

A portrait of Prof. Thomas Kolawole Adeyanju, an older man with glasses, wearing a blue shirt and a dark suit jacket. He is smiling slightly and looking towards the camera. The background is a light, textured grey.

CHALLENGING ISSUES IN
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Prof. Thomas Kolawole

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ETHICS AND TOOLS IN LINGUISTIC FIELDWORK¹

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Introduction

Ethical behaviour is an important characteristic of scientific research. Many groups and individuals are involved in fieldwork, and this makes ethical requirements of field-based investigations somewhat complex.

Why do we do linguistic fieldwork? Primarily, we do linguistic fieldwork to document and describe linguistic diversity. The *Ethnologue* lists about 6,800 languages spoken in the world (Grimes, 2000), and several of these languages are endangered. Furthermore, a study of these languages provides data to deal with fundamental linguistic issues. For instance, there is a need to find out what the languages are used for, what they are like, what their universal characteristics are, what their variations are, etc. The researcher therefore goes to the field specifically to get data.

Linguistic data is a systematic, accessible collection of corpus, made up of: primary linguistic utterances and activities such as audio and video recordings of speech or written texts; secondary linguistic materials such as transcriptions, translations, annotations, glosses; metadata such as information about the speaker, the topic of a text, as well as the genre. Linguistic data form the empirical basis for the description of the language, grammars and other literary materials. It is a resource for the language community, which can be used for language education, language maintenance and language revitalization for literary materials, traditions, etc. Data collected is determined by the interest of the researcher, not the community, and this involves consultation, collation, control, management, storage, and distribution of such data.

Different tools are used at different stages of the research to collect and/or process such linguistic data. Different categories of people generate different forms of data. Relationship with the community should therefore be both respectful and reciprocal, and the product(s) from fieldwork projects should be acceptable to all the parties involved. It is very necessary then that field research should have some guidelines to define and control best practices in the area, considering the complexity of such investigations.

This chapter addresses some ethical issues regarding linguistic fieldwork and some of the tools that can be used to generate, capture and process data from linguistic fieldwork. In section 1, we present information on fieldwork, while

¹I will like to thank the participants at the initial workshop on the UNIUYO STEP-B Text-To-Speech Project, the International T-T-S Workshop instructors and participants and the UNIUYO STEP-B Team, and EmemObong Udoh for comments on an earlier version of this paper.

section 2 deals with information on tools, specifically hardware and software used for both collection and processing of data. Section 3 presents other special kinds of tools also used in the field for data collection. In section 4, we discuss ethical issues and the conclusion is presented in section 5.

Linguistic Fieldwork

Linguistic fieldwork is part of the linguistic research carried out in a "field" context, where the language is spoken. It involves the study of a language where it is spoken by its speakers. The investigator lives with the speakers of the language and shares a part of their lives as he/she collects the data.

Fieldwork can simply be defined as the collection of data in an ethical manner. It involves work in the normal context of the people who speak the language under study, e.g. Iko in Eastern Obolo, Akwa Ibom State, a classroom in UNICAL, Ariaria Market in Aba, a village of huts in the ranges of the Obudu Cattle Ranch, etc. Fieldwork is a very important component of the research process, and it should be well organised and follow a certain procedure. It usually forms a part of an organised, coherent research plan, but sometimes, the reality in the field is different, as everyday life is not guided by the same rules that guide academic exercises. Even though fieldwork should be guided by a theorised mode of action, the fieldworker should find a way to balance the reality with a proposed academic work plan.

Fieldwork methodology has changed in recent times from a non-cooperative model (research on a community) to a cooperative methodology (research on, for and with a community). Cameron et al (1992) explore three frameworks for doing language research in an ethical way: ethical research, advocacy research and empowerment research. Ethical Research is research on social subjects. In this type of research, there is commitment on the part of the researcher to carry out the research, and human subjects deserve ethical considerations. Advocacy Research is research on and for subjects, where commitment on the part of the researcher to carry out the research goes beyond just the commitment to get involved in the subjects. The researcher could get involved in community life, in areas like health campaigns, revitalisation efforts, etc. Empowerment Research is research on, for and with the subjects, involving dialogue and interactive methods. The researcher interacts with the community and such interactions empower them in various ways, such that they can continue the project beyond the scope of the research even after the researcher concludes a particular project.

