NOTES ON MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS AMONG THE FULANI OF DIAMARE (NORTH CAMEROON)

by VEIT ERLMANN

I. Introduction

The Central Sudan, enclosing the northern parts of the Cameroons and Nigeria, South-Niger and parts of Chad, has been viewed by different scholars under various aspects as one coherent area sharing certain cultural traits. Some of these are due to the impact of Islam during the past 500 years: town-culture, feudal social hierarchy, class distinctions, and literacy.

The impact of Islam is strongest among the Hausa, Fulani¹, Kanembu, Kanuri, Manga, Kotoko, and Shoa Arabs. For more than five centuries there has been a constant flow of economic, social and cultural exchange between these groups which also left its traces in the musical culture. Ethnomusicology does not seem to have focused very much on this area², the Hausa being in fact the only ethnic group whose musical culture can be said to have been thoroughly explored³. Kanuri, Manga, and Shoa music are almost unknown, while the musical cultures of the Kanembu and Kotoko received at least some attention in few articles and casual record notes⁴. As for the Fulani of Cameroon some records exist ⁵, but no written information on their music is available. Hence, this paper attempts to give a general account of the musical organology of the Fulani in North Cameroon and to contribute to the completion of ethnomusicological knowledge in this area⁶ through the presentation of new material and the basic facts of Fulani organology (names of instruments and their parts, social usage, history).

II. Fulani Musical Culture

The Fulani of Diamaré, a plain in the extreme north of Cameroon⁷, are part of the huge Fulani nation of now about 6 million people living in the savannah belt of West and Central Africa. The Diamaré Fulani originated in Macina (in present-day Mali) from where they emigrated in the 16th century. After having stayed in Hausa and Kanuri territory for some generations they finally arrived in Diamaré by the end of the 17th century. The usual Hausa classification of Filanin gida ("town Fulani") and Filanin daji ("bush Fulani") does not operate in Diamaré, since a majority of 81% of the Fulani are farmers, while only 6% specialise in stock-farming (Podlewski 1966:16). With about 50% of the total population of Diamaré, the Fulani occupy a leading social and political position, while the other half consists of six major non-Islamic groups (Giziga, Tupuri, Mundang, Mofu, Musgun, and Mboku). Although Islam is embraced by these groups with growing rapidity, musical culture contact between them and the Fulani does not take place. For the past 150 years the Fulani social system roughly resembled that of the Hausa kingdoms, with a king (laamii'do, pl. laamii'be) on top of the hierarchy, followed by a small class of noblemen and

free Fulani farmers, and a mass of serfs, slaves and people of low occupational groups (musicians, for instance) at the bottom. In recent times, this system has changed greatly, ruling positions now being occupied by a class of *nouveaux riches* of merchants and state officials.

Fulani musical culture, like many other cultural and social institutions of Diamare, corresponds with Hausa models in many ways. The only substantial difference may be the fact that the "holy war" (jihad) waged against the "pagan" Hausa states and the foundation of the Sokoto empire by Fulani religious leaders in the early 19th century had a stronger puritanic impact in the eastern Adamawa province than in the centre of the empire itself: Fulani musical life seems less richer and vivid than in Hausaland.

Non-professional music-making is the least important field of Fulani musical activity. As this kind of music-making is socially disapproved when done in public, it is restricted to either informal purposes or to a strictly private atmosphere on rare social events.

Generally musical activity is the responsibility of three groups of professional musicians. These are by order of statistical importance⁸:

musicians. These are by order of sta	msticai mipoi	tance.
daacoo'be (sing. daacoowo)	4,8%	of all professional musicians
<u>b</u> oo'en (sing. boojo)	9,6%	of all professional musicians
wambaa'be (sing. bambaa'do)	85,6%	of all professional musicians
The daacoo'be who do not use mu	isical instrume	ents must be regarded as the Fulani
professional musicians par excellen	nce. It can b	e asserted that they were the first
professional Fulani musicians before the definitive settlement in Diamaré. They are		
stock-farmers of pure Fulani origin without exception, and so are their clients. The		
daacoo'be's repertoire consists only of praise-songs glorifying their clients' wealth		
in cattle and women.		

The <u>boo'en</u> are the most recent group of professional musicians that emerged at the beginning of this century. Like the <u>daacoo'be</u> they are pure Fulani and stockfarmers, but their clients are <u>laamii'be</u> (kings) for whom they recite long epic poems. Most of these poems deal with local Fulani history, while some are in the tradition of the Islamic penitential sermon.

The wambaa'be are in close dependence of the Fulani system of kingship. Their formation as an occupational group dates back to the end of the 18th century when Fulani courts were first established in Diamaré. Unlike their fellow musicians of the daacoo'be- and boo'en-groups whom they do not esteem very much, not all wambaa'be are of Fulani origin. As a result of the Fulani iconoclasm during the 19th century jihad ("holy war"), 32,9% of the wambaa'be are still of foreign ethnic origin even today? The remaining 67,1% of Fulani wambaa'be represent a new phenomenon, for most of them realized only recently that professional music-making can be a welcome source of additional income.

The clients of the wambaa'be can be roughly divided into three groups. The first is the ruling nobility, i.e. the laamii'be (kings) and court dignitaries. Relationships between this group of clients and the wambaa'be are conceived in terms of mutual obligations and faithfulness. Wambaa'be attached to royal courts by permanent and often hereditary bonds have to perform for their clients on regular, recurring occasions. The clients in turn offer economic support. The majority of clients in

Fulani society can be grouped in the remaining two classes. The second group includes wealthy merchants, state officials, and more rarely, exceedingly rich farmers. The third group comprises ordinary people such as petty farmers and traders. Relationships between these groups and the wambaa'be are of a less permanent nature and are similar to those between freelance craftsmen and their business partners. The relationship between laamii'be and wambaa'be has the character of a highly formalized institution involving a master-servant relationship, while that between wambaa'be and the other groups is largely viewed as the exchange of commodities.

With few exceptions, the main body of musical genres produced by the wambaa'be are praise-songs (mantoore), performed on the occasion of particular social events which vary with the groups of clients addressed. With the laamii'be (kings) these events centre around court ceremonies such as the weekly greeting-ceremony on Thursday night and Friday morning. Wealthy merchants are the main clients in a number of events such as naming ceremonies, weddings, and a ceremony called dubdo in which solidarity with community members is expressed through ostentatious gift-giving. Ordinary people do not establish contact with wambaa'be except during a highly popular form of entertainment (hiirde) when men compete for the favours of local prostitutes. Yet however varied these social events may be, they always express the same socially valued norms: prosperity, lineage descent, power, etc. In the context of praise-singing, generosity in the giving away of gifts to the wambaa'be is the only appropriate means to show conformity with social norms, and the image of the client that has been depicted in the song performed in his honour. Payment which fails to appear or gifts reckoned as mean by community and wambaa'be standards will provoke the musicians' sanctions such as offence and mockery. It is thus the social function of these praise-songs to secure the social status quo by confirming the legitimacy of personal fortune and class distinctions.

