THE STRUCTURE OF KIGANDA XYLOPHONE MUSIC

by

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INTRODUCTION

The contents of this article are based on a practical study of Kiganda xylophone music and on information obtained from my African teacher, Mr. Evaristo Muyinda. I have to thank the Uganda Museum, Kampala, for introducing me to this famous musician who has devoted all his life to the cultivation of indigenous musical art in Buganda and who has been a member of the traditional band at the Kabaka's palace tor sixteen years. Mr. Evaristo Muyinda, playing all the Kiganda instruments with virtuosity, took the trouble to teach me the xylophone music of his native country during the four months that I stayed there. I cannot start an article on Kiganda xylophone music without thanking Mr. Muyinda for all the help given to me and for the considerable amount of patience he showed, particularly when I was facing a lot of difficulties at the very beginning. I remember with pleasure the day when I finally found out the main principles in the xylophone compositions, and thus our co-operation progressed more and more to the satisfaction of my teacher.

I had much occasion for practice in a small village some twenty miles from Kampala, called Salama. This village is the creation of the Uganda Foundation for the Blind and gives a home to almost sixty blind musicians from all over Uganda. Many of them are pupils of Mr. Muyinda, who teaches xylophone there once a week. In the blind musicians—some of them being beginners like me—I found wonderful partners for practice. The Superintendent of the Foundation, Mr. Billy Jackson, made it possible for me to practice on the twenty two key xylophone at Salama as often as I wished. I spent many hours every day in these four months practising either on the akadinda at Salama, or on the twelve key xylophone (amadinda) at the Uganda Museum in

Kampala. Thus it was possible to get some manual skill in a short time.

After three months I was already capable enough for Mr. Muyinda to ask me one day to play with the band at a public concert. I agreed, since I thought that this would be an important opportunity to show the people of Uganda the appreciation of their indigenous music by a European, who came to the country for no other reason than to learn the Kiganda xylophone, merely to hear it not being sufficient for him. I knew that the fact of my playing in an African band would make a deep impression on the Africans, who had been trained by irresponsible Europeans to regard their native music as being primitive and inferior, and that it would confuse their minds positively.

People came that evening in crowds to see the miracle: a mzungu (European) playing the Kiganda xylophone. They were brought near me by a guide, one after the other, in order to "have a look, if it is really true that he can play". It was a charming and promising show, and my friends and fellow musicians earned a lot of money! We gave three more concerts at different places in Uganda and the saga went round. The news was divulged also by the Uganda Broadcasting Service and by notes in newspapers. The prestige of Mr. Muyinda's band has risen immensely since and with it the prestige of Uganda folk music in general. It things could have continued for one or two years, I am quite sure we would have achieved a basic change in public opinion. People would have started broadly not to believe certain Europeans (and Africans depending mentally on them) that Uganda folk music and African music generally are of low or little value.

TYPES OF THE KIGANDA XYLOPHONE

There are two main types of xylophone in Buganda, the most important of the kingdoms north of Lake Victoria in Uganda. One instrument with twelve keys is called amadinda, another with twenty two keys is called Akadinda. "Dinda" means "xylophone key" and the word probably arose from the sound which the keys give when

they are struck. The prefix "ama", as I was told by my teacher, means "big" and "aka" means "small". This is rather strange, for the keys of the amadinda on which I learned were smaller than those of the akadinda and also the twenty two key instrument was naturally longer than that with only twelve keys.

Both xylophones on which we played the music analysed here were constructed by my teacher. The amadinda being situated at the Uganda Museum is entirely traditional, with banana stems as the base. (The attendants at the Museum play it regularly for visitors.) The akadinda situated at Salama with the blind musicians is a sort of improved construction of Mr. Muyinda. To facilitate transport it has a fixed wooden frame instead of the interchangeable banana stems.

Besides these two types of xylophones, there is another one occasionally used in Buganda, an akadinda with only seventeen keys.

THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE XYLOPHONES

The base consists of two fresh banana stems. A series of small holes is bored into the soft stems; in the case of the amadinda, thirteen, at equal distances into each. After that thin sticks of about 35 cm. are put into the holes. Then the keys are placed between. These are prepared from the wood of the lusambya tree (in the Luganda language) and have to be carefully tuned. Each key has two tiny holes almost at its end, through which a cord is passed and attached to the nearest stick. The keys are still rather loose and it often happened while we were playing that we had to push them back into their right position, or this had to be done by a servant.