Different groups are involved in fieldwork. The fieldworker mediates between all of them: the speech community and his own community (an institution, a funding body, an archive, etc.). Sometimes, there can be areas of misunderstanding. For instance, a fieldworker's interest in a language could be interpreted either in a positive or negative way. Negatively, his/her interest could mean one or two of the following: threat to the community, invasion of the community's privacy, exploitation, imperialism; etc. Positively such interest could mean one or more things. Communities may have more positive expectations of the

linguist, which may or may not be compatible with the linguist's own goals and desires. His interest could influence a language to be revived or not. The speakers could begin to value and use their language if they see outsiders become interested in it. The publication of a grammar or dictionary could have a positive impact on the perception of their language. They could realise that their language has an important grammatical structure; a fact they could have taken for granted. Such interest could even bring political benefit and recognition. A case in point is that of the the Sisaala-Paasaal in northern Ghana which was recognised as a District after the publication of the New Testament in 2002 (Raymond et al, forthcoming).

Fieldwork can be very demanding. As a fieldworker, you need very good qualities. Blommaert and Jie (2010) lists some of such qualities as: patience, endurance, stamina, persistence, flexibility, adaptability, empathy, tolerance, willingness to lose battle in order to win a war, creativity, humour, wit, diplomacy and being happy about small achievements. These qualities should be cultivated in order to avoid frustration.

Fieldwork involves coordination of a network of activities and interaction between several parties. It therefore needs to be well thought out and planned.

Phases of Fieldwork

Fieldwork is done in remote places and sometimes, it involves travelling long distances. That means that the researcher has to plan very carefully. A lot of the planning has to be done to cover different stages of a particular project.

It is important to prepare adequately for every phase of the fieldwork. Such preparation should include reading widely the literature on the language and people and related issues to the topic. You should decide on a theoretical frame and develop a plan that you should discuss with specialists and colleagues in the area. You may even begin a discussion with researchers in the location or the field. Even when you have such a tight plan, it is best to keep an open mind and try to be flexible for what you may find in the field may be different from your original plan. Be ready to adjust your plans in a way that would produce the best results.

Three of these stages are usually used as guide to plan fieldwork projects: pre-fieldwork, field-work proper and the post-fieldwork. Each of these phases, although sequential, have sub-parts that may overlap. These phases have also been widely explored.²

Pre-fieldwork Phase

The pre-fieldwork phase covers preparation and documentation. This phase begins from the beginning of the research which starts at the point of development of interest in a particular topic. The point to start is to develop a proposal and a work plan. This phase involves the preliminary stage, where the researcher has to make initial decisions concerning choice of the language to study and background information on the language and community, contact of local persons or institution.

² See for instance Urua 2008, Blommaert & Jie 2010.

There may be need to get special travel documents to enter the country where the community is located.

Decisions have to be taken concerning these, and the following can serve as a guide and a checklist of the issues to deal with in this phase before embarking on the trip:

1. Choice of language
2. Preliminary information on the geographic area
3. Preliminary library research on the language and related languages
4. Project goals
5. Funding, transportation, gifts,
6. Tool purchase
7. Contact of local person or close institution
8. Travel documents, insurance, etc

Fieldwork Proper

This phase involves the actual trip to the field and it should cover a detailed plan of what to do while in the community. There are several field techniques, all of them well-tested. It is important to plan which one of them to use for your purpose.

Even though one needs to be flexible with methods, the following methods of data collection are a good guide:

1. Elicitation
2. Collection
3. Observation
4. Interaction
5. Participation in community work

The researcher should have a concrete plan on what to do with them. Sometimes, it may be necessary to begin the analysis and processing of some of the data while in the field. Technology has greatly eased fieldwork. A major tool to use is the computer, preferably a laptop. Different software can be installed, with which to do several things (see section 2). The choice of tools will help in this, and if the correct tools are taken to the field, then the analysis can be done as the data are collected.

Post Fieldwork

Having collected the data, they have to be processed, annotated and even archived. The plan to do these should be put in place from the conception of the project, and it covers the following areas:

1. Data management
2. Identification
3. Annotation
4. Archiving

A plan on how to manage the data should be considered from the beginning of the planning as you decide on the method to use as well as the tools to use so that they can be budgeted for and purchased. The plan should also cover the methods and tools identification, annotation and archiving, if need be.