III. Terms for Musical Instruments and their Parts

The names of musical instruments as shown in Appendix A can be divided into four categories depending on the languages and linguistic forms:

- 1. The first category includes all terms proper to Fulfulde, the Fulani language. Quite often these terms can be translated as for instance those of the <u>baggu</u>-type of drums. In Fulfulde <u>baggu</u> simply means "drum". While <u>baggu</u> is a term which only applies to drums, <u>luwal</u>, <u>tummude</u>, and <u>faadu</u> also refer to objects other than musical instruments. <u>Luwal</u> means "(animal) horn", <u>tummude</u> means "calabash", and <u>faadu</u> is the term for any bottle-gourd. The term <u>jalo</u> for the iron bells is derived from Shoa <u>jallo</u> ("bell"). <u>Toonteere</u>, an original Fulfulde term for "kettle-drum", might be derived from the verb <u>toonta</u> ("to reply"). <u>Wombere</u>, finally, is a synonym of <u>gombal</u>, the term for a section of a corn-stalk (Taylor 1932:66).
- 2.- This category includes all terms which have been integrated into Fulfulde from foreign languages by suffixation. Their distinguishing mark is the termination on the suffix -ru, which is in fact a common Fulfulde suffix for foreign words. Two of these terms ending on -ru, have been integrated without further changes: algaytaaru from Hausa algaita, and moolooru from Hausa molo. Others like zantuuru, buusawru and

gegeeru show slight modifications. As the Fulani do not know the Hausa sound -sh-, it is usually transformed into -j-, -z-, or -c- in Diamare whenever a Hausa word with this sound is used. As for buusawru, there is probability that the word comes from the Hausa verb busa ("to blow"). Gegeeru is a strange mixture of Arabic, Hausa and Fulfulde elements. As the original Arabic word is ghugha (Hause 1948: 20), it was assimilated in Hausa as goge. This Hausa mediation is still perceptible in the synonymous Fulfulde-form gogiiru. Gegeeru might be a stronger Fulfulde-form which still retains the verb yeegugo ("to stroke"). The suffix -ru- in kunkuru would suggest that this term also belongs to the second category. There is some evidence that the term is a Fulfulde variant of ganga, for Harris (Harris 1930:315) notes an instrument in Yauri called gunguru. As this instrument is described as a cylindrical double-membrane snared-drum (Harris 1932:116), gunguru can be identified as a Fulfulde variant under the condition that it also refers to this type of drum. In Diamaré, however, where kunkuru are the two small kettle-drums, and where the transformation of the initial -g- in gang a into -k- is unlikely, it is possible that kunkuru is derived from the Kanuri term kungulu (see also section VII).

- 3. The third category comprises foreign terms that have been subject to considerous changes in their entire structure. Some of these words differ from their original source, in that a sound unknown to Fulfulde has been assimilated, while the rest of the morphems were left unaltered. As -sh-, for instance, is alien to Fulfulde, sham'bara has been transformed into cambara, gashi into gaasi. Likewise, the Arabic cluster -bl- is not spoken in Fulfulde, and the -bl- in tabl became -bal in tumbal and -bel in the diminutive form tumbel¹⁰. A somewhat different case is ciidal which certainly derives from the less apparent Kotoko-form sila. Taylor's etymological derivation (Taylor 1932:173) from the Fulfulde verb siida ("to joke") seems less probable. Kuykuu has also to be integrated into this group because of the shift from -g- to -k- and because the Kanuri sound \mathfrak{g} is unknown in Fulfulde.
- 4. The last category includes words which have been taken over from foreign languages without further modifications: gangā kūrā, garaya, and kolo.

The plural forms of these terms do not generally correspond with those of their respective etymological sources. Apart from the first category, which uses the appropriate Fulfulde plurals, and the second category, which has the correct plural suffix -ji of the <u>d</u>u-class, plural forms in category three and four are more or less open to new formations. In garayaaji and gaasiiji, the usual -ru singular suffix of category two subconsciously served as a point of departure although the original Hausa resp. Kanuri plurals are garayu and gashia. The -en in the plural of cambara is another common Fulfulde plural suffix for foreign words. The plural on -e in ciidal conforms to the Fulfulde rules prescribing an -e for the plural of the -gal class to which the term ciidal might belong.

In contrast to the collective terms for instruments, which are used and understood by every member of the society, names for parts of instruments are specialized terms often used according to individual preference and knowledge. Whereas most non-musicians would not be able to name these parts, the wambaa'be tend to offer divergent terms depending on their ethnic origin. For instance, some Fulani wambaa'be would call the disc of the reed-holder on the algayta by the appropriate Fulfulde word for "disc": be'du. Others still would use nyorgo which more correctly applies to plaited pot-lids. Hausa-wambaa'be, however, will refer to this part

as garkuwa.

The following table presents all terms for musical instruments and their respective etymology:

Fulfulde Hausa Kanuri Arabic Kotoko

etymology etymology term etymology etymology all drums of the baggu type faadu luwal toonteere tummude womb ere algayta(aru) algaita al-ghaita buusawru busa ghugha

šila

gegeeru goge moolooru molo zantuuru shantu bomboro bambaro cambara sham'bara

ciidal gaasi gash í

kuŋkuru kuŋgūţu tumbel tabl

gangå kúrà gangá kúrà

garaya garaya

(kolo) koló

Surprisingly, the linguistic classification established above does not correspond with the respective geographical, ethnic, and historical origin of the instruments. For instance, not all instruments bearing Hausa names — as one might suppose — have been imported from Hausaland. Likewise, Bagirmi or Kotoko names do not necessarily indicate that the instrument came to the Fulani from these areas. As puzzling as the linguistic situation might appear, it can nevertheless tell something about the organological situation in Fulani musical culture. This will become clear in the following sections where I shall try to view and classify musical instruments under geographical, ethnic, and historical perspectives.

IV.Instruments of Arab Origin

As a result of the penetration of Islam, six musical instruments played among the Fulani are of Arab origin. Most of these instruments were unknown to the Fulani before their $jih\bar{a}d$ ("holy war") and have been adopted from the Hausa or Kanuri. Since the Arab origins of some of these instruments, such as the oboe algayta (see Fig. 1) and the long trumpets gaasi (see Fig. 2) have been discussed by various scholars, I shall not enter into a detailed discussion of these Arab sources here¹¹.











Fig. 1. Algayta

Fig. 2. Gaasi

Fig. 3. Tumbel

Fig. 4. Toonteere

Fig. 5. Wombere (left),

tummude (right)

Fig. 6. Luwal



It should be noted, however, that in some cases the Arabic or derived Fulfulde terms do not correspond with the original Arab instrument. For instance, the Arabic tabl, which served as the etymological source for the Fulfulde tumbel (see Fig. 3), refers to kettle-drums in Arab musical culture. Among the Fulani, however, the kettle-drum is called toonteere (see Fig. 4), while the term tabl came to be applied to the frame drum tumbel.

V. Instruments of Fulani Origin

Of the 24 musical instruments played among the Fulani only four can be said to be of old Fulani origin. Most of them are still in use today among the nomadic Fulani of those areas which the Diamaré Fulani left 400 years ago. The flute wombere, (see Fig. 5) for example, has to be regarded as one of the oldest instruments of Fulani musical culture, Among the various Fulani groups of Mali, Niger, and Benin the instrument is known as sereendu, fulannu¹², or poopiliwal (Ba 1966:85). While the material of construction may vary here, and the Diamaré Fulani do not bind the flute with bark, the instrument is always an end-blown flute, blown out of the side of the mouth. Among the Fulani of Diamare wombere used to be played by shepherds until shortly after World War II. Then it came to be treated as an instrument of professional musicians, while at the same time the traditional stalk of millet was substituted for by an iron pipe. The calabash gourd tummude (see Fig. 5) is also of ancient origin, as it is known not only to all the nomadic Fulani, but also to many other ethnic groups such as the Songhai, for instance (Surugue 1972:49-63). Naturally, bowls of gourd are among the few household goods nomadic Fulani usually carry with them. Unlike the Djelgobe Fulani of Niger who also play tummude pressed against the chest and across stretched legs¹², the Diamaré Fulani only play it upside-down on the ground. The technique of rubbing the calabash along a wooden stick seems to be peculiar only to the Diamaré Fulani.

Toonteere (see Fig. 4), the wooden kettle-drum, although of old Arab origin, is probably the only drum the Fulani knew before they settled in Diamaré. The "Histoire de Pette", a local chronicle of Diamaré, recorded by E. Mohammadou, mentions that toonteere has been carried along during the Fulani emigration from Bornu into Diamaré (Mohammadou 1970:282).

