication in the activities of NGOs is a new topic in Translation Studies research. The research data collected for this study offers a preliminary account of translation and foreign language communication related to the development co-operation projects in those Finnish NGOs whose projects receive financial support from the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland. The research data has shed light upon the translation practices and needs of 22 such Finnish NGOs. The present research focused on only a few aspects of the needs and practices of the respondent NGOs, and showed a considerable diversity in those needs and practices. Therefore, there is still plenty of room for further research.

7 Suomenkielinen lyhennelmä

Tämä pro gradu -tutkielma käsittelee kääntämistä ja vieraskielistä viestintää Suomen ulkoasiainministeriön rahoittamissa kansalaisjärjestöjen kehitysyhteistyöhankkeissa. Tavoitteena oli kartoittaa alustavasti kehitysyhteistyöhankkeiden kääntämiseen ja vieraskieliseen viestintään liittyviä tarpeita ja käytäntöjä. Lisäksi pyrittiin selvittämään suomalaisten kansalaisjärjestöjen käännös- ja viestintäasiantuntemusta yleensä.

Aluksi hypoteesina oli, että monet suomalaiset kansalaisjärjestöt kääntävät kehitysyhteistyöhankkeisiinsa liittyviä tekstejä. Myöhemmin hypoteesi muuttui, sillä tutkimuksen kuluessa selvisi, että hankeasiakirjat sai toimittaa ulkoasiainministeriölle myös englanniksi. Siksi vaikutti loogisemmalta, että vain joissakin järjestöissä käännettäisiin hanketekstejä. Ennen tutkimustyön aloittamista näytti lisäksi todennäköiseltä, että käännösasiantuntemuksen taso vaihtelee järjestöittäin. Oletin siitä huolimatta, että useimmilla järjestöillä on jossain vaiheessa ollut kääntämiseen ja vieraskieliseen viestintään liittyviä haasteita.

Aihetta ei ole juurikaan tutkittu, joten tutkielmassa ei ollut mahdollista keskittyä tarkastelemaan aiempia teorioita. Siksi empiirisellä osuudella on erityisen merkittävä rooli. Tutkielman teoreettinen osuus koostuukin lähinnä metodologisesta pohdinnasta, vaikka tutkielma pyrkii esittämään yhteyksiä esimerkiksi vapaaehtoistyönä tehtävää kääntämistä koskeviin teorioihin.

Tutkielman empiirinen aineisto koostuu tutkijan havainnoista ja osallistuvan havainnoinnin menetelmän käyttöönottoa edeltävistä kokemuksista, jotka ovat peräisin kahden opiskelijajärjestön kehitysyhteistyöhankkeista vuosien 2009 ja 2012 välisenä aikana. Tutkijalla oli siis käytännön kokemusta aiheesta jo ennen tutkimustyön aloittamista. Kokemukset ovat todennäköisesti vaikuttaneet tutkimusprosessiin, ja osaksi siitäkin syystä kokemuksia on kuvattu avoimesti.

Koska havainnointitutkimuksen kohteena oli vain kaksi järjestöä, saatiin sen avulla yksityiskohtaista tietoa esimerkiksi siitä, miten käännösprosessi eteni järjestöissä ja millaisia kirjoitusohjeita järjestöt olivat laatineet kumppaneilleen. Näin pienen ja harkinnanvaraisen otannan tuloksia ei luonnollisesti voida kuitenkaan yleistää.

Osallistuvan havainnoinnin suppeaa tietoa täydensivät kyselytutkimuksen vastaukset, joilla kerättiin laajempaa ja yleisluontoisempaa aineistoa. Vastaanottajajärjestöt valittiin satunnaisotannalla, minkä jälkeen kysely lähetettiin 35 kansalaisjärjestölle. Näistä seitsemällä ei enää ollut käynnissä ulkoasiainministeriön rahoittamaa hanketta. Tämä johtui siitä, että ministeriön verkkosivulla, jonne ministeriö on listannut kehitysyhteistyöhankerahoitustaan saavat kansalaisjärjestöt, oli myös järjestöjä, joiden hankkeet olivat jo päättyneet. Otannan muutosten merkitys vaikutti kuitenkin sen verran vähäiseltä, ettei uuden otannan valitsemista katsottu tarpeelliseksi. Näin varsinaisia vastaanottajia oli 28, joista 20 vastasi kyselyyn, joten vastausprosentti näistä oli 71.