Tools

Different tools are used for the collection and processing of different kinds of data. Since language is such a complex phenomenon, different tools are used to support any linguistic fieldwork workflow. For instance, for actual language examples like words or sentences, transcriptions, descriptions, one may need just a pen and paper. For certain kinds of observations on language and speech events, dance, pictures of objects, you may need tape recorders, etc. For writing the reports and transcriptions, you may need notebooks as well as computers. However, beyond these simple and traditional tools, you may require more sophisticated tools as well as some traditional tools.

Choice of Tools

There is a wide range of tools to choose from – pens/pencils and notebook for notes, audio recorders for conversations and speech, analogue tape recorders, minidisk recorders, digital audio tape (DAT), video recorders for events, analogue VHS cameras, digital video cameras, etc. Microphone, headphones, a microphone stand, microphone windshield, a tripod for the camera, cables for connections, chargers for batteries, equipment manuals, tapes, disks, labels, waterproof pens, computer, etc. are also needed.

The data need special handling. It is advisable to archive handwritten notes as well as the language data too. It is best to use water-resistant pens like black biros. Use also one colour for initial notes and another colour each time you add materials in a kind of cycle. Provide a key to your colour scheme, and use good quality paper. Number your pages and put a title on each book. Put your name and contact details in each book and provide a footnote on the fonts you use because the IPA shows different symbols on different computers. You may convert document to PDF and use SAMPA symbols instead of the IPA. Make copies of your notes as well as your electronic data too. One safe way is to email your files to yourself as email attachments. Yahoo and Google provide huge space for such storage in the cloud.

In making a choice of tools for recording, it is important to consider some technicalities. You may use either analogue or digital equipment. But note that each has a set of advantages or disadvantages especially from the point of view of cost and aim of the recording. Analogue tools are cheap but noisy and they lack time coding. Analogue recordings are short-lived and they are not accessible to computational analysis. Digital tools on the other hand have many options. They are portable formats and their recordings are enduring.

Some Tools

Different tools are needed for different purposes in the field. Some level of processing of data is necessary even in the field. Both software and hardware tools are needed. See E-MELD 2005. *E-MELD School of Best Practice: Tool Room*. <http://emeld.org/school/toolroom/index.html>. The Summer Institute of Linguistics (SIL) and the Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology and some other

institutions have developed a very wide range of tools for collecting and processing different aspects of linguistic data. A few of these tools are presented here.

With the advancement of technology, there is quite a range of tools to select from for different aspects of linguistic data. The good thing is that this has made it easier and faster to collect data as well as analyze same even in the field. The important thing is to explore what is available in the area of one's interest and then make a sensible choice. There are tools for comparing languages and dialects like WORDSURV; tools for phonological analysis like PRAAT, CECIL; tools for text annotation like the IT (Interlinear Text) programme; tools for text concordance like FIESTA, CONC; tools for managing lexicons like Shoebox, FLEX; etc. Apart from these software, there are also other traditional tools that are very useful in collecting linguistic data, like wordlists, questionnaires, stimulus kits, etc. We explore some of these tools below, as we provide an overview of a selection of them. The researcher needs to explore them further, in order to master them in use for data collection or analysis.

Software

Software refers to the programmes that instruct the computer on what to do and how to do what. These programmes provide the instructions, procedures, algorithms that control the operation of data that the computer deals with. In linguistic fieldwork, software abound that deal with different aspects language study in the field, in the areas of comparison of wordlists, phonetic/phonological analysis, text analysis, morphological analysis, etc.

Praat

Praat is one of the most commonly used tools for speech analysis. It is used for transcription, annotation, audio editing, etc. It was developed by Paul Boersma, and published by the Institute of Phonetics Sciences of the University of Amsterdam (<http://www.fon.hum.uva.nl/praat/manual/Intro.html>).

The Praat system offers a variety of nice tools for interacting with speech data, including tools for transcribing and annotating on multiple tiers. It is a freeware Operating System, and it is Unicode compliant.

SIL Speech Tools 2.2

SIL Speech Tools 2.2 is used for transcription, audio editing/conversion. It is developed and published by SIL International. URL: http://www.sil.org/computing/catalog/show_software.asp?id=59

The SIL Speech Tools operates on MS Windows, and it consists of three pieces of software:

1. The Speech Analyzer, which transcribes files with the IPA, plays at different speeds, adds transcriptions in an interlinear format and imports data from **Find Phone** and **Shoebox**.