Though the Fulfulde term faadu suggests a Fulani origin of the gourd-rattle, there are no references to its use among the nomadic Fulani. Nikiprowetzky (n.d.:75) has a photo of a gourd-rattle which he believes to be a Fulani instrument. Its name, however, would suggest that it is a Hausa instrument. Caki da gyan'dama (Nikiprowetzky spells it tchakis di gendama) is in fact the gourd-rattle of the Hausa (see Ames and King 1971:5-6) but unlike the Fulani instrument the Hausa rattle has a handle attached to it.

Luwal, the horn, finally (see Fig. 6), could possibly be of ancient origin as well. Although Eguchi (1973) in his account of the Fulani circumcision rites in Maroua does not mention the playing of this horn, the only player I met with said that he was a barber who also circumcised and played the horn during the rites. Under the condition that *luwal* is or used to be associated with circumcision rites, and in view of the archaic character of the texts going with these rites, we may assume that *luwal* is an ancient Fulani instrument.

With the exception of wombere, faadu, and tummude which feature among the most popular instruments nowadays, toonteere and luwal are almost out of use. Although most courts of laamii'be and District Heads still possess an often broken specimen of toonteere, its function as a signalling instrument has been largely replaced by gun-shots. Luwal does not seem to have been very popular even in former times, because circumcision rites which use musical instruments and which do not conform with the Islamic tradition, have been frowned upon by the leaders of the jihā d (Eguchi 1973:205, n.6).

VI. Instruments of Hausa Origin

As opposed to what has been said too often, musical instruments in the Central Sudan that are commonly associated with the penetration of Islam, like the long brass trumpets, were not necessarily adopted from the Hausa. Although in the case of the brass-trumpets the Hausa term kakaki has become widely accepted, there is some evidence that the instrument was in fact first used in Bornu (Besmer 1971: 77, Smith 1964:351p.). Likewise, the term $ga\eta ga$ quite often passed for a genuine Hausa generic term for the double-membrane cylindrical snared-drum played all over West Africa. It seems, however, that ganga is a Kanuri term and that the instrument is of old Bornu origin, In fact, one finds that only six Fulani instruments are of Hausa origin: cambara, moolooru, buusawru, bomboro, garaya, and zantuuru. With the exception of the rubbing stick cambara and the jaw's harp bomboro all these instruments have most presumably been adopted by the Fulani during the state foundations in Diamare. Buusawru, entirely identical with the Hausa horn k'aho (for a photo see Ames and King 1971: Fig. 2) is only found in three specimens at the court of the laamii'do of Maroua. Here, as among the Hausa, the instrument is considered as the paramount instrument associated with kingship, and it is also played by the chief of all court musicians, i.e. sarkin bambadawa. Although the Hausa parallel is obvious, it cannot be excluded that the instrument is originally a widespread instrument of "pagan" tribes of the Chad area¹³.

As for the three-stringed lute *moolooru* (see Fig. 7), its history has been recently explored by K. Gourlay (1976). Its adoption by the Fulani is certainly as old as that of the horn *buusawru*. Following informants' statements, it was at first played in connection with the calabash gourd *tummude* (as it is still today), until in about 1900 it was also combined with *cambara* in the *moolooru dammere* ensemble (see section IX and Appendix B). The two-stringed lute *garaya* (see Fig. 8) is not a very popular instrument today, as it is only played by a few members of the hunters' occupational group. Emphasis, however, has to be put on the fact that the Fulani *garaya* does not correspond with the Hausa instrument of the same name. Rather it is a variant of the Hausa'k'wamsa (Krieger 1968:407p.).

Zantuuru derived from the Hausa shantu (see the front cover of the record Bärenreiter Musicaphon BM30L 2307, Nigeria — Hausa Music II), is the most popular instrument of non-professional musicians today, and it is an essential part of any household. I cannot say positively whether it is of recent importation or not¹⁴.

According to some wambaa'be, the rubbing stick (see Fig. 9) cambara was not played before the turn of the century, and is quickly dying out today. In the area of Maroua it is only played by two groups of wambaa'be. Bomboro is an imitation of





Fig. 8. Garaya

Fig. 9. Cambara

Fig. $10.\,Mbaggu$

ca'b'baawu

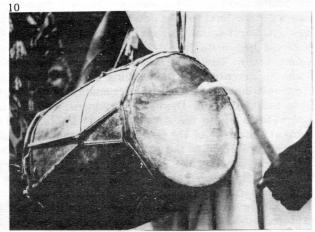
Fig. 11. Mbaggu

luu<u>d</u>irgu

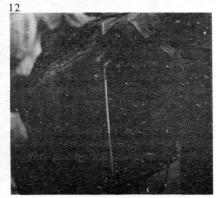
Fig. 12. Gangá kúrà











the European jaw's harp and replaced the Hausa zagadu (Krieger 1968:418p.). Its date of introduction in Diamare should not be long ago (although well before the thirties), for Schaeffner (1933:70) saw it in Garoua (200km south of Maroua) in 1932 played by a Hausa smith. Since the release of S. Arom's record of Djelgobe Fulani music of Niger¹² we also know that the jaw's harp is not entirely unknown among other Fulani groups. Of old, forgotten nomadic origin, then, and reintroduced by Hausa mediation in the first decades of this century, bomboro did not enjoy more than a temporary renaissance. In Diamaré, it used to be quite popular with youngsters of both sexes some five years ago, but in 1976 it was not played any more and there was only one smith in Maroua who knew how to manufacture it.

VII. Instruments of Kanuri Origin

As has been pointed out, the Hausa influence on Sudanese culture has been less effective than has been assumed. The Diamaré Fulani have been in quite lengthy contact with the empire of Bornu and the deep influence of Kanuri culture has left marked traces in Fulfulde. Similarly, many musical instruments have been adopted from Bornu. Although not much is known of Kanuri musical culture 15, it is clear that above all the Kanuri double-membrane cylindrical snared-drum ganga served as prototype for all drums of the baggu-type. As baggu ca'b'baawu (see Fig. 10) and baggu-luudirgu (see Fig. 11) form a part of the ganyal- and buusaw(ru)-ensembles performing for important court ceremonies, there can be little doubt that both types look back on a long period of use among the Fulani, which certainly began with the establishment of the state hierarchy and courts in the early 19th century 16. Ganga kúrà (see Fig. 12) is a drum which is not met with among the Hausa, and although its name indicates a Kanuri origin, there is no reliable information as to its use among the Kanuri. Lukas' definition as a "drum of the Shenu which is beaten with both hands at both sides" (Lukas 1967:200), does not mention that the rear membrane is beaten with a straight stick.

Apart from the drums of the <u>baggu</u>-type and gazza kura, most instruments of Arab origin came to the Fulani (and Hausa) through the mediation of the Bornu empire. This is clearest in the case of the brass trumpet gaasi which is etymologically close to Kanuri gashi. While most West African tribes copied the Hausa term kakaki, the Diamare Fulani preferred to adopt the Kanuri term. Like the oboe algazta, which was most probably used first in the Bornu empire and subsequently spread to Hausaland, both these instruments first became part of the court regalia during the early 19th century¹⁷.

Although the pair of kettle-drums kunkuru (see Fig. 13) is of Arab origin 18, there is no unequivocal information that it is also used in Bornu. Ames, Gregersen and Neugebauer (1971:26) say that the Kanuri term kungunu would be a borrowing from the Hausa term kalangu for the hour-glass drum, and Lukas (1967:200) holds kungunu to be a synonym of gangunu kununu. Hause's (1948:23) suggestion that gungunu be the typical Fulani variant of gangunu, and ru being the well known Fulfulde suffix, offers no further clarification, since it does not take into account the morphology of the instruments referred to. The small kettle-drums of the kununu type being unknown in Hausaland and the linguistic attempts by the authors cited above being ambivalent, we may assume that kununu was not borrowed from Bornu or Hausaland.