Besides this there is another problem which my teacher was aware of. The traditional xylophone with the banana stems as the base is not very mobile; it always has to be taken to bits for transport and rebuilt again at the place of performance. Since in recent times Buganda's xylophone music is being played more and more on special concert occasions in different parts of the country, quick transport of the instrument has become a necessity. Mr. Muyinda has tried to construct a suitable wooden frame for the Kiganda xylophone, but the result was not entirely satisfactory to him; he had to learn that the moisture and softness of the fresh banana stems are essential for giving the instrument's beautiful sound, delighting even European visitors occasionally. If Mr. Muyinda should one day be able to make a concert tour to Europe the band would have plenty of trouble, since the tresh banana stems have to be replaced every month after having dried out. And where to get new ones?

THE SCALE

The scale of the Kiganda xylophone is different from the European scale. Since there are pitches talling just between certain notes of the European scale, it is not advisable for the reader to "try" the xylophone scores given in this article on a piano or any other European instrument. In the transcriptions I have used Western staff notation, but the notes have another meaning and indicate African pitches. (For example the notes A and E indicate pitches approximately a quartertone smaller than those symbolised by the two letters in Western music. Ct. Figs. 2 and 3.)

I had the chance of making a tape-recording of the scales of the two instruments on which I learned. After returning to Europe we measured the pitches by three different methods using an oscillograph at the Phonogrammarchiv der Akademie der Wissenchaften, Vienna. But the results of our investigation were not as exhaustive as to allow definite conclusions on the exact character of the scales. The "sound" of each xylophone key is extremely complex and rich in overtones. (Ct. Fig. 1) Quite a number of notes can be found out by measuring for instance the vibrations of our Fig. 1, and it is a matter of taste which vibration one considers as the dominating or basic one. The vibration numbers were in most cases not reliable enough to be able to write them down here.

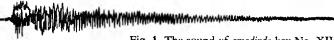


Fig. 1. The sound of amadinda key No. XII.

I find it more valuable in this case to give a description of the scales as they sound to a human observer who has spent quite a lot of time playing these instruments, and who also knows the function that the pitches have in the whole xylophone music. (This last point is a sort of key to the Kiganda tone-system and is of greater importance than one is at first inclined to think.) The Kiganda xylophone scales have a central note, a tonal basis, which is soon perceived by a musician who tries his hand for the first time at one of the instruments. I wish to call this tonal basis a C, although it is actually nearer to an F\$. The pitch of this basic note is absolutely the same on both types of xylophone, the amadinda and the akadinda. The scale of the amadinda at the Uganda Museum, Kampala, which I give here in a transposition from F\$ a flattened fifth down to C, is approximately this:



Fig. 2.

The scales of both the amadinda and the akadinda are pentatonic (cf. Fig. 3). The notes symbolised by C, D and G correspond in their intervals nearly to those in the European natural (not tempered) heptatonic scale. It has to be admitted however that there are occasionally microtonal divergencies, but they do not seem to occur systematically. Considering the fact that there are quite a number of physical influences on the wood in the course of the years during which the xylophone is played and including also the possibility of a small inaccuracy in the difficult task of tuning, I cannot help pointing out the possibility of a chance factor. But it is another thing with the notes A and E! They are tuned on purpose about a quartertone towards F and Bb. (This is what the mark + indicates.) The reason for such a tuning seems to be an intention to push out of the tone system the possibility of any interval of a major or minor third. The effect is indeed thus, that if somebody plays from key I to III, II to IV, III to V and also from V to VII or X to XII it always sounds something like a fourth. But harmonically no use is made of this invention, since the only accord allowed in Kiganda xylophone music is the octave.

There is another strange phenomenon with the sound of the amadinda and akadinda keys, and this even has an effect on the rhythmic structure of the music. As we pointed out above, the sound of each note is very complex. The three greatest notes (keys X, XI and XII) often sound a third smaller to the ear of a listener. I have put these notes which can be heard instead of the basic ones in brackets above them. (Cf. Fig 2). When I was playing the amadinda in Kampala the three keys always sounded to my ears as C, D and E+. But listening to the tape-recording of the scale now, most people, including myself, seem to hear instead of these pitches, E, F and G. I have tested a number of persons: when the scale was played upwards the majority heard E, F, G; when it was played downwards most of them heard the basic notes C, D and E. (This is musically and psychologically very interesting.)