2. The Phonology Assistant, which manages transcribed Speech Analyzer files as well as other corpora, allows the user to view a chart of all the phonemes in a given corpus, and carry out phonological queries.
3. The IPA Help, which helps the user learn to read and produce the sounds of the International Phonetic Alphabet.

CLAN

CLAN is used for tagging, video editing/conversion as well as audio editing/conversion). It was developed by Leonid Spektor, and published by Carnegie Mellon University.

The CLAN Programs are downloaded, installed, and used as a single application. Functionally, however, CLAN has two parts. The first part is the CLAN editor which can be used to edit files in either CHAT or CA (Conversation Analysis) format. The editor also provides a wide range of additional functions, such as audio and video playback, linkage to audio and video, fonts for Roman and non-Roman orthographies, data validation, adding codes to files, and shipping data to other programs. The second part of CLAN is the set of data analysis programs. These programs are run from a separate window called the Commands window. The results of the analytic programs are sent to the CLAN Output window.

It is a Unicode compliant freeware which operates on Unix, MSWindows/winXP and MacOSX. More information on CLAN is found in its: <http://chilides.psy.cmu.edu/clan/>.

FLEx

Field Works Language Explorer (FLEx) is a tool for the recording and analysing linguistic data. It is designed to aid language workers with the tasks associated with dictionary development, morphological analysis, parsing and interlinearization. It is an integral part of the FieldWorks suite of tools, which deals with both linguistic and anthropological data and helps you to manage data from these areas and provides interaction between the data stored in the Explorer.

FLEx can be used to do many things, some of which include:

1. record of lexical information which can be used for the development of a dictionary;
2. rapid entry of words collected at a semantic domain word elicitation workshop;
3. record of vernacular texts;
4. view concordance of words within recorded texts;
5. create interlinear analysis of texts;
6. analyse morphology;
7. create a grammar sketch;
8. record anthropological field notes, etc.

It is a free ware and it can be downloaded from <http://fieldworks.sil.org/flex/>. It has instruction manuals for both the student and the instructor, which are constantly reviewed by the developers with feedback from the users.

CECIL

CECIL is the acronym for Computerised Extraction of Components of Intonation in Language. This is one of the SIL software used for phonological analysis. It accepts utterance from microphone or tape recording.

CECIL captures and stores utterance in computer files, and digitises language data for processing. It calculates and displays in a graphic form the acoustic intensity, as well as extracts pitch frequency. It has a number of good features, like play-back of the digitised data and a tutorial manual.

WORDSURV

The WORDSURV, developed by Wimbish, is a programme for comparing word lists. It facilitates wordlists from a variety of languages, and provides a framework for linguistic judgements of phonetically similar words and their degree of similarity. It also calculates and displays shared items between the languages compared as well as give their numerical estimates.

CONC

The CONC (Concordance) is a programme that is used for building concordance. It was designed in 1992 by Thomson for the Macintosh, and it was created to work with annotated texts. It can also process text that is not annotated. Even though it does not have an editing capability, it displays the concordance and text simultaneously. CONC can produce phrase, word, and morpheme as well as character concordances.

Hardware

You need electronic equipment for linguistic fieldwork. Technology has improved the quality of empirical research, as well made fieldwork less cumbersome. Tools have become more sophisticated, faster and less bulky. Since the commercialisation of battery operated desktop computers, laptops, a mini-laboratory could be taken to the field, with different software to deal with different aspects of the work. You also need cameras, storage media, head phones, speakers, tripods, microphones, recorders, solar panel to power some of the equipment, etc. See E-MELD. 2005. *E-MELD School of Best Practice: Hardware*.

<http://emeld.org/school/toolroom/hardware/index.html/>.

Computer

One of the most important hardware you need for your work is the computer. A computer is a very useful tool for work in and out of the field. It can receive input, process same and give expected output. To that extent, it has provided an

opportunity for different stages of the research process to be done even in the field. It has made it possible to feed in data as well as analyse same anywhere.

They are different types of computers: desk top computers, laptop computers and tablets. The desktops are stationary, but the laptops and tablets can be taken very conveniently to the field. They are different brands too. The choice of a brand should be determined by accessibility to maintenance in terms of spare parts and know-how. In Nigeria, Hewlett Packard (HP) is quite popular for this reason.