Koska kansalaisjärjestöjen kehitysyhteistyöhankkeet saattavat olla monille käännöstieteeseen erikoistuneille vieraita, tutkielman alussa esitellään ehtoja ja ohjeita, jotka koskevat ulkoasiainministeriön rahoittamia kehitysyhteistyöhankkeita ja ovat kyseisen tutkimuksen kannalta olennaisia. Ulkoministeriön ohjeistus muuttui jonkin verran tutkimusprosessin aikana: kyselytutkimus tehtiin vanhan ohjeistuksen voimassaoloaikana, ja myös havainnot ovat lähinnä muutoksia edeltävältä ajalta. Aiheen kannalta olennaisia muutoksia on kuitenkin kuvattu tutkielmassa.

Alussa käsitellään lisäksi vapaaehtoistyönä tehtävään kääntämiseen (*volunteer translation*) liittyvää teoriaa useista näkökulmista. Baker (2006) on kirjoittanut vapaaehtois- ja aktivistikääntämisestä kritisoiden voimakkaasti joitakin ilmaispalveluja tarjoavia kääntäjäverkostoja, joita hän vertaa toisiin, mielestään eettisemmin toimiviin verkostoihin. Pym (2011) puolestaan toteaa, ettei vapaaehtoiskääntäminen välttämättä eroa erityisen paljon muusta kääntämisestä, vaikka sitä onkin alettu tutkia viime vuosina huomattavasti enemmän. Laakso-Tammisto (2007:3) puolestaan korostaa sitä, että vapaaehtoisten tarjoamien palvelujen tulisi olla laadultaan tavallisten palvelujen veroisia.

Käännösteorian lisäksi tutkielmassa on esitetty yksityiskohtaisesti käytettävät tutkimusmenetelmät, koska näin pystyttiin kuvaamaan tarkasti tutkimusprosessin etenemistä ja perustelemaan menetelmiä koskevia valintoja. Myös menetelmien heikkoudet ja vahvuudet on tuotu esiin.

Menetelmien jälkeen työssä siirrytään havaintojen ja kyselyvastausten kuvailemiseen ja analysointiin. Empiirisen aineiston analyysi osoittaa muun muassa, että tutkijan alkuperäinen hypoteesi kehitysyhteistyöhön liittyvien tekstien kääntämisen yleisyydestä pitää osittain paikkansa, vaikka tekstejä käännettiinkin kansalaisjärjestöissä vähemmän kuin tutkija odotti. Tutkimusaineisto ei ole kuitenkaan tarpeeksi laaja, jotta tuloksia voitaisiin yleistää, sillä kansalaisjärjestöt, niiden hankkeet, käännöstarpeet ja asiantuntemus osoittautuivat odotetusti hyvin erilaisiksi.

Havainnoista puolestaan ilmeni, että havainnoinnin kohteina olleissa Turun yliopiston ylioppilaskunnassa (TYY) ja Suomen ylioppilaskuntien liitossa (SYL) kehitysyhteistyöhankkeisiin liittyviä tekstejä kääntävät aktiivit eivät olleet ulkopuolisia kääntäjiä, vaan osallistuivat muutoinkin hankkeisiin. Molemmissa hankkeissa yhteistyökielenä oli espanja. Osa TYYn hankkeen käännöstyöhön osallistuvista opiskeli kääntämistä, mutta SYL:n Guatemala ryhmän jäsenistä kukaan ei opiskellut kääntämistä tämän tutkimuksen tekijää lukuun ottamatta. Käännökset tehtiin yhdessä jakamalla tekstit osioihin ja tarkistamalla ryhmän muiden jäsenten tekstiä. Meksiko-hankkeessa aiemmat asiakirjat helpottivat kääntämistä, ja apua sai muilta ryhmän jäseniltä tai tarvittaessa meksikolaiselta kumppanijärjestöltä, jos lähtötekstiä oli vaikea ymmärtää.