The musicians—as far as I could find out—consider the notes as C, D and E. They have a term for octave: myanjo. The two musicians called Omunazi and Omwawazi play in myanjo (visually, the spacing apart of the two sticks by five keys, in the two hands of each musician) over the whole range of both xylophones, completely disregarding this thirds effect. Striking for example keys VI and XI together, this interval

was still called myanjo (octave). And the most interesting thing is the number of listeners who had heard the thirds before and then said, "This is an octave now!"

With the twenty two key xylophone at Salama, the akadinda, things are even more complicated. There are a good number of notes which you can hear from the largest keys, and in the scale given below I have included them in brackets. It depends to a certain degree on your mood which of the possible pitches you hear in the foreground. But since it is true that I have never seen any Muganda musician playing on keys XXI and XXII, we should not worry too much about their sound. The very end in the other direction is not used for playing either and I have to admit that it still surprises me how the musicians proved its uselessness to me. Coming home one day I noticed that the musicians had "cut off" four keys in the meantime, to make it easier to fit the xylophone between other things in a lorry. This happened towards the end of my Uganda stay and since then the akadinda at Salama has had (unnaturally) only eighteen keys.



Fig. 3. The akadinda scale.

The thirds phenomenon is stronger on this instrument at Salama than on the amadinda at Kampala, and the thirds can be recognised by an attentive listener, when the musicians are playing in myanjo. But the effect is rather a sort of embellishment of the sound than a harmony.

Intervals

The musicians at the Kiganda xylophone play their tunes regardless of these sound complications which I have tried to describe above, although the overtones of certain notes are surely welcome as an embellishment of the sound and even-since they occur at a definite time-point—as an additional rhythm pattern emerging by chance! As for the rest, the musicians only use four melodic intervals: the second (progression to the neighbouring key), the fourth (progression to the second key from the starting point), the fifth (progression to the third key) and the minor seventh (progression to the fourth key). These melodic intervals are always approximate. Since the notes A and E are about a quartertone smaller than the European note symbols suggest, the human ear has to "correct" quite considerably to hear for example always as a fourth a two key progression from any starting point in any direction. Harmonically there is only one interval in use, the octave. (The octave sounds from the Kiganda xylophone when the musician strikes two keys simultaneously at five keys distance.) As a melodic progression the octave is not allowed in Kiganda xylophone music. On the other hand it is not allowed to play other intervals besides octaves simultaneously the octave being indeed the only one harmony which occurs.

LEARNING TO PLAY AN AMADINDA TUNE.

Music played on the twelve key amadinda is balanced in itself and does not require accompaniment by any other instruments. It is performed by three players. The one who starts a tune and who sits at the xylophone with the larger keys on his right is called Omunazi. Opposite him, striking the other ends of the keys, sits the Omunavuzi. Each of these two players has the whole range of the xylophone except the two smallest keys at the top at his disposal. On the right of the Omunavuzi sits the Omukonezi, whose part is melodically limited to the notes of the top two keys. None of the three musicians

is allowed to exceed his limited range. (Each musician plays with two wooden sticks about 35 cm. long and 2 cm. thick).

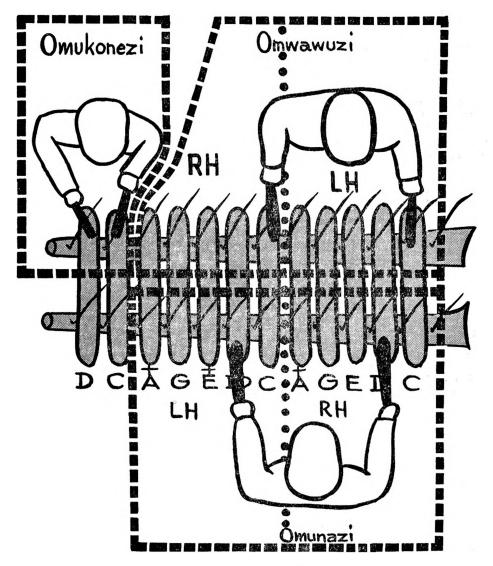


Fig. 4. The sphere of the three amadinda musicians and of each of their hands.

