STUDIES IN ORIENTAL MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS

BY THE SAME AUTHOR

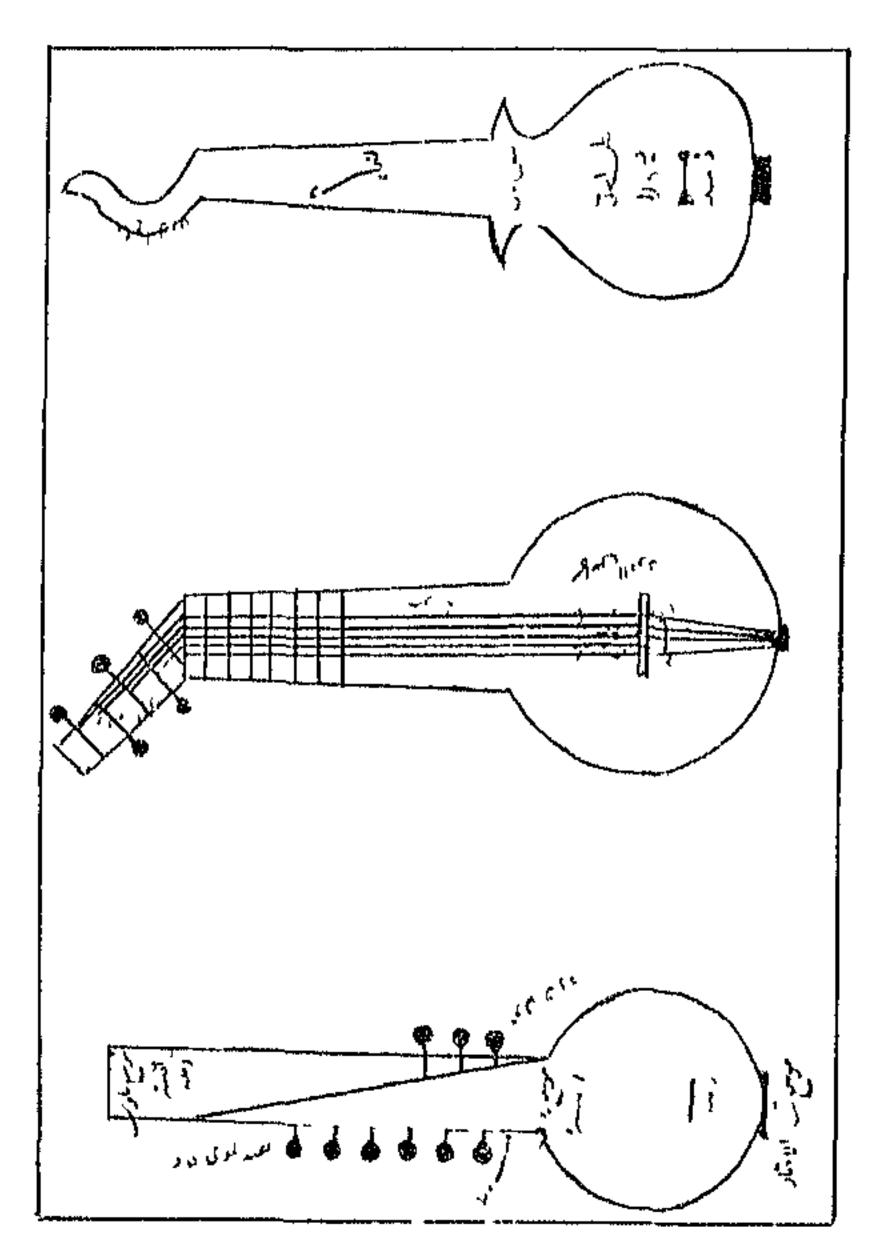
| The Organ of the Ancients: From Eastern Sources. | (1930.) |
|---|---------|
| Historical Facts for the Arabian Musical Influence. Price 12s. 6d. | (1930) |
| A History of Arabian Music to the XIIIth Century. Price 15s. | (1929.) |
| The Influence of Music: From Arabic Sources. Price 3s. 6d. | (1926.) |
| The Arabic Musical MSS, in the Bodleian Library. | (1925.) |

The Arabian Influence on Musical Theory,

Price 2s. 6d.

(1925.)

| • | | |
|---|--|--|
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |



Mughnī

Rubāb.

Cop ed 1661-68)

STUDIES IN ORIENTAL MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS

BY

HENRY GEORGE FARMER, M.A., Pn.D.

Carnegie Research Fellow

FIRST SERIES

1010 3.10 31.

WITH FOUR PLATES AND OTHER HARSTRATIONS

HAROLD REEVES
210 SHAULISBURY AVINUE
LONDON, W.C. 2
1931

Althor & Evoyetta

OUT OF PRINTING

ONLY 225 COPIES PRINTED

No... 56.

TO

WILLIAM BARRON STEVENSON, D.Liu., D.D.

 $Professor\ of\ Hebrew\ and\ Semitic\ Languages$

in

The University of Glasgow,

WHO HAS ENCOURAGED
THESE STUDIES.