Tutkimuksesta ilmeni, että lähtöteksti oli keskinäisessä hierarkiassa kohdetekstiä eli käännöstä alemmalla tasolla. Lähtötekstin muoto oli epäolennainen, kun vaadittu sisältö oli pääasia, eikä ministeriö ottanut sitä vastaan espanjankielisenä. Havainnoista voi nostaa vielä esiin sen, että suomalaiset kansalaisjärjestöt neuvoivat kumppanijärjestöjään kirjoittamaan hankkeisiin liittyvät asiakirjat tietyllä tyylillä vähentääkseen tekstien kulttuurieroja.

Kyselytutkimukseen puolestaan vastasi suurempi joukko kansalaisjärjestöjä, vaikka kaikki järjestöt eivät vastanneet jokaiseen kysymykseen. Kyselytutkimuksella pyrittiin selvittämään muun muassa, paljonko kääntämistä ja vieraskielistä viestintää hankkeisiin liittyi, millaisia ovat kääntämiseen ja viestintään osallistuvien taustat, mitä kieliä käytettiin, ja oliko työtä varten budjetoitu rahaa.

Kyselyn vastausprosentti oli korkea. Vastaukset osoittivat järjestöjen käännös- ja viestintäkäytäntöjen olevan moninaisia. Toisaalta myös itse järjestöillä ja niiden käännöstarpeilla oli suuria eroja. Useimmat järjestöt olivat suhteellisen pieniä, kun taas toisissa oli tuhansia vapaaehtoisia tai satoja työntekijöitä. Lisäksi hankkeisiin liittyvään kääntämiseen ja vieraskieliseen viestintään osallistuvien lukumäärä ja taustat vaihtelivat.

Järjestöjen käyttämät kielet vaihtelivat hankkeiden kohdealueen ja hanketoimijoiden kielitaidon mukaan. Kaikki järjestöt nimesivät englannin säännöllisesti käyttämäkseen kieleksi ja valtaosa järjestöistä suomen. Useita muita kieliä, kuten portugalia, suahilia ja venäjää, käytettiin satunnaisesti.

Kyselyaineiston perusteella voi todeta, ettei vieraskielinen viestintä kuormita järjestöjä verrattain merkittävästi. Suurimmassa osassa järjestöjä hankeviestintään osallistui enintään neljä henkilöä. Useimmissa järjestöissä ainakin osa viestintää hoitavista oli palkattuja hanketyöntekijöitä, mutta myös hanketyötä tekeviä vapaaehtoisia osallistui runsaasti viestintään. Muutamissa tapauksissa myös kielten tai viestinnän asiantuntijat huolehtivat viestinnästä.

Vieraalla kielellä viestiminen on käytännöllisesti katsoen välttämätöntä hankkeissa, mutta kääntäminenkin oli yllättävän yleistä, tosin hieman harvinaisempaa kuin monikielinen viestintä. Kahdestakymmenestä vastaajasta neljätoista ilmoitti heidän hankkeidensa sisältävän kääntämistä. Viestinnän tavoin kääntäminen ei tuntunut rasittavan järjestöjä erityisen paljoa, mikä oli hieman ristiriidassa tutkijan omien kokemusten kanssa, mutta kuvastaa todennäköisesti kehitysyhteistyöhankkeita toteuttavien järjestöjen heterogeenisyyttä.

Kääntämiseen osallistui samantyyppisiä ihmisiä kuin viestintään vieraalla kielellä, joskin kääntämiseen vaikutti osallistuvan hieman vähemmän ihmisiä. Hankkeisiin liittyviä tekstejä käänsivät pääasiassa myös muuhun hanketyöhön osallistuvat henkilöt, ja suurin osa järjestöistä oli tyytyväinen tällaiseen järjestelyyn.