The music performed by the three musicians is composed and has been handed down by their forefathers. It was very interesting for me to learn that no improvisation is allowed. The only variation the players are allowed to make is to give dynamic emphasis to certain notes or note groups, but nobody would ever try to add or to omit any note or to change the rhythm. Each musician has to repeat this pattern again and again—this is indeed remarkable, since on the tape-recordings there seems to be

a steady variation! This was particularly surprising to me when I had been sitting in by myself and later on was to discover that on the tape everything sounded curiously different from what we had played. This point will be explained later in this article.

The Omunazi starts with the first part of the composition which is called Okunaga. This is an isorhythmic pattern, consisting of a series of notes of equal lengths which is repeated over and over. It is the basis of an amadinda composition and is played by the Omunazi's right and left hand in parallel octaves (myanjo), moving over the keyboard at a steady distance of five keys. I had better demonstrate the construction of an amadinda piece by an example, the shortest composition I learned to play, "Olutalo Olwe Nsinsi" (The Battle of Nsinsi).



Fig. 5. The okunaga part of "Olutalo Olwe Nsinsi". + at the beginning marks the notes to be raised a quartertone.

This okunaga part consists of twelve notes. The number of notes in the okunaga part always shows the period of the composition, its formal length. No other part can exceed that length. But it is certainly not always restricted to twelve units. Often we can find a twenty four unit form as for example in "Atalabanga mudu agenda Bulega" (No. 5) and "Nandikuwade Enyanja e Kalide" (No. 6). The eighteen unit form is even more important. (Cf. the scores of "Sematimba ne Kikwabanga" (No. 2), "Omusango kwa Balere" (No. 4) and other tunes.) In one example the tune is constructed on thirty five units of the two basic parts, "Agenda nomulungi Azawa" (not reproduced here). I first thought a mistake might have happened when I learned this tune, as I expected thirty six notes, but Mr. Muyinda insisted on it being thirty five. Instead of an indication of meter, which would be to a certain extent a mere projection of European musical imagination, I have preferred to put at the beginning of each score the number of units (basic beats) on which the tune is constructed.

After the Omunazi has started with the Okunaga part, the Omunauzi "falls in" at a certain point, which is determined in each composition. His part is called okunaula and is also played in parallel octaves. It is in many senses a counterpart; like the okunaga it is an isorhythmic series of notes.

The okwawula part can be a chain of different notes of the same character as the okunaga. Sometimes however it is a very short ostinato pattern. In our example "Olutalo Olue Nsinsi" it is a three note pattern which has to be four times repeated to fill out the twelve unit pattern of the okunaga.

The essential thing about the combination of both parts is that they have to fall between themselves, to interlock like the fingers of a folded hand. To add the okwawula part is the first difficulty the pupil has to overcome. Amadinda music is usually very fast. The Omunazi starts with his pattern at a considerable speed and now the Omwawuzi has to make his pattern fall just into the empty time between the notes of the okunaga. (Fig. 6.)

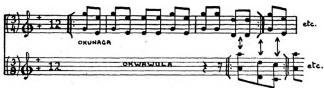


Fig. 6. How the okunaga and okwawula parts interlock.

When I started learning to play okwawula I made a mistake of great consequence. As the okwawula part falls exactly between the beats of the okunaga, the temptation is great to feel it syncopated. Indeed, from the point of view of the Omunazi the okwawula is syncopated. But an Omwawuzi who shares this view will never be able to fall in with his part. Whenever I started with the okwawula part of "Olutalo Olive Nsinsi", I still felt the beat of the okunaga part as being the basic one and "strong". My own notes which ought to be put between I therefore automatically felt to be "light" and "syncopated". Playing a tune very slowly it was possible for me, with some concentration, to fill in my pattern and to keep on with my syncopation. But at a normal speed, which seemed to me as a beginner a terrific one, I always missed the short moment to add my "syncopated pattern". Until I found out that it was necessary to ignore the basic beat of the Omunazi and to create a second pulse for myself only. Until I found that the Omwawuzi has to "switch" in a split second and to abandon the pulse of the Omunazi. At the moment he pushes his first note into the counterpart he has to feel his notes as "heavy" ones and those of the Omunazi as "syncopated". This technique needs a lot of training until the pupil succeeds. In the view of the Omunazi, the two interlocking parts look like this: (Fig. 7)

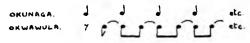


Fig. 7. Omunazi's view.