Fig. 15. Jalo







The synonymous term kolo used by some wambaabe is ambivalent as well. Among the Hausa kolo is a double-membrane hour-glass drum of fixed pitch (Ames and King 1971:27). Among other Sudanese tribes such as the Songhai it is yet another type of small drum of the gangá type (Nikiprowetzky n.d.:65) and Lukas (1967:217) defines it as the Kanuri word for "small drum" 19. The only definitive linguistic support comes from Schaeffner (1933:69) who says that the same instrument is called koualo in the Mandara mountains. I believe it to be likely that the term kunkuru is a variant of the term gangá, which is a common onomatopoeia for various types of drums throughout the Sudan. The instrument itself, however, (i.e. the Fulani small kettle-drums) like most instruments of Arab origin came into

Diamaré through the mediation of the empire of Bornu.

Tumbel (see Fig. 3) is a word derived from Arabic (Hause 1948:8-14), but the Fulani frame-drum tumbel does not correspond with the Arab tabl. Rather, it is the kettle-drum toonteere that was borrowed from the Arab tabl. For the moment, I do not see any other source about the possible foreign origin of the instrument, than a photograph taken by Brandily (n.d.) among the Kanembu, showing the same instrument. Neither the Hausa, however, nor the Kanuri seem to have the instrument²⁰.

VIII. Instruments of Various Origins

There are only two instruments whose origin cannot be traced in either Arab, Hausa or Kanuri culture: the flute ciidal (see Fig. 14) and the iron bells jalo. (see Fig. 15). Ciidal seems to be of Bagirmi or Kotoko origin. Though the instrument is also known in Kanuri musical culture under the name chila-chila²¹, linguistic examination by Barth points in quite another direction. Barth (1971:CCXXII, CCXXIV) believes that the Logone-term šila is more primitive than the Kanuri term šelásělá. Further evidence comes from MacLeod (1912:174, 200) who took pictures of the instrument in Kotoko territory in Tchekna and Gulfey in 1911 and Nachtigal (1881, II:507) who saw the same instrument in 1872 near Kusseri. MacKay (1950: 119,132), on the other hand, lists the instrument as the Bagirmi-instrument cilla-cilla. Whether of Bagirmi or Kotoko origin, as a matter of fact, wambaa'be — informants declared unanimously that ciidal has been adopted from the Mandara about 25 years ago, and in fact the great majority of present-day ciidal-players among the Fulani are of Mandara origin.

Jalo, the iron bells, are the equivalent of the Hausa kuge (Ames and King 1971: 7p.), but its use among the Fulani is owed to a deep influence of "pagan" cultures of the Cameroon grassfields on the Fulani (Braukämper 1970:161). As for the linguistic parallel with the Shoa word jallo (Lethem 1920:258), it remains questionable whether this is a proper Shoa term and whether it denotes this particular instrument.

IX. Ensemble Combinations and Social Usage

This section focuses on the historical development, ethnic origin, and social usage of ensemble combinations. The history of these ensemble combinations is not necessarily that of their instruments. Instruments such as the oboe algayta, the horn buusawru or the cylindrical drum baggu ca'b'baawu always remained part of ensembles associated with kingship and court ceremonies and were never combined with instruments such as cambara, tummude or faadu. Yet, variations in the number of different instruments combined can be observed. The ethnic origin of the instruments, when compared with their use in similar combinations among other ethnic groups, points to a straight line of tradition in some cases (dumbo [-wombere] for instance) and to new developments brought about by the Diamaré Fulani in other cases (ciidal for instance). While it is difficult to trace a historical line of social usage of most ensembles, comparison with the social usage among other ethnic groups shows that the Diamaré Fulani limited the social usage of their ensembles to mantoore (praise-song) for few, socially relevant, events.

Abba joyi (see Appendix B), the only ensemble played by wambaa'be that does not involve praise-singing, must have been too marginal a phenomenon for ethno-

graphers to note, because no historical information on it can be obtained. Although the social event which it is played for, has also been noted by Ames and King (1971:67) among the Hausa (tarewa), it is usually accompanied by girls' singing in Hausaland. (Bawdi) baylaaji (see Appendix B), like abba joyi, could be a genuine Diamaré Fulani ensemble which only used well known foreign instruments.

As for buusaw(ru) (see Appendix B), it has been pointed out that the horn buusawru came into use at the time of the foundation of the Fulani states. Despite a lack of documents the present composition of the ensemble can be considered as having remained unchanged since the last 200 years. Informants' statements that it used to incorporate the iron bells jalo, and three photographs shot by MacLeod (1912:278p.) in Fika in 1911 showing four buusawru, two baggu ca'b'baawu, one hour-glass drum of the kalangu type, and three single-part kun kuru-like instruments suggest however some degree of local variation. Among the Hausa no such ensemble as buusaw(ru) presently exists, Ensembles observed by Ames and King (1971:50), and including the Hausa equivalent k'aho also incorporate the long trumpet kakaki (Fulani: gaasi), the vertical horns farai and gangar fada (Fulani: baggu ca'b'baawu). Krieger (1968:417) says that besides being played by hunters k'aho used to be combined with the bells kuge (Fulani: jalo), and Harris (1932:120) notes that, when played for chiefs, k'aho is combined with ganga. Thus, the Fulani ensemble buusaw(ru) combines instruments of diverse ethnic origin, the accompaniment by ganga being a constant factor among numerous ethnic groups. The association of buusaw(ru) with the institutions of kingship also conforms with Hausa models.

Like its main instrument ciidal, the homonymous ensemble only came to the Fulani some 25 years ago. Mandara informants state that in Mandara territory the ensemble comprises ciidal and drums. Other evidence, however, would suggest a Kotoko origin of the ensemble. Photographs taken in Gulfey in 1911 show an ensemble of ciidal and one <u>baggu ca'b'baawu</u> (MacLeod 1912:200) and an ensemble of four ciidal and "three long, thin drums with a decided waist, which were struck by the hand" (MacLeod 1912:200). Yet another photograph taken in Bagirmi area even shows the combination of a ciidal, drums, and ll wooden trumpets similar to gaasi (MacLeod 1912:174). MacLeod also states that the instruments of the ensemble "might not be played or parted with except by permission of the chief" (MacLeod 1912:200) in Gulfey and that the ciidal in Bagirmi territory was the property of the king. This, of course, is not the case among the Fulani where the ensemble is played by freelance wambaa'be for popular genres.

Dumbo [-moolooru] and moolooru mukaaru (see Appendix B), like buusaw(ru), are ensembles which were familiar to the Fulani since their nomadic period. The combination of the lute moolooru and the calabash tummude is still found among present-day nomadic Djelgobe Fulani of Niger¹². Bauer, in his account of the German Niger-Benue-Chad expedition has a photograph of two porters playing a moolooru and tummude²². Although the instrument moolooru is an importation from Hausaland, the Fulani did not adopt the entire Hausa ensemble, for Ames and King (1971:47) say that the Hausa molo is combined with the caki rattles or sham'-bara (Fulani: cambara)²³. Krieger (1968:407), on the other hand, maintains that in Anka, in the midst of Hausa territory, molo, before its replacement by the fiddle goge, used to be combined with either k'warya (Fulani: tummude) or caki rattles

in spirit possession rites. Although *molo*, in its various combinations with other instruments, is played for "various kinds of song" (Ames and King 1971:47) in Hausaland, its use among the Fulani is restricted to praise-singing. *Dumbo*[-wombere], despite its incorporation of the most ancient Fulani musical instrument (wombere), did not come into use among the Diamaré Fulani before the mid-1960s. This stands in contradiction to the nomadic Fulani of the west who certainly knew the ensemble since primeval times²⁴. Among the Hausa the similar sarewa flute is either combined with sham'bara (Fulani: cambara) for entertainment purposes and spirit possession rites (Ames and King 1971:52) or with caki rattles on the occasion of praise-singing for Fulani cattle-breeders (Krieger 1968:413). Although the former use of wombere as a pastime for lonely shepherds among the Fulani is still present among the Hausa (Ames and King 1971:52), the combination of wombere and tummude is now reserved for praise-singing in Diamaré.