Hankkeisiin liittyviä tekstejä käännettiin englannista tai englanniksi, mutta toinen kieli vaihteli. Kokonaisuudessaan kieliyhdistelmät olivat huomattavan moninaisia, sillä yksikään vastaaja ei nimennyt täysin samanlaista kielivalikoimaa kuin joku toinen. Käännettävien asiakirjojen tyyppi vaihteli esimerkiksi raporteista esitteisiin.

Suurin osa järjestöistä ei ollut varannut hankebudjeteissaan rahaa vieraskielistä viestintää tai kääntämistä varten. Tämä ei kuitenkaan tarkoita automaattisesti, että suurin osa hankkeiden viestintään ja käännöstyöhön osallistuvista ei olisi saanut työstään rahallista korvausta – olivat he ammattilaisia tai eivät. Esimerkiksi palkatun hanketyöntekijän työnkuvaan saattaa nimittäin kuulua vaikkapa yhteydenpito kumppaniin, ja siten hän saa myös siitä palkkaa, vaikkei viestintää olisikaan eritelty budjettiin.

Tutkimusaineiston analyysin ja tutkijan käsitysten perusteella vaikuttaa siltä, että kansalaisjärjestöillä on eriäviä strategioita siitä, mitä käännetään. Järjestöjen henkilöresurssit ja muut resurssit sekä Suomen ulkoasiainministeriön ehdot vaikuttavat sekä käännöstarpeisiin että -mahdollisuuksiin. Eri lähtökohtien vuoksi ei ole mielekästä suositella, että kaikkien järjestöjen kannattaisi turvautua esimerkiksi ainoastaan ammattikääntäjiin tai hankekoordinaattoreihin. Molemmista olisi hyötyä, koska kielten ja kääntämisen asiantuntijat voisivat tuoda omaa osaamistaan hankkeisiin, kun taas hankekoordinaattoreilla on korvaamatonta tietoa itse hankkeesta. Näiden kahden yhdistelmä vaikuttaisi parhaalta vaihtoehdolta.

Kyselytutkimuksen olennaisiin huomioihin lukeutuu lisäksi se, että aineisto ei antanut mitään viitteitä siitä, että vain tietyn tyyppiset järjestöt kääntäisivät tekstejä. Aineiston perusteella ei myöskään selviä tyhjentävästi, miksi järjestöt päättävät kääntää hankkeisiinsa liittyviä tekstejä.

On myös huomionarvoista, että vaikka englanti oli suuressa osassa järjestöjä ainoa vieras kieli, kääntäminen oli silti osa useimpien järjestöjen hanketoimintaa. Kääntäminen ei siis rajoittunut vain niiden järjestöjen hankkeisiin, joissa käytetään kieliä, jotka ovat Suomessa harvinaisia. Kielivalikoima vaikuttaa kuitenkin olevan yhteydessä siihen, ketkä osallistuvat kääntämiseen tai vieraskieliseen viestintään. Kyselytutkimuksen tulokset osoittivat, että kun englanti oli ainoa hankkeissa käytetty kieli, kielten tai viestinnän asiantuntijoiden käyttäminen ei ollut yleistä. Sen sijaan kielten, viestinnän tai kääntämisen asiantuntijoita osallistui tyypillisesti sellaisiin hankkeisiin, joissa käytettiin myös harvemmin Suomessa osattuja kieliä.

Yhteenvetona voidaan vielä todeta, että kansalaisjärjestöjen kehitysyhteistyöhankkeisiin liittyvää vieraskielistä viestintää tai kääntämistä ei ole toistaiseksi juurikaan tarkasteltu käännöstieteessä. Tätä pro gradu -tutkielmaa varten kerätyn tutkimusaineiston pohjalta saatiin alustava kuvaus kehitysyhteistyöhankkeisiin liittyvästä kääntämisestä ja vieraskielisestä viestinnästä niissä suomalaisissa kansalaisjärjestöissä, jotka saavat Suomen ulkoasiainministeriön hanketukea. Tutkimusaineisto valotti käännöstarpeita ja -käytäntöjä 22 suomalaisessa järjestössä, joilla on vähintään yksi ulkoasiainministeriön rahoitusta saava hanke. Tutkielma keskittyi vain joihinkin näkökulmiin, ja osoitti niiden kautta, että järjestöjen tarpeet ja käytännöt ovat moninaisia. Siksi kaivataan lisää tutkimusta, ja mahdollisia tutkimusaiheitakin on runsaasti.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire (translated from Finnish)