But in the view of the *Omnanuzi* the combination has to look like this, from the moment he starts: (Fig. 8)

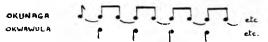


Fig. 8. Oniwawiezi's view.

This principle of combining the two parts is not restricted to the xylophone alone, but is also found in music for the ennanga (Kiganda harp) and for amakondere (horns).

If we consider the melodic structure of the okunaga and okwawula parts of "Olutalo Olwe Nsinsi" and other compositions (see the scores), we see that the melodic scope in both parts is limited. Each hand of the two musicians only moves within a small register of five keys. The melodies never exceed the range of a Kiganda seventh (from C to A+). It is striking that most okunaga and okwawula parts end on C or D. (But the okunaga parts of "Omusango kwa Balere" (No. 4) and "Nagenda kasana ngabulaba" (No. 3) both end on G.)

If we record the two parts okunaga and okwawula of "Olutalo Olwe Nsinsi" or any other amadinda or akadinda tune on a tape and listen to it afterwards, we are extremely surprised. We discover that it sounds much more complicated on the tape and rather different from what we played a few minutes earlier. We hear quite a number of rhythm patterns which we are sure that nobody played, and we also hear quite definitely variations. This confusing phenomenon is very essential for Kiganda music and seems to exist also in a number of other places in Africa. We very often hear in our recordings of African music rhythms and melodies which no musician has played. Certainly they exist and it the intention of the composer that we hear them. I should call them now "subjective" or "inherent" rhythms. Returning to our amadinda tune and analysing the melodic and rhythmic structure of both parts, it is not so difficult to find an explanation in part for this phenomenon. The ear of a listener of course cannot find out which note in one of the two parts was played by which musician, because they both play on the same keys. It integrates the two parts okunaga and okwanula and con-

structs out of them new rhythm patterns which have never been played, which run through the mind of a listener but cannot be found in the movements of the musicians' hands.

There is a psycho-acoustical fact which African composers, particularly of instrumental music (xylophone, likembe etc.), are delighted to take advantage of: that the human mind is inclined to join together form objects of similar or equal qualities and establish a "gestalt". In music the listener associates notes of equal colour or loudness and of equal or similar magnitude. If, further, notes of similar qualities are arranged in a definite rhythm of occurrence, then association is enormously stimulated. This is what many African composers are after by passion.

Listening to our amadinda tune "Olutalo Olive Nsinsi", one subconsciously associates

Listening to our amadinda tune "Olutalo Olwe Nsinsi", one subconsciously associates the smaller notes such as A and G of both parts. To make this visible, we should do the

experiment and write them together. (Fig. 9)



We see a very distinctive rhythm which definitely cannot be here just by chance. We are in fact on the track of an important composing principle of amadinda music. A tune will be interesting only if the okunaga and okwawula melodies are constructed in such a way that "inherent" or "subjective" rhythms occur and obtrude upon the listener. One is naturally inclined to hear a melodic-rhythmic line out of the "peaks" of the melodies at first, but besides the rhythm of our Fig. 9, there are quite a number of other "lines" existing in every amadinda tune which the listener may perceive from time to time. The important thing is to clarify how such inherent rhythms come into the composition, and by what means the composer is achieving this effect. A very important "line" seems to be also the rhythm which all C's and D's collected out of the two interlocking parts yield. We shall hear more about it, when coming to speak of okukonera.

Usually one or two of these inherent rhythmic lines are in the foreground and the others are not so obtrusive. This depends on a number of other influences, which may favour the one or the other. If for example on a certain amadinda all E's and D's are a little bit louder (by chance), no doubt there will be a great temptation for the listener's ears to associate them into a line and not the D's and the C's as usually happens. Strangely enough, this combination also yields a definite and interesting rhythm as we can see in Fig. 10. (The secret of all this will be revealed when we are analysing muko!)



What a listener hears depends also on the direction of attention. One must not think however that a pure conflict of definite inherent rhythmic lines is perceived. The matter is much more complicated. The different loudness and colour of some sounds on the keys may also have a destructive or better a confusing influence on the "lines". Besides this the musicians occasionally phrase or combine a number of notes of their own parts into groups, or just emphasise the pattern suddenly at certain points. These accents are of course not played by previous arrangement. They combine by chance into a further rhythmic pattern. A good deal of what a listener "produces" when hearing an amadinda tune is indeed subject to chance, but the compositions seem to be so "perfect" that they are beautiful from almost any possible point of view, We shall see why this is so.