Chiefly because of its close connection with kingship, the history of ganyal has been documented far better than that of any other ensemble. It appears, however, that the composition of the ensemble has been subject to frequent modifications. The actual number of types of instruments combined fluctuates from village to village and a complete ganyal-ensemble of all 7 instruments is never met with. The court musicians of the laamii'do of Mindif, for instance, play one oboe algayta and three baggu ca'b'baawu drums. In about 1910, however, Strümpell (1912: Fig. 24) took a photo in the same place showing the court musicians with three algayta and one baggu ca'b'baawu. Similarly, a present-day ganyal-ensemble of Garoua has two oboes algayta and two baggu ca'b'baawu²⁵, but a photo taken in the same town in 1910 shows an ensemble of three algayta, two baggu ca'b baawu, and one tumbel (MacLeod 1912:22), and another photo shot in about 1930 shows one algayta and six baggu ca'b'baawu (Labouret 1935). Although algayta and baggu ca'b'baawu seem to be essential parts of the ganyal ensembles, further historical inquiry shows that other instruments, which are not used any longer, belonged to the ensemble as well. Thus, Passarge (1895:104p.) observed a ganyal-ensemble of one algayta, one baggu ca'b'baawu and an hour-glass drum of the kalangu type in Fulani territory near Garoua in 1892. Reports from other ethnic groups support the assumption that algayta is preferably combined with baagu ca'b'baawu, differences occurring only in the use of such instruments as the long trumpet gaasi and the small kettle-drums kunkuru. Among the Hausa, for instance, algayta is very often combined with kakaki (Fulani: gaasi) and drums of the ganga type (Ames and King 1971:48). but the basic combination of algayta and ganga is also frequent (Krieger 1968:414, Harris 1932-119). Among the Kotoko of Gulfey, Salasc (1934:36) photographed an ensemble with an algayta, four baggu ca'b'baawu, two gaasi, and two kunkuru. The limitation of the social usage of ganyal to the ruling nobility in Diamaré was presumably introduced in the early 19th century and is in perfect conformity with the social usage of similar ensembles observed among other ethnic groups.

As for gegeeru (see Appendix B) little information on its history is available. While I cannot discover any reference to its use among the nomadic Fulani of the Western Sudan, the only photograph (Griaule 1932:58), from Fulani territory of the Adamawa plateau shows a gegeeru ensemble in Ngaoundere with one fiddle gegeeru (see Fig. 16) and two gourd-rattles faadu. While the same combination of

faadu and gegeeru seems to be familiar to the Kotoko²⁶, not all Hausa groups seem to know this combination. Ames and King (1971:42) say that in Zaria and Katsina the Hausa equivalent goge is combined with the calabash-gourd k'warya (Fulani: tummude) and/or kalangu and 'dan kar'bi. Krieger (1968:405), however, in his account of Hausa musical instruments in Anka, says that caki rattles have replaced k'warya in the accompaniment of the fiddle goge. Harris (1932:123), for his part, says that goge is usually accompanied by caki rattles in Sokoto province, although combinations with k'warya (Fulani: tummude) and the hour-glass drum kalangu also occur²⁷. The use of the gegeeru ensemble for minor social events such as hiirde and its close association with spirit possession and praise-singing for ordinary people among both Hausa and Fulani, indicate that it is one of the most popular instruments in both cultures.

According to informants' statements, moolooru dammere (see Appendix B) has been introduced into Diamaré from Hausaland at the beginning of this century, but only Ames and King (1971:47) state that a combination of the lute molo and the rubbing-stick sham'bara (Fulani: cambara) exists in Katsina and Zaria.

Nyawala (see Appendix B), finally, seems to be an importation from the Fulani territories of Adamawa plateau where, as a result of the artistry of Gole Baka, it is still in vogue today. In Diamaré, however, the ensemble seems to be on the point of dying out. Although the lead singer of the only nyawala ensemble I met with was a Hausa zabiya (female professional musician), there seems to be no Hausa parallel of this ensemble.

As far as the solo instruments bomboro, garaya, luwal, toonteere, and zantuuru (see Appendix A) are concerned, their history and ethnic origin have been dealt with in previous sections. Although all these instruments, with the exception of zantuuru, are getting more and more out of date, their social usage is similar to that among the Hausa. Thus, bomboro and zantuuru are also played for informal music-making among the Hausa. The use of tambari, the Hausa parallel of the kettle-drum toonteere, is also centred around major court ceremonies and festivals of the Islamic calendar (Ames and King 1971:31-38), while in Diamare the number of these events has dwindled down to two events. Although the Fulani two-stringed lute garaya does not correspond with the Hausa instrument of the same name, its use by the hunters in Diamare partly conforms with that of the Hausa garaya (Ames and King 1971: 41, Krieger 1968:408). The only similarity between the Fulani garaya and its true Hausa equivalent, the kwamsa, is the fact that the latter, though not played by hunters, is also played for hunters by professional musicians in Anka (Krieger 1968: 408). As to the social usage of luwal by circumcisers and barbers, I cannot discover any parallel among the Hausa.

X. Summary

Fulani musical culture, as seen through an examination of musical instruments, displays many foreign elements. Many instruments and their names, ensemble combinations and their social usage have been borrowed from ethnic groups with whom the Fulani have been in contact for more than 200 years: Hausa, Kanuri, Kotoko, and Shoa. Some of the instruments and ensemble combinations still reflect the original nomadic life style and correspond with those met with among the nomadic

Fulani of the Western Sudan. Although a foreign element in Fulani musical organology is predominant, the Diamaré Fulani also combined some of the instruments into new, genuine Fulani ensemble combinations. Whereas the social usages of musical instruments in Hausa and Kanuri society are manifold, the Diamaré Fulani limited the social usage to praise-singing.

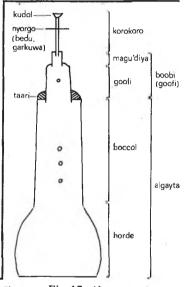
Appendix A: Glossary of Musical Instruments

Presentation of the instruments follows Ames' and King's Glossary of Hausa Music and Its Social Contexts (1971). As the main interest of this paper focuses on the historical, ethnic, geo-

graphical and linguistic implications of Fulani musical instruments, many details have been omitted ²⁸. For a fuller discussion the reader is referred to my thesis (Erlmann 1980). In the lists which follow, the instruments are arranged by alphabetical order, and information is presented in the following order:

- 1. Fulfulde vernacular name/plural and short English description.
- 2. Sachs-Hornbostel Classification index.
- 3. Synonymous Fulfulde terms.
- 4. Etymology.
- Terms for parts of the instruments and materials of construction.
- 6. Ensemble combinations (see Appendix B).
- 7. Social usage and persons playing the instrument.

Languages of the terms, put in parenthesis after each term, are abbreviated as follows: (AR) Arabic, (F) Fulfulde, (FR) French, (H) Hausa, (KA) Kanuri, (KO) Kotoko, (SH) Shoa Arabic.