Dear Sir or Madam:

I am a student at the University of Turku and I am conducting research for my master's thesis on how foreign languages are used and how translation is performed in NGO development co-operation projects funded by the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland. Foreign language communication is often a central part of the projects but the use of different languages and the related needs and potential problems have not been previously studied much in this context. Therefore, it would be highly important to find out what kinds of multilingual communication needs NGOs have.

With this questionnaire study, I want to discover the needs and practices of different organisations. I try to provide the organisations that reply with useful information on how communication and translation could be made easier and better. In the future, this study will hopefully serve the NGOs more broadly.

A group NGOs that have at least one Finnish Foreign Ministry funded development co-operation project in the year 2011 were chosen as the recipients of this questionnaire by using random sampling. Your organisation is one of the selected recipients. The participation of each organisation included in the sample is highly important for the representativeness of this study. Therefore, I wish that all the organisations that receive the questionnaire will reply.

Answering the questionnaire:

- The questionnaire includes four brief sections and they include both multiple choice and open questions. You can access the *Webropol*-questionnaire at https://www.webropolsurveys.com/S/E8976890F3B87E20.par
- The identifiers of the respondents will be treated confidentially.
- Once this study is completed, I will inform the respondents on the best practices and provide brief information on how the organisations could further quicken and improve the translation and communication in foreign language.
- If other people in your organisation are also responsible for these topics, could you please pass this questionnaire on to them? You can also answer the questionnaire together.
- Please, answer within a week.

For further information, please contact Salla Mäkelä (contact information below).

Thank you for your co-operation.
Sincerely,

Salla Mäkelä
+358 40 846 1228
smmake@utu.fi

Translation and communication in a foreign language in the development co-operation projects of NGOs

The purpose of this questionnaire study is to find out what kinds of needs and practices related to translation and communication in foreign languages the NGOs that implement development co-operation projects have.

Instructions:

- Please, answer the questions in the numerical order.
- Please, choose the suitable alternative for each question by clicking the alternative. For most questions, it is possible to choose more than one alternative if necessary.
- In the open questions, please, write in your answer in the space provided.
- Please, do not describe in the answers of this form the activities of your partner NGO but merely the activities of your own organisation.
- You are encouraged to comment freely on anything related to the questionnaire in field reserved for comments at the end of this questionnaire.

1 Background information of the organisation

1. Name of the organisation
The name will not appear in the study, the information is important only for distinguishing the responses during research work. If you wish, you can also use a false name but then it will not be possible to send the questionnaire results to you.

2. How many persons work in your organisation
    - full time
    - part-time
    - as volunteers?
    - I don’t know

3. Is your self-financing share
The self-financing share includes all funds coming from the Finnish organisation as well as the voluntary work that has been given a value in euro in the project budget.
    - less than €3 000 (in the projects for the disabled, less than €1500)
    - more than €3000 (in the projects for the disabled, more than €1500)
    - in a part of the projects more and in a part less than €3000 (in the projects for the disabled €1500)?
    - I don’t know

2 Communication in foreign languages

This section focuses only on communication directly in foreign languages. The section on translation features later on.