CONTENTS

| | | | | | | | | | | PAGI |
|-----|-------------|---------|------|----------------------------------|--------------------|------|-------|------|--------|-------|
| Fo | DREWORD | | | | • | | | | | vi |
| M | RRATA | | | | • | | • | | | viii |
| 1. | THE MEDIA | TAVE | Psa | LTERY | IN | THE | ORIEN | T. | | 1 |
| 2. | THE ORIGIN | N OE | THE | Esona | $uv_{\mathcal{G}}$ | er. | • | | • | 17 |
| 3, | Two Easte | RN O | RGAI | NS. | | | • | • | 4 | 25 |
| 4. | A North A | l frion | n [| oik I | nste | amu | NT . | | , | 37 |
| Б, | NINTH CEN | TURY | Mus | SICAL. | Inst | RUMI | INTS | | 1 | 51 |
| 6. | A Norm on | THE | Miz | mār a | ND I | NÄΥ | | | | 63 |
| 7. | MECOAN MY | URICAT | In | STRUM | BNTS | | | | | 69 |
| 8, | THE ORIGIN | OFT | rne | Arabi | an I | AUTE | AND | REBE | э. | 89 |
| | | | | , | | | | | | |
| | | | | $\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{L}\lambda}$ | TES | | | | | |
| 1. | Persian La | JTES | | | | | | Fr | ont is | piece |
| | CAMBREII, C | | | | | | | | | 47 |
| | LUTE AND | | | | | | | | | 76 |
| 4. | REND-PIPES | , Ово | n, J | LUTE, | ANI | TA | мвоик | INE | , | 84 |
| | | | | | | | | | | |
| | J | LLQST | RATI | AL BKO | 7 721E | e Pi | TX | | | |
| 1. | Nuzna | | | • | | | • | , | | 12 |
| 2. | Qĭnŭn | • | , | • | | • | 1 | | | 13 |
| | | | | | | | | | | 14 |
| 4., | Hydrautas | | | | | | | | | , 29 |

FOREWORD

كُلُّ أَمْدِيءَ فِيهِ مِنَا يُرْمِنِي إِلَا

"In every man there is what may be attacked."

Arabic Proverb.

These studies appeared originally in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society (1925-30), and I have to thank the Council of that Society, of which I have the honour to be a member, for permission to re-issue them.

Whilst several have been reproduced practically as they first appeared in this journal, others have been entirely rewritten and their titles changed. All of them have been revised in some way or other.

The ground opened up by these studies is, for the greater part, virgin soil, and because of this I trust that their appearance in the present more permanent form, will meet with the approval of both orientalists and musicians. Whether any further series will be issued depends entirely on the success of the present publication.

To the Carnegie Trust I have to acknowledge my indebtedness in making me a Grantee, under the scheme for research work, which helped me to continue these studies.

HENRY GEORGE FARMER.

GLASGOW, 1930.

ERRATA

- Page 7, line 23. For "Nasr" read "al-Muzastar".
 - " 11, " 7. For "Al-Shaqandi" read "Al-Shaqundi".
 - " 11, " 22. For "12th-13th contury" read "written in 1301",
 - " 11, " 27. For "Al-Shalahi" read "Al-Shalahi".
 - " 27, " 4. For "Bairiq" read "al-Bairiq".
 - " 32, " 12. For "Batriq" read "al-Batriq".
 - " 39, " 21. For "küitra" read "kuwitra".
 - " 45, " 12. Delete "meaningless",
 - " 56, " 11. For "arghan" read "urghan".
- " 96, " 16. For "Nasr" read "al-Muzassar".

The Mediaeval Psaltery in the Orient

The Mediaeval Psaltery in the Orient

"In . . . The Arabian Influence on Musical Theory, by II. Ch. Farmer, occurs the sentence—'The Arabian qānān or zither, became the European canon, whilst the European instrument known as the eschaquiel or exaquir was surely derived from the Arabian mishqar or al-shaqira.' To say that the qānān became the canon, a name which Euclid gave to the monochord about 800 B.C., assigns a rather early date for Arabian influence. In the second statement 'surely' seems to suggest a mere philological guess, but the idea may be worth investigating."—A. II. Fox Strangways, Music and Letters, vi, 150.

WHATEVER the author of The Music of Hindustan has to say about Oriental music, must have a certain interest if not authority, and, for that reason, his passing comments on two points raised by me, prompt me to investigate the validity of his strictures. Whether his first objection is a philological one, or whether it is musical, is not made quite clear. If it is the former, i.e. that my contention is incompetent because the Arabic word $q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$ (\ddot{b}) is derived from the Greek word $kan\bar{o}n$ ($kan\dot{o}n$), then one might as reasonably suggest that the Greek word $n\dot{o}d$ 0 did not "become" the Latin naphtha, because the ancient Semites had the word (Arabic \dot{b}) long before. If, however, the objection is directed against the instrument itself, it is evident that we ought to inquire into the precise structure of the Greek instrument called the $nan\bar{o}n$.

The kanön of the Greeks was a monochord, used as an acoustical instrument for the theoretical demonstration of string lengths, hence the title of Euclid's Κατατομή κανόνος

¹ Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1925, pt. i, p. 61. Published separately by Harold Roeves, London.

² Porhaps the use of the term zither, which is a modern descendant of the psaltery, is likely to be misleading. It would have been better to have used the Mediacval name of psaltery and I adopt this latter in preference.

³ Stephani Thesaurus Graecae Linguae, Edit., 1810-18.

which, in all probability, is not his 1 (cf. Mr. Tox Strangways). Ptolemy calls the instrument the κανών άρμονικός, and it is figured in Wallis' edition of this writer's Harmonics (Oxford, 1682), ii, xii. From this design 2 we see that the Greek kanon was identical with an instrument used by practical musicians, and known to them as the pandoura, pandouros, or pandourion. Nikomachos, who was an Arab or Syrian by birth, speaks of the monochord, which, he says, the vulgar called the phandouros, and the Pythagorean theorists the kanon. Julius Pollux says, that this monochord was an Arabian invention,5 but that the trichord was called pandoura by the Assyrians (? Syrians). This pandoura is, of course, the same name and instrument as the Arabian tunbür. We see, therefore, that the Greek kanon was not a psaltery type, i.e. an instrument with a string or strings stretched wholly across a sound-chest, but