- algayta(aru)/algaytaaji (F) (conical oboe)(see also Fig. 17).
 422.112-7.
- Fig. 17. Algayta parts and their names

- 4. al-ghaita (AR) via algaita (H).
- 5.1 algayta (F): main section of the instrument from either camanayhi (F), joyi (F) (cotton silk tree) or lillibaahi (F) (Cordia abyssinica).
- 5.2 boobi (F): upper part of the main section made from keewal (F) (bamboo).
- 5.3 be'du (F): round brass disc at the end of the reed-holder under the reed.
- 5.4 'boccol (F): main section without the bell-end. For material see 5.1.
- 5.5 garkuwa (H): synonym for 5.3.
- 5.6 gooft (F): either synonym for 5.2 or lower part of 5.2 when contrasted to magu'diya (5.10).
- 5.7 horde (F): bell-end section. For material see 5.1.
- 5.8 korokoro (F): complete brass reed-holder including the brass disc. Possibly derived from kwarkwaro (H) (Ames and King 1971:57).
- 5.9 ku'dol (F): double-reed cut from any suitable grass stalk.
- 5.10 magu'diya (H): the "ululator", synonym for goofi (5.6), the upper part of 5.2.
- 5.11 nyorgo (F): synonym for 5.3 and 5.5.
- 6.1 Used in buusaw(ru).
- 6.2 Used in ganyal.

- Played by wambaa'be in mantoore (praise-song) for a laamii'do, his court-dignitaries, senior
 officials and wealthy merchants.
- 1. baggel ca'b'baayel (F) (double-membrane cylindrical snared drum with sticks).
- 2. 211.212.1-812.
- baggel is the diminutive of <u>baggu</u> (F), ca'b'baayel that of ca'b'baawu (F), ca'b'baawu is derived from sa'b'baago (F): "to underlie".
- See baggu ca 'b 'baawu.
- 6. Used in (baw'di) baylaaii.
- 7. Played by wambaa'be in mantoore (praise-song) for joya-dance.
- 1. bomboro/bomborooji (F) (iron jaw's harp).
- 2. 121,221.
- 4. bambaro (H).
- 5. Manufactured from jamdi (F) ("iron").
- 6. Used as a solo instrument.
- 7. Played by young people of either sex in informal music-making.
- 1. buusawru/ buusawji (F) (side-blown lip-vibrated animal horn).
- 2. 423.122.2.
- 4 busa (H): "to blow",
- 5.1 'bakkorgol (F): carrying-strap from any material, mostly cotton.
- 5.2 wurde (F): embouchure, cut into the side near the narrow end. The main section and bellend section are not named.
- 5.3 The main section is made from the horn of darwa (F).
- 5.4 The bell-end is made from nagge (F) (oxhorn).
- 6. Used in buusaw(ru).
- 7. Played by wambaa'be in mantoore (praise-song) for a laamii'do and some of his dignitaries.
- <u>baggu baylaawu/ baw'di baylaaji</u> (F) (double-membrane cylindrical snared drum with sticks).
- 2. 211.212.1-812.
- See baggu ca'b'baawu.
- 6. See baggel ca'b'baayel.
- 7. See baggel ca'b baayel.
- 1. <u>baagu ca'b'baawu/ baw'di sa'b'baaji</u> (F) (double-membrane cylindrical snared drum with hooked sticks).
- 2. 211.212.1-812.
- 3. baagu tumbal (F).
- 4. For the etymology of ca'b baawu see baggel ca'b baayel, for tumbal see tumbel.
- 5.1 'bakkorgol (F): cloth shoulder-strap from hotollo (F) (cotton).
- 5.2 boolde (F): hook-ended drumstick.
- 5.3 cenketereywol (F): onomatopoeia for snare on front membrane, made from <u>beewa</u> (F) (goat's skin).
- 5.4 laral (F): front and rear membrane from beewa (F) (goat's skin).
- 5.5 leggal (F): body-shell carved from joyi (F) (silk cotton tree).
- 5.6 lokkulol (F): lacing thongs joining the membranes, made from nagge (F) (cow-hide).
- 6.1 Used in ganyal.
- 6.2 Used in buusaw(ru).
- 6.3 Used in abba joyi.

- 7.1 As a part of buusaw(ru) and ganyal, see algay ta(aru).
- 7.2 As a part of abba joyi the instrument is played by wambaa'be in music for alko (F), a procession in which household goods are carried to a newly married woman's new residence.
- 1. <u>baggu luudirgu</u> (F) (double-membrane cylindrical drum with hooked sticks).
- 2. 211.212.1-812.
- 3. baggu fanat (F).
- 4. Lundirgu derives from lundaago (F): "to be against", fanat possibly derives from fannad (SH): "to separate" (Lethem 1920: 427).
- 5. Parts are the same as with <u>baggu</u> ca'b'baawu. The snare, however, is absent. Unlike <u>baggu</u> ca'b'baawu, this type of drum also has a wax layer on the centre of the rear membrane which is either called rang (KO) or tauri (F) (wax).
- 6. Used in ganyal.
- 7. See algay ta(aru).
- 1. baggu nyawala/ baw'di nyawala (F) (double-membrane cylindrical snared drum).
- 2. 211.212.1-812.
- 4. Nyawala (F) is the name of a dance which is practically out of date in Diamaré.
- 5. Parts are the same as with <u>baggu</u> ca'b'baawu. As the drum is played by both hands, there is no drumstick.
- 6. Used in nyawala.
- 7. Played by wambaa'be in mantoore (praise-song) during nyawala-dance.
- 1. cambara/ cambara'en (F) (rubbing stick).
- 2. 131.1.
- 4. sham'bara (H).
- 5. A length of keewal (F) (bamboo-stalk) with a node at one end, shredded lengthwise from the middle to the open end.
- 6. Used in moolooru dammere.
- 7. Played by wambaa'be in mantoore (praise-song) for District Heads and wealthy community members.
- 1. ciidal/ciide (F) (vertical flute).
- 2. 421.111.12.
- 4. s ila (KO).
- 5.1 j amdi (F): mouthpiece manufactured from copper.
- 5.2 j amdi les (F): bell-end section manufactured from copper, les: "bottom".
- 5.3 leggal (F): middle section from keewal (F) (bamboo).
- 5.4 lokkulol (F): one carrying-strap from leather for each hand.
- 5.5 taari (F): wax for attaching mouthpiece and bell-end to the middle section.
- 6. Used in ciidal.
- 7. Played by wambaa'be in mantoore (praise-song) for District Heads, wealthy community members, and visitors of hiirde (see section II).
- 1. faadu/paali (F) (gourd-rattle).
- 2, 112.13.
- Hand-held rattle from tummude (F) (gourd) filled with seeds of gombo (F) (Ibiscus esculentus). Depending on the ensemble combination, it is used in two sizes: (a) 25cm in diametre, (b) 12 to 14cm in diametre.
- 6. (a) Used in ciidal.