An amadinda tune is a sort of picture-puzzle and it would be quite impossible to reproduce in a score all that could be heard. My scores here attempt to reflect exactly what is played and thus give musicians a chance to learn Kiganda xylophone music by carefully practising them.

It is also remarkable to see how the same tune played on another *amadinda* sounds largely different. The loudness and colour of each key changes to a certain degree from instrument to instrument, and so other associations of notes are stimulated.

After the Omwawuzi has added the Okwawula part, the last musician called Omukonezi starts with okukonera. This part, played on the top two keys of the amadinda, is rather difficult and there is hardly a handful of expert players existing. How is the okukonera part constructed? In a few words, the Omukonezi repeats on the top two keys all C's and D's of both the okunaga and the okwawula parts, at the moment when they occur. (The other notes, E, G and A, cannot be repeated an octave higher since the smallest key is a D.) One can interpret the technique of the Omukonezi as an incomplete repetition of the two basic parts in a higher myanjo. But we must not forget that this incompleteness is the intention of the composer, otherwise it would have been easy to construct a larger xylophone. Remember, when speaking about the "subjective" or "inherent" rhythms, I spoke of a rhythmic line consisting of all C's and D's. The notes C and D are at the bottom of the two basic voices and thus more in the background to the listener's mind, which naturally is attracted firstly by the melodic peaks. The Omukonezi belps the listener to hear this lowest of the inherent rhythms, so that the rhythmic conflict of all lines is then perfect.

The Okukonera part is often a very complicated rhythm. (See the scores.) The difficulty is certainly not only to play it, but to start it at the right moment. The okukonera rhythms of most of the transcriptions look very elaborate. They are an important part of the whole composition. It is possible that the composer of an amadinda tune starts with composing an interesting okukonera rhythm and after that adds the other voices. But investigation here is very difficult. The amadinda compositions are old, and my teacher, Mr. Muyinda, did not reveal this secret to me. There is a hope, however, of finding out through further investigation.

The okukonera of "Oluta'o Olwe Nsinsi" is not so difficult, compared with that of other amadinda compositions in the scores. For playing, the main difficulty is to get the start, because its main accents again cross those of the other two parts. Let us learn from an example how the okukonera part is derived from the two greatest notes of the other two parts.

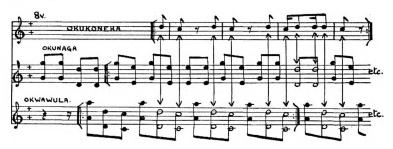


Fig. 11. "Olutalo Olwe Nsinsi".

Тне Міко

Every amadinda tune can be played in five transpositions (because the tone system is pentatonic). The Baganda musicians are very fond of playing a tune in different miko (sing. muko), as the transpositions are called in the Luganda language. It is not satisfactory to translate the word muko by "transposition". The five miko of every

amadinda tune are of a more definite character than the Western word transposition vaguely suggests.

If we want to transpose one of the two basic melodies (okunaga or okwawula) we come into difficulties with the limits of the spheres of each musician and of each of his hands. Take the okwawula part of "Olutalo Olwe Nsinsi" for instance, and transpose it one step higher. So that the top note does not reach out of the sphere of your right hand and into that of the Omukonezi you have to put it an octave lower (Fig. 12) (Note that the sphere of each hand of both Omunazi and Omvanuzi is just five definite keys. Ct. Fig. 4)



Fig. 12. Basic form and transposition of the okwawula part of "Olutalo Olwe Nsinsi".

The remaining three miko of this okwawula part have therefore to look like this:



Fig. 13. Miko III to V of "Olutalo Olwe Nsinsi", in the okwawula part.