There are certain things to look out for in purchasing a computer for fieldwork. It is good to have a desk top which you can leave in the house. Even though this is an advantage, the epileptic nature of the power supply can be a challenge. However, an uninterrupted power supply device can help to deal with this problem. A laptop/tablet can also serve the purpose. A major advantage of the laptop/tablet is that it can be moved around and taken to any part of the field.

Whether you work with a desk top or a laptop, the kind of data you work with should guide you in your purchase of this tool. If you work with graphics or video, you need machines that have high processing capacity in terms of memory and power with a minimum of 4 gigabyte memory and at least 3.0 processing speed. For such works, about 15 inches screen size is advisable. However, you may go for smaller screens, which are lighter to carry about as well.

Microphones and Recorders

The microphone is an important hardware for work. It must have a flat frequency response, low noise, and medium sensitivity. The microphone needs to be placed as close to the talker's lips as possible, the headset configuration with an omnidirectional microphone being the best.

The recorder needs to have the best preamplifier you can get. If it does not have a good preamplifier, you need to use an external unit. If recording digitally, use the uncompressed PCM format at 24-bit/48,000 Hz. Recording technique is far more important than the latest, most expensive, and aggressively advertised digital equipment. It is best to stay away from equipment marketed to musicians and recording studios, as such equipment are likely to produce spectrally biased, or 'colored' recordings.

Audio Recording Equipment

When choosing audio recording equipment for field work, look for the following features:

1. Digital recorders should have the ability to record in Linear PCM (Pulse Control Modulation), at minimum 16-bit-depth and 44.1 or 48 kHz sample rate, and to store in uncompressed WAV format.
2. Digital output. Some devices record digitally, but only have an analog output, which leads to a 3 dB loss in recording quality.
3. An external microphone of good quality. A bad microphone can have a worse effect on sound quality than MP3 compression does.

1. A suitable power source. Even if electricity is available, it may fluctuate too much to be used for actual recording, but it may still be fine for recharging a battery. In areas without electricity, rechargeable batteries are useless without solar panels. Find out what sort of conditions to expect and choose a device with an appropriate power source.

The following are some of the audio equipment that are commonly used.

1. Solid state

Solid state recorders produce 16-bit uncompressed pulse code modulation format (PCM) recordings. Because solid state recorders record data in standard formats (such as wav), it is easy to transfer the data to a computer.

2. DAT

DAT recorders can record up to 120 minutes of uncompressed, high-quality mono audio onto magnetic tape. Migration of data from this recording to a personal hard drive is lossless when good transfer software is used. Unfortunately, portable DAT recorders have become difficult to find, but they are still good choices for field work.

3. MiniDisc

MiniDisc recorders produce lower quality recordings that are inadequate for detailed acoustic analysis. With the recent exception of the HiMD recorder, MiniDisc recorders compress data. Even the HiMD recorder currently requires expensive special equipment in order to upload the uncompressed file to a computer. Despite their ubiquity and ease of use, MiniDisc recorders are *NOT* recommended for the recording of endangered languages, because the resulting audio files are unsuitable for long-term preservation.

4. Hard disk

Hard disk recording devices have recently become available as small USB devices that produce very good recordings. Manufacturers such as USBPre, Digidesign, and M-Audio have developed equipment that record directly to the hard disk of a laptop. These devices are likely to become more common for field work in the future, even though they may be new.

Video Recording

When selecting and using video equipment for field work, keep the following points in mind:

1. Choose a camera that can record high-quality audio (linear PCM) at a minimum of 44.1 or 48 kHz, and be sure to set the camera to record at that sampling rate (many cameras come with a default setting of 32 kHz). If you must use a camera that does not meet these requirements, then you should use a separate audio recorder to make the sound recording.

2. If you can afford it, choose a 3-CCD camera (which has a separate CCD for each of the 3 color planes), rather than 1-CCD, because 3-CCD provides better resolution.
3. Use an external microphone of good quality (the built-in microphones are inadequate).

Other Tools

Many aspects of language can also be captured using some special tools. We shall look at questionnaires and stimulus kits.

Questionnaires

Questionnaires can be an important tool in linguistic fieldwork for a variety of reasons. They help the field linguist understand what questions might be of interest to him/her, either typological or/and theoretical. They also guide the researcher in both the elicitation of data as well in the extraction of information from natural texts. There are different types of questionnaires, but broadly speaking, they can be classified according to their aims. While some are meant to help the inexperienced linguist to gather enough data in a particular area, others focus on typological features that can support generalizations in some aspects of the grammar of a particular language or a group of languages.