- (b) Used in gegeeru.
- 7. For (a) see ciidal, for (b) see gegeeru.
- 1. gaasi/gaasiiji (F) (vertical, end-blown metal trumpet).
- 2. 423.121.12.
- 4. gashi (KA).
- 5. The two detachable sections of the instrument are made from brass and are not named.
- 6. Used in ganyal.
- 7. See algayta(aru).
- gangā kūrā (KA) (double-membrane cylindrical snared drum with stick and hook-ended stick).
- 2. 211,212,1-812.
- 4. gang à (KA): "drum", kurà (KA): "big".
- 5. See baggu ca'b baawu.
- 6. Used in ganyal.
- 7. See algayta(aru).
- 1. garaya(aru)/garayaaji (H/F) (two-stringed plucked lute).
- 2. 321.311-5.
- 4. garaya (H).
- 5.1 cow-cow (KA): metal jingle attached to the end of the neck.
- 5.2 laral (F): membrane covering the body-resonator from the skin of hamfurde (F) (duiker).
- 5.3 leggal (F): wooden neck.
- 5.4 lokkulol (F): leather binding-thongs holding the strings at the upper end of the neck.
- 5.5 paldugel (F): wooden bridge inserted between body-resonator and strings.
- 5.6 kawsu (F): two nylon-strings, derived from caoutchouc (FR).
- 5.7 tammude (F): body-resonator from gourd.
- 6. Used as a solo instrument.
- 7. Played by gaw'en (F) (hunters) in informal music-making during stays in the bush.
- 1. gegeeru/gegeeji (F) (single-stringed bowed lute).
- 2. 321.311-71.
- gogiiru (F).
- 4. ghū ghā (AR). Other possible etymologies are from yeegugo (F): "to rub", and for gogitru from goge (H).
- 5.1 bakkorgol (F): carrying-strap from leather.
- 5.2 dacce tanni (F):resin for body and bow strings from tanni (F) (desert date, Balanites aegyptiaca).
- 5.3 ka'dol (F): wedge inserted between lower end of string and body-resonator.
- 5.4 laaci (F): string on body-resonator and bow from hairs from a horse's tail.
- 5.5 lagaawal (F): wooden bow.
- 5.6 laral (F): membrane covering the body-resonator from huutooru (F) (land monitor).
- 5.7 lokkulol (F): leather binding though holding the string at the upper end of the neck.
- 5.8 paldugel (F): wooden bridge between string and body-resonator.
- 5.9 tummude (F): hemispherical body-resonator from half gourd.
- 6.1 Used in gegeeru.
- 6.2 Used in wamnugo ginnaaji (F), a ceremeny of spirit possession.
- 7.1 Played by wambaa be in mantoore (praise-song) for visitors of hürde and dubdo, and lower class people.

- 7.2 Played by ceremonial musicians while calling the spirits in wamnugo ginnaaji.
- 1. jalo (F) (pair of clapperless iron bells played with iron rod).
- 2. 111.242.121.
- 4. jallo (SH) (Lethem 1920:258).
- 5. Pair of clappedess iron bells beaten with an iron rod.
- 6.1 Formerly used as a solo instrument.
- 6.2 Formerly used in buusaw(ru).
- 7. Played by zagi (F) (royal slaves) for proclamations, such as the gathering of horses in war, and the departure of the laamii'do.
- 1. kuŋkuru/ kuŋkuruuji (F) (pair of small single-membrane bowl-shaped kettle-drums).
- 2. 211.12-851.
- 3. koló (KA).
- 4. Kungulu (KA) or gang a (KA).
- 5. Both drums are referred to as daada (F) ("mother") for the bigger one, and 'biggel (F) ("child") for the smaller one. Parts and names are the same for both:
- 5.1 boolde (F): two wooden drumsticks.
- 5.2 laral (F): skin and lacing thongs from nagge (F) (cow-hide).
- 5.3 tassaw (F): body-shell from tassaw (F) (household brass bowl).
- 6. Used in ganyal.
- 7. See algayta(aru).
- 1. luwal/ luwe (F) (side-blown lip-vibrated animal hom).
- 2. 423.122.2.
- 5. Parts are the same as with buusawru, but luwal has no carrying-strap. Unlike buusawru, the instrument is entirely covered with the skin of nagge (F) (cow).
- Used as a solo instrument.
- 7. Played by la'boowo (F) (barber) on the occasion of circumcision rites.
- 1. moolooru/moolooji (F) (three-stringed plucked lute).
- 2. 321,311-5.
- 4. molo (H).
- 5.1 gu'diya (H): shortest and highest pitched string from nylon, derived from magu'diya (H):
- 5.2 kawsu (F): generic name for any of the strings, derived from caoutchouc (FR). Formerly the strings used to be manufactured from horse's tail-hairs.
- 5.3 laral (F): membrane covering the body-resonator and leather thongs from ragge (F) cowhide).
- 5.4 leggal (F): neck from the wood of camanayhi (F) (unknown tree).
- 5.5 lokkulol (F): leather binding though holding the strings at the upper end.
- 5.6 moolooru (F): body-resonator carved from joyi (F) (silk cotton tree).
- 5.7 paldugel (F): bridge between strings and body-resonator from keewal (F) (bamboo).
- 5.8 sakaadi (F): middle-pitched string, derived from sha ki'di (H): "to undergo the beating".
- 5.9 tumbaadi (F): lowest pitched string, derived from tambari (H).
- 5.10 wurde (F): sound hole at the lower end of the body-resonator.
- 6.1 Used in dumbo[-moolooru].
- 6.2 Used in moolooru mukaaru.
- 6.3 A variant of this type is used in *moolooru dammere*. There the *moolooru* has an additional iron jingling device attached to the neck.

- 7.1 For dumbo[-moolooru] and moolooru mukaaru see gegeeru.
- 7.2 For moolooru dammere see cambara.
- 1. toonteere/toonteeji (F) (large single-membrane, bowl-shaped kettle-drum).
- 2. 211.11-852.
- 5.1 laral (F): membrane from nagge (F) (cow-hide).
- 5.2 le'd'de cettaa'de (F): wooden sticks connected with leather ligature to increase tension of the latter.
- 5.3 sawru (F): beating stick, slightly bent at one end. Two for each drum.
- 5.4 toonteere (F): body-shell from joyi (F) (silk cotton tree).
- 5.5 ziriwol (F): tension ligature from nagge (F) (cow-hide).
- 6. Used as a solo instrument or in pairs of two.
- 7. Played by zagi (F) (royal slaves) for the installation of a new laamii'do, for the beginning of Rhamadan, and the morning of juulde suumaay (F) ('Id el Kabir). The instrument is almost out of use today. Two specimens of it are played only in Mindif (25km south of Maroua). Those instruments I saw in Dargala, Malam Peetel, and Miskin were broken.
- 1. tumbel (F) (double-membrane snared frame drum).
- 2. 211.312.92.
- 4. tabl (AR).
- 5.1 anga (H): wooden lacing-ring around both membranes.
- 5.2 boggel (F): lacing thongs from cotton strings.
- 5.3 boolde (F): two straight wooden drumsticks.
- 5.4 cercer (F): two snares on the rear membrane from leather.
- 5.5 laral (F): two membranes from nagge (F) (cow-hide).
- 5.6 leggal (F): body-shell from joyi (F) (silk cotton tree).
- 6. Used in ganval.
- 7. See algayta(anu).
- 1. tummude/ tummu'de (F) (hemispherical shell of half-gourd).
- 2. 111.24.
- 3. kara (F).
- 4. kara could be an onomatopoeia or a derivation from k'warya (H) (Ames and King 1971:8).
- 5. The instrument is traditionally made from calabash-gourd. If no calabash, however, is at hand, a brass bowl will also do. With some instruments a wooden stick is placed on the ground underneath the open side. The calabash is then rhythmically rubbed along this stick, and beaten simultaneously.
- 6.1 Used in dumbo[-moolooru].
- 6.2 Used in moolooru mukaaru.
- 6.3 Used in dumbo[-wombere].
- 7. For all three ensemble combinations see gegeeru.
- 1. wombere/gombe (F) (vertical flute).
- 2. 421.111.12.
- The instrument used to be manufactured from a length of millet-stalk, but since about 8
 years this material has been replaced by an iron tube.
- 6. Used in dumbo[-wombere].
- 7. See gegeeru.
- 1. zantuuru/ zantuuji (F) (tubular shell of long gourd).
- 2. 111.231.

- 4. shantu (H).
- 5. Made from a long, narrow gourd.
- 6. Used as a solo instrument or in the accompaniment of song.
- 7. Played by non-professional women-musicians in informal music-making.

Appendix B: Ensemble Combinations.