4. Which languages does you organisation use in the project work
    - regularly
    - occasionally?

2.1 Foreign languages in the project work

5. Does communication in one or more foreign languages require relatively much work in comparison with the available project resources?
- yes
- no
- I don’t know

6. What do you consider to be the most challenging elements in communication in foreign languages?
- understanding
- producing text
- finding the people with sufficient knowledge and skills
- other (please write in)

7. How many people typically participate in communicating in one or more foreign languages in the project work of your NGO?
- 1
- 2−4
- 4−7
- more than 7

8. Have you earmarked funds for communication in a foreign language in the project budget?
- yes
- no
- I don’t know

2.2 Background information on the people communicating in a foreign language

9. Who is responsible for the translation or communication in one or more foreign languages?
- hired project employee
- volunteer who also participates in other project work
- hired expert in languages or communication
- volunteer expert in languages or communication
- hired professional translator
- volunteer translator
- volunteer translator network
- other, please write in

10. Do the people who are responsible for communication in one or more foreign languages in your organisation have some of the following forms of language-related training?
You may choose several options.
- translation studies
- language studies
- studies in multilingual communication
- other, please write in
- I don’t know

11. Have the people responsible for communication in foreign languages in your NGO performed any language-related work in addition to the duties related to development co-operation projects?

- yes
- no
- I don’t know

12. If you answered yes, please specify what type of work.
You may choose several options.

- translation
- interpreting
- communication directly in foreign languages
- other, please write in

3 Translation

13. Does the project work include translation or does all communication take place directly in the target language (for example in English)?
Choose only one option. In the option “yes, translation is included” it is supposed that you also communicate only directly in the foreign language in the project(s).

- yes, translation is included
- no, communication takes place only directly in the target language
- I don’t know

3.1 Translation work

14. Does translation require relatively much work in comparison with the available project resources?

- yes
- no
- I don’t know

15. What do you consider to be the most challenging elements in translation for your NGO?

- understanding
- producing text
- finding the people who would have the necessary information and skills
- other, please write in

16. From which language into which language do you translate texts?

17. What kinds of documents do you translate as a part of the project work?

- reports
- project plans
- brochures
- e-mails
- co-operation contracts
- other, please write in
- I don’t know

18. How much text is there to translate during a project according to your estimation?
Please, evaluate the number of different types of documents to be translated during a project and write it down after the type of document in question in numbers or in words.

- reports
- project plans
- brochures
- e-mails
- co-operation contracts
- other, please write in
- I don’t know

19. Are the people responsible for the translation
You may choose several options

- people who also participate in other project work
- people who participate in translation work only?
- I don’t know

20. Is the arrangement satisfying?

- yes
- no

21. Why?

22. How many people typically participate in translation related to the project work?

- 1
- 2–4
- 4–7
- more than 7
- I don’t know

23. Have you earmarked funds for translation in the project budget?

- yes
- no
- I don’t know

24. Who performs the translation work related to your project?
You may choose several options

- hired project employee
- volunteer who also participates in other project work
- hired expert in languages or communication
- volunteer expert in languages or communication
- hired professional translator
- volunteer translator
- volunteer translator network
- other, please write in
- I don’t know

3.2 Background information on the people who translate

25. Do the people who translate in your organisation have some of the following forms of language-related training?
   - translation studies
   - language studies
   - studies in multilingual communication
   - other, please write in
   - I don't know

26. Have the people responsible for translation performed any language-related work in addition to the duties related to development co-operation projects?
   - yes
   - no
   - I don't know

   27. If you answered yes, please specify what type of work.
   If you answered no or I don't know, move on to the next page.
   - translation
   - interpreting
   - communication directly in foreign languages
   - other, please write in

4 **The future**

This study could gain an interesting dimension if you were willing to pass on a similar questionnaire in English for your partner NGO as well. A reply from your partner NGO is not, however, a prerequisite for using the responses of your NGO, they are considerably useful already on their own. The questionnaire form already exists in English but if necessary, it will also be available in French and in Spanish.

28. Would you be interested in passing on the questionnaire for your partner NGO(s), too?
   - no
   - yes, you can send the questionnaire to the e-mail address (the address of your organisation or the address of your partner)

29. Can your organisation be contacted later if further enquiries are necessary?
   - yes
   - no

30. I have tried to make this questionnaire as comprehensive as possible but you might feel that something is missing. Please, write freely below any comments on issues related to this questionnaire.

Thank you for your responses!