A wide range of questionnaires can be found in the Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology website: http://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/tools-at-lingboard/stimulus_kits.php. Some of the questionnaires found in this website include: The Lingua Descriptive Studies Questionnaire by Bernard Comrie & Norval Smith, The Atlas of Pidgin and Creole Language Structures Questionnaire by Susanne Michaelis, Philippe Maurer, Magnus Huber, Martin Haspelmath, A Database System for Language Typology by Dik Bakker & Anna Siewierska, etc.

Stimulus Kits

Language is a very interesting phenomenon. Some aspects of linguistic activity can best be captured with stimuli that evoke the desired expression of the activity sought. Elicitation kits have been designed to help answer questions in specific areas. Some of such kits are given below.

Hitting - kicking / Put on - take off

Stimulus films are used for the elicitation of verbs expressing, on the one hand, events of hitting and kicking, and, on the other hand, events of putting on and taking off clothing and accessories like belts, watches, glasses, etc. The Stimulus films were developed and produced by students of the University of Leipzig during a course on Semantic Typology in 2012, led by Frank Seifart, and he can be contacted on frank_seifart@eva.mpg.de.

Pear Story

The Pear Story is a kind of silent video clip, shown to native speaker consultants, as they are asked to tell the story of the video in their own words. The video clip is found in the Pear Story Website <http://www.pearstories.org>.

Scope Fieldwork Project

The Scope Fieldwork Project kit was developed by Benjamin Bruening of the University of Delaware as part of a project funded by the U.S. National Science Foundation (grant number BCS-0518308). This kit explores the syntax of quantifiers and scope in the languages of the world. They are a series of pictures that can be used to elicit scope judgments from native speakers of the language being investigated. More details on this kit are found in project website:

<http://udel.edu/~bruening/scopeproject/scopeproject.html>.

L&C Field Manuals and Stimulus Materials

These are unique resources that have been compiled over nearly twenty years of investigation of under-studied languages by the Language & Cognition Group at the Max Planck Institute for Psycholinguistics in Nijmegen. More details on these kits and manuals can be found in <http://fieldmanuals.mpi.nl/>. This site contains several materials that can be used for the field elicitation of semantic data. It also contains materials for the field collection of verbal behaviour.

Story-builder

Story-builder is a picture card for language activities. It was initiated as a research course project in the Cognitive Systems program at the University of British Columbia. It is an adaptable set of picture cards designed to facilitate creative storytelling and elicit natural speech on a wide range of topics. Speakers use 'character cards' and 'action cards' to create visual stories, which can be narrated in the speakers' own words. The deck can be adapted for a wide range of purposes, from field linguistic research to language pedagogy and games. More details on this tool can be found in <http://www.story-builder.ca/>.

Ethical Issues

Fieldwork has some ethical concerns, which span its three phases, with regard to: ownership, rights and responsibilities, participant relations, etc. There are some questions that need to be addressed, most of which border on fairness.

1. Is it fair for a researcher to invade the privacy of members of a community, disrupt their program, collect data from them and take the data away without putting back something?
2. What rights do all the partakers of the research have to the data?
3. What will the community have to do?
4. What is the purpose of the study?
5. What will be done with the data from the field?
6. What are possible benefits to the speakers and their community?

7. What are possible disadvantages, harm or discomfort that might affect them (including, in many countries, political issues)?
8. What are their rights to anonymity and confidentiality?
9. What are their intellectual property rights?

Ethics

Ethics refer to some kind of prescription and prohibition of activities in any society, in this case a research project. Field research involves a network of participants, have responsibilities towards each other. It is necessary therefore for codes of conduct to be prescribed to define and guide a best-practice standard for all participants involved in a particular project. This has been done elsewhere and some examples include:

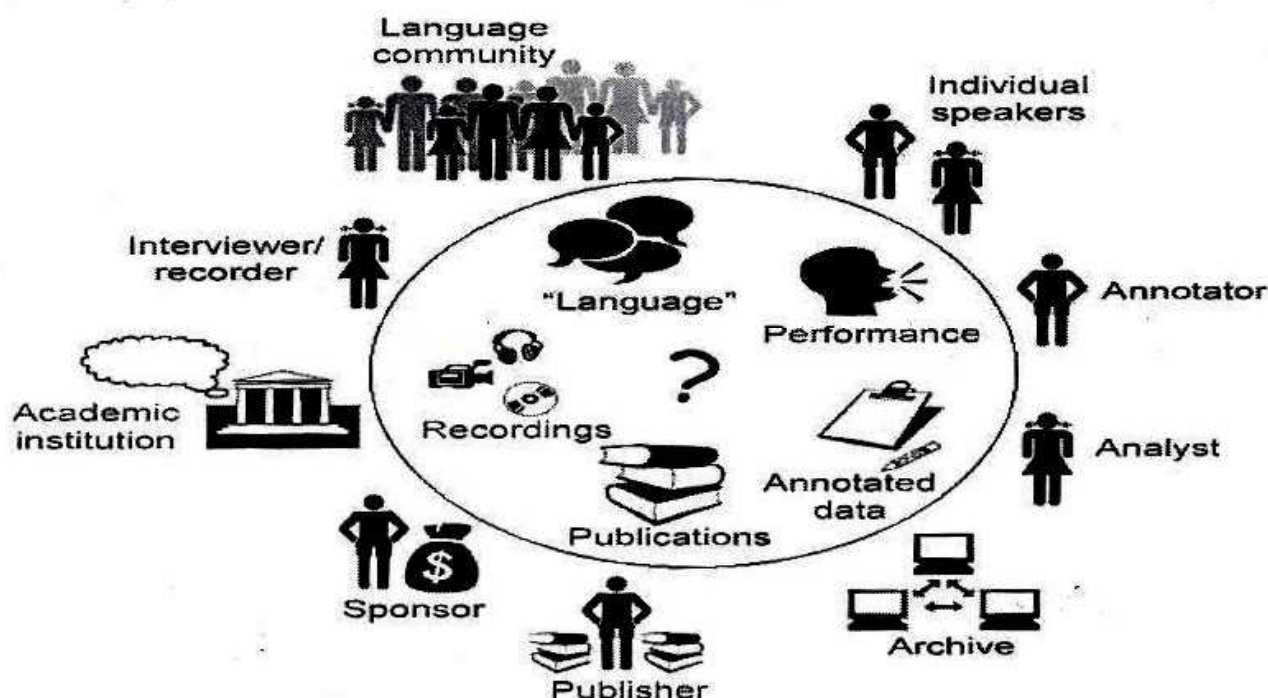
1. DoBeS Code of Conduct
<http://www.mpi.nl/DOBES/INFOpages/applicants/DOBES-coc-v2.pdf>
 2. The EMELD Electronic Metastructure for Endangered Languages Data School of Best Practice <http://emeld.org/school/>
 3. General Ontology for Linguistic Description
<http://linguistics-ontology.org/>, etc.
- There are three main important responsibility areas:
1. Ethical responsibilities which deal with participant relations, decision-making, guiding principles, etc.
 2. Legal responsibilities which deal with legal Rights, intellectual property rights, copyrights, etc.
 3. Practical responsibilities which deal with relationship with the communities, organising the project, running the project, etc.

The fieldworker has responsibilities to the community he/she is working on, and should deal with them in fairness and according to his conscience. The United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights- Article 1 states: "All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood." (1948).

The researcher has some responsibilities to the different categories of people he deals with in the course of his work. His relationship with them is crucial to his work. He should be transparent with all categories of people and let them be involved with the work in the way he said they will be.

Agreements and contracts should be handled with care. Such agreements include those with the community leaders regarding different aspects of the project right from the beginning. There may also be the need for permission from individual consultants. The issue of rights to different aspects of the project should be defined from the beginning. Different participants have different rights to different parts of the data. They include the speakers of the language, the annotator, the analysts, the archivist, the publisher, the academic institution and community, the funding agency, etc.

Having rights may mean different things, like: rights to see, rights to hear, rights to read, rights to financial benefits, etc. These different participants have different rights to different parts of the data indeed. The language community and the individual speakers have the rights to the language. They are the owners of the language. In fact, they use it without having to study it because it is acquired, and they really take it for granted. The annotator may or may not be the one who goes to the field, but he has access to: recorded original data, field notes, transcriptions, and the annotations. The analyst and the archivist work on the annotated data and convert same to a format that can be stored in the electronic archive. They analyse the data they have access to: the annotated data and the archived format of the data. The publisher and the sponsors have access and rights to the publications, processed and analyzed data, articles, books, journals, etc. These are prepared by the different categories of people that deal with the data. The academic institution and community have access and rights to recordings, the publications, etc. In Figure 1, we present a picture of the potential owners of rights to different aspects of the data.