But we shall undertand that transposition of the two basic parts has consequences on the okukonera part as well. Another pattern is now lying on the keys denoted as C and D. The Omukonezi has to repeat this pattern on the amakonezi, the top two keys. Thus each muke has its own definite okukonera voice. If we turn now to look at the scores of the five miko of "Olutalo Olwe Nsinsi" (see scores) we are perhaps surprised to find that the okukonera part is a definite and elaborate thythm in all five cases. Such a fact cannot emerge just by chance. We therefore come to the conclusion that a composer who wants to invent a new amadinda tune has to be specially careful that the okukonera parts of all five mike of his tune have a definite gestalt and show an interesting rhythm. It is also essential to know this: when five tolerable okukonera voices are composed, the whole composition is practically ready, since there is no succession of notes in an amadinda tune which is not represented (in a transposition) by the okukonera voice of one of its five mike. The reader will immediately understand this if he goes carefully through the examples. It is still a matter of investigation, however, to find out the way in which this old music was composed. What we can do in this article is only to clarify its structure and to give information to those who wish to play the Kiganda xylophone.

We can now also reveal the secret of the subjective or inherent rhythms I have dealt with above. The inherent rhythmic lines are basically nothing but the okukonera parts of the five miko! Compare the okukonera voices of miko Nos. 3 and 5 with the rhythmic lines in Figs. 9 and 10. Two of them are always the same pattern! In other words in every interpretation of an amadinda tune the other okukonera parts of the remaining four miko appear disguised again and obtrude on the ears of the listener in transpositions. That is one reason why the amadinda tunes are so colourful and exciting. It is true however, that the shape of the five okukonera parts is subject to other influences of a kind which we have described, and that they are not always heard completely and often in altered forms.

LEARNING TO PLAY AN Akadinda TUNE

Music for the twenty two key xylophone of the Baganda, the akadinda, is very different from amadinda music. The akadinda is part of an orchestra and the compositions played on it are never performed alone. The Kiganda orchestra as I saw it at Salama consisted of the following instruments:



- 1. Akadinda.
- 2. Enderre (bamboo flute).
- 3. Endigidi (one stringed fiddle).
- 4. Ensasi or Ensege (two different types of rattle).
- Four drums:
 - a. *Embutu* (hand played; complicated basic rhythms).
 - b. *Empunyi* (hand played; used only for giving a steady beat).
 - c. *Engalabi* (hand played; long drum, held between the legs; difficult to play; a sort of master drum, with much improvisation).
 - d. Nankasa (played with sticks; relatively small; "attracting" the listeners and setting the dancers on fire; much improvisation also).

The akadinda is played by six performers, three sitting on each side. The three with the big keys on their right are called Abanazi (sing. omunazi). The three opposite the Abanazi are called Abanuzi (sing. Omwawuzi). Each of these musicians has a limited range for himself. As can be seen from the scores the melodies of the Abanazi never exceed the range of five keys. The melodies of the Abanuzi, however, sometimes reach the range of an octave—in other words the sphere of an Omwawuzi on the akadinda may slightly overlap that of his neighbour, since the three musicians play at the distance of an octave.

Each of the Abavuzi has two sticks in his hands of the same kind as for amadinda. But an Omunazi has only one, in his right hand. The left hand is not used for playing. The sphere of an Omvavuzi on the akadinda is much more limited than his sphere on the amadinda; there is no tune where the melodies for both hands have a larger range than an octave (six useable keys). And the sphere for an Omunazi is just half of that on the amadinda as he plays only with his right hand.

The music performed by the six musicians is composed; improvisations are not allowed on the akadinda.

The three Abanazi start gradually (one after the other without any special rule for who should be first). Their part is also called okunaga, but the okunaga melodies for akadinda are played a little more slowly than those for amadinda. The okunaga is played in parallel octaves, the right hands of the Abanazi moving over the keyboard at a steady five

key distance. Most okunaga parts for akadinda are, formally, in a twelve note pattern.

It is possible for any one of the three Abanuzi to start with his counterpart, when the musician sitting opposite him has found his beat. This counterpart of the Abanuzi is called okwavula, but the okwavula for akadinda is different from that for amadinda. The Abanuzi have to "fill in" their okwavula at a certain point in the okunaga voices, but their part divides the basic okunaga not by two, as on the amadinda, but by three. Two notes have to be pressed into the empty space be-



Public performance of the Kiganda Orchestra from Salama

tween the okunaga beats. This is why an okunaga for akadinda is played a little slower than one would play it on the amadinda. However, the speed is still enormous, considering that to fill in two notes is much more difficult.

An Omunazi sitting at the akadinda has certainly also to "switch" in the split second when he wants to push his first two notes between the basic beats. He has to abandon the obtrusive pulse of the Abanazi and create an individual one for himself, feeling that the notes of his right hand are heavy and on the heat. He has to feel his beat on all the crochets, which he plays with his right hand. In the following illustration, Fig. 14, I wish to show by an example the task of each musician of the akadinda.