In the lists which follow information is presented in the following order:

- 1. Name of ensemble combination.
- 2. Etymology where critical.
- 3. Other names.
- 4. Etymology where critical.
- 5. Instruments (and singers). The numbers in parenthesis after each instrument indicate successively: minimum number of instruments required average number of instruments combined maximum number of instruments observed. (n indicates that the number of instruments, or singers, is optional.)

Abbreviations for languages given in parenthesis after each term are the same as in Appendix A.

- 1. abba joyi (F).
- 2. abba (KA): "father", joyi (F): "silk cotton tree".
- 3. paski (F).
- 4. Etymology unknown.
- 5. *baggu* ca'b'baawu (1-2-2).
- 1. (baw'di) baylaaji (F).
- 2. baw'di (F): pl. of baggu, baylaaji (F): etymology unknown.
- 3. jooya (F).
- 4. A dance.
- 5. baggu baylaawu (1-1-1), baggel ca'b 'baayel (1-2-2), non-professional singers of either sex (2-4-n).
- 1. buusaw(ru) (F).
- 5. algayta (2-2-3), buusawru (1-3-3), baggu ca'b'baawu (1-2-3), singing by baggu ca'b'baawu-player.
- 1. ciidal (F)
- 5. ciidal (1-1-2), faadu (4-4-5), professional singer (1-1-1) without instrument or singing by faadu-players (solo and chorus).

dumbo (F).

Generic term for any ensemble combination using calabash-gourds (tummude). There are three types of dumbo-ensembles which are not differentiated terminologically:

- 1. dumbo[-moolooru] (F).
- moolooru (1-1-1), tummude (1-2-3), singing by moolooru-player (solo) and tummude-players (chorus).
- 1. dumbo[-wombere] (F).
- 5. tummude (1-3-5), wombere (1-1-1), professional singer (1-1-1), singing by tummude-players (chorus).
- 1. moolooni mukaarii (F).
- 2. mukaaru (F): "mute".

- moolooru (1-1-1), tummude $(1-3-4)^{29}$
- ganyal (F).
- 2. ghanni (SH): "song" (Lethem 1920:438).
- kolo (F).
- 5. algayta (1-1-1), baggu ca'b'baawu (1-2-4), baggu luudirgu (1-1-1), gaasi (1-1-2), gazgā kūrà (1-1-1), kunkuru (1-1-1), tumbel (1-1-1).

As a rule ganyal does not usually include all the instruments listed above. In fact, two of the biggest ensembles I ever met with included algayta, baggu ca'b baawu, baggu luudirgu, gaasi, and tumbel in one case and algayta, baggu ca'b'baawu, gangá kúrà, kunkuru, and tumbel in the other. Most other ensembles only consisted of three or four different instruments, and the smallest one only had algayta and baggu ca'b baawu.

- 1. gegeeru (F).
- 5. faadu (1-2-4), gegeeru (1-1-1), professional singer without instrument (1-1-1) or singing by gegeeru-player, and singing by faadu-players.
- 1. moolooru dammere (F).
- 2. dammere from dammaago (F): "to kick one's heels".
- moolooru di'b'bere (F), moolooru jigi'da (F).
- jigi'da possibly from yigugo (F): "to scratch".
- cambara (2-3-4), moolooru (1-1-1), singing by moolooru-player (solo) and cambara-players (chorus).
- nyawala (F). 1.
- savdawa (F).
- baggu nyawala (1-2-2), professional singer (solo; mostly female)(1-1-1), chorus (male, female or mixed) of non-professional singers (4-n-n).

NOTES

- 1. Although the Fulani call themselves Ful'be (sing. Pullo), throughout this paper I shall use the term "Fulani".
- 2. This has been deplored 20 years ago by D. Thieme (1963:268), and not much has changed since,
- 3. See, for instance, Ames 1968, Ames 1973, Ames and King 1971, Besmer 1971, Krieger 1968, Smith 1957.
- 4. See Brandily n.d. and Brandily 1967.
- 5. For the most comprehensive discography to date of Fulani music in Cameroon see Baratte Eno-Belinga and Nourrit 1980.
- 6. Data for this paper have been collected during two research trips in 1975 and 1976. For more detailed information see Erlmann 1980.
- 7. The plain of Diamare is limited by swampy bramble steppes in the north, the Logone-Chari in the east, the Mayo-Kabi-lakes in the south, and the Mandara mountains in the west.
- 8. These figures refer to a total of 167 professional musicians questionned in Maroua (capital of Diamare) and surroundings. These 167 informants represent an estimated 80% of all professional musicians living in the area under consideration.
- 9. Of these 9,8% were Mandara, 6,7% Hausa, 4,9% Kanuri, 2,8%Kotoko, 2,2% Giziga, 2,2% Shoa, and 0,8% Bagirm i.
- 10. The insertion of -m- would be a tendency of the Manding and Hausa languages to nasalize a labial consonant
- 11. The reader is referred to the following articles: Besmer 1971:75-88, Farmer 1924, Farmer 1939, Hause 1948.
- 12. See the notes of S. Arom's record "The Peuls" (EMI 3 C 064-18121),

 13. A photograph showing a similar instrument among the "Kirdi" of the Mandara mountains is found in Schaeffner 1933:67.
- 14. Eguchi says that zantuuru has been "introduced to the Fulbe women by Mandara and/or Kanuri women" (Eguchi 1975:81).
- 15. I do not know any article or note of recent date on music among the Kanuri. Among the earliest references to music in the Bornu empire is Barth's statement that, in 1851, in the Kanuri capital of Kuka, a gang a summoned the warriors (Barth 1857, III:16). Later on, in about 1870, Nachtigal, who considered himself unmusical, noticed daily singing and hand-clapping (Nachtigal 1877:64) and saw a band of musicians in Kuka playing algayta, which he took for "bag pipes" (Nachtigal 1871:67). Naturally, the adoption of Kanuri musical

instruments by the Fulani happened about a century before these travellers' accounts.

- 16. As Diamarê was not visited often by European travellers before the colonial period, and as local chronicles are rare, detailed descriptions or even photographs of musical instruments are scanty. Photographs of drums of the baggu type become more numerous since the beginning of this century. See, for example, MacLeod 1912:22, Strümpell 1912: figure 24, Labouret 1935, Dominik 1908:216 and Salasc 1934:36.
- 17. For early photographs of algayta see the references given in note 16, for photographs of gaasi see Dominik 1908:216 and Salasc 1934:36 and 39.

18. The Arab instrument is called naqqarat. For a photograph see Touma 1975 :no. 16.

- 19. It should be interesting to note that among the Kotoko the term kolo also applies to a five-stringed harp. See Brandily 1967:57.
- 20. In the Fulani territories of the Adamawa mountains tumbel is known since the beginning of the century at least. For a photograph shot in 1910 in Garoua see MacLeod 1912:22.

21. See Ethnic Folkways Records FE 4337 (Music of the Chad) Side B,5.

22. Bauer 1904:71. However, the players' clothing make it unlikely that they are Fulani.

- 23, Among the Fulani, the combination of moolooru and cambara is only found in moolooru dammere.
- 24. See the record Anthologie de la Musique Malienne: Le Mali du Fleuve, Les Peuls (Barenreiter BM 30 L 2502).

25. See the record by C. Fonfrede cited in Baratte Eno-Belinga and Nourrit 1980:95-96.

- 26. A photograph shot by MacLeod in Gulfey in 1911 shows one gegeeru and a faadu (played by a woman). See MacLeod 1912:200.
- Yet another combination is found in Mandara territory where Schaeffner photographed an ensemble of one gegeeru and kunkuru (Schaeffner 1933:69).

28. A detailed analysis of the tunings and playing techniques will have to await a separate publication.

 An exceptional fourth type of dumbo is the group of Bukar Dumbo, a musician from Bogo (35km north-east of Maroua) who used some tummude and two professional singers without moolooru.

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