**Figure 1 : Potential owners of rights to linguistic data
(Raymond/Salffner/McGill (forthcoming))**

Copyrights

“Copyright” refers to the ownership and distribution of a particular work: who owns what aspects of the result and whether it is legitimate to distribute or publish the result. As a form of property, copyright can be inherited, given away or sold” (Dwyer 2006:46).

All these players who have different kinds of rights to the different versions of data have copyrights, depending on what they are doing.

Copyrights cover economic rights (rights to reproduce, broadcast, perform, adapt, distribute the work); moral rights (rights to claim ownership, right to object

to distortion/modification of the work), etc. The World Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO) harmonises national intellectual property laws, and assist member nations in their implementation and promotion of the protection of intellectual property.

Ethical Guidelines for Students and Researchers

There is need to draw up an ethical guideline for our students and researchers, so as to define a kind of “best practice” for research. We are not aware of any such guide in Nigeria, but internationally, there are several like: The DoBeS, E-MELD, GOLD, etc. such codes of conduct, designed to guide research networks fall under normative ethics; for they ‘prescribe best-practice standards for field situations’ (Dwyer 2006). Such guidelines engender productive as well as cordial relationships between all parties involved in the research process, for they provide a structure upon which methodological transparency and smooth communication thrive. It is important to be explicit in the ethical norms chosen for any project.

Why should we have a code of ethics? We should for a number of reasons. Such a code should address the different roles played by the participants in terms of both the potential benefits and the detriments to all the parties. Specifically, a code should define professional protocols, ethical and moral responsibilities of participants, as well as the behaviour of participants. It should also align personal goals of researchers to institutional goals and strategic plans, streamline policies regarding research and fieldwork in different disciplines. Control submissions and renewals, moderate and control value added to the lives of the tax payer, foster public confidence in our research and fieldwork, as well as provide a structure for transparency and accountability.

Ethical Guide for Participation in the UNIUYO STEP-B Text-To-Speech Project

Normative guides have proved quite useful in fieldwork projects. Some people (like Dwyer 2006), indeed recommend that research teams should design ethical norms that specifically relate to their projects. Although there is a need for a generic code, non has been drawn up yet in linguistic field research, even though there are several individual codes.

The following guideline is part of a proposal for the UNIUYO STEP-B T-T-S Project. This guide is for participants and all workers in the project: language users and the communities, fieldworkers, consultants, co-researchers (local and international), the academic community, the employers, funding agencies, etc.

The guide addresses the following targets of responsibilities: copyright issues, plagiarism, the fieldworker, consultants, the language community, the host institution, the host government, co-researchers, data users, etc.

1. All parties in the project must support the general frameworks defined by WIPO, UN, UNESCO, etc.

2. All parties must be careful to duly acknowledge works consulted appropriately and must not plagiarism
3. Should ensure a good plan of this aspect of the project
4. Should promote mutual respect and relationship with the community
5. Should operate in a way that will allow future work with others
6. Should support revitalisation of the language by putting back something
7. The feelings of the consultants must not be offended
8. No political activities should be carried out under the STEP-B T-T-S Project
9. The consultants must be properly informed about the project
10. Should be involved in decisions regarding the data for commercial purposes
11. Contracts should be signed with the community on issues concerning data
12. The language community must be properly informed about the project.
13. All parties must recognise the rules of the host institution
14. All parties must recognise the laws of the host government
15. All parties must treat one another with mutual respect, fairness and trust.
16. All parties must respect the intentions of the recordings
17. All parties must acknowledge all parties involved in the collection and processing of the data at different stages; through references to them.
18. The data users must not transfer data to a third party without reference to the owners of the data.

Conclusion

The aim of research is to investigate different aspects of man. For most disciplines there is need to go to the field to collect data for investigation and process same through different stages. Several tools are needed for work on different types of linguistic data. Technology has greatly improved the quality and eased the work of the linguist in the field. But it requires more work on the part of the fieldworker, and that has also increased his/her obligations to the different parties involved in fieldwork projects. It is important that we do not infringe on the rights of the different participants of the projects. We need good working relationship as well as best research outputs. There is need to work out concrete guidelines to define ethical behaviour of all participants in a clear and transparent manner in a research project. There is also the need to define a set of best practices to guide everyone in a research project.

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