Fig. 14. Omusalaba (The Cross) As the thirds phenomenon on the large keys of the akadinda is very strong, I have notated the thirds-tones in okunaga and okunawula III, when they occur. The basic notes are then put smaller under that.

The phenomenon of inherent rhythms also exists in akadinda music, and there must be a number of rules for composition of akadinda tunes which have to be discovered through further investigation. To find an explanation for their inherent rhythms is however much more difficult than with amadinda tunes. There is no okukonera part, and also, as far as I could understand, the akadinda tunes are not played in different miko.

The most useful way of solving the remaining problems I have pointed out would be to find a living composer of Kiganda xylophone music. I cannot definitely say whether there is really any such person existing in Buganda these days.

A NOTE ON THE SCORES

The fifteen compositions for Kiganda xylophone (seven for amadinda and eight for akadinda) at the end of this article were written down after I had played them many times with the indigenous musicians. My learning of each part was carefully controlled and critically observed by my teacher, Mr. Evaristo Muyinda. The difficult okukonera part I always played in unison with him, before I tried it in ensemble.

To make reading of the scores easier, I have dropped all octave duplications of the okunaga and okwawula voices. But I wish to remind the reader here: in the amadinda scores I have written down the lowest octave, in the akadinda scores the middle voice. The okukonera part is always transposed an octave lower. The repeat marks mean: repeated many times, until the musicians lose interest or get tired. The number at the beginning of a score indicates the form. It was striking to me that most akadinda tunes I learned were 12 units long; amadinda tunes were usually 18, 24 or 12 units. The letter "l" or "r" above each okukonera note indicates by which hand the particular note is to be struck.

Except for "Olutalo Olive Nsinsi" bar lines are mostly useless for Kiganda xylophone compositions. Not only that, but misleading! (For the parts of "Olutalo Olive Nsinsi" I have used individual bar lines.) The numbers 1, 2, 3 in the akadinda scores are simply to remind the reader where each musician has to feel his beat. Always on 1!

The thirds phenomenon has been disregarded in the transcriptions; it would complicate the scores too much. The two crosses you find at the beginning of each stave should help the reader to remember that all E's and A's sound about a quarter tone higher than our note symbols suggest.

Amadinda scores

1. "Olutalo Olwe Nsinsi" in its five different miko.

Muko No. 1.





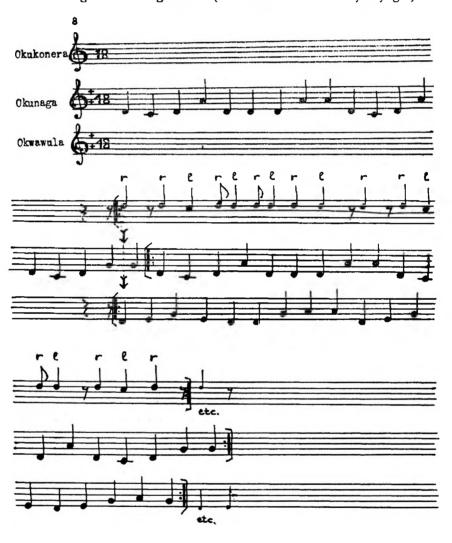


etc.

2. "Sematimba ne Kikwabanga" (Sematimba and Kikwabanga).



3. "Nagenda kasana ngabulaba" (I left when it was already daylight)







6. "Nandikuwade Enyanja e Kalide".





AKADINDA SCORES

8. "Abe Mbuga Basengeja" (People at the Chief's residence are filtering).

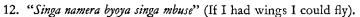


10. "Kisawo kyamuwabutwa kiwedemu emwanyi" (The bag of a poison giver has no coffee beans in it).



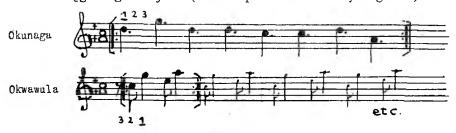
11. "Omusango kwa Balere" (The case of the pipers).

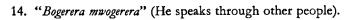






13. "Nzige busige sirusejera" (Grown-up locusts are not young ones).









15. "Omugenyi agenda kyandanda" (The stranger is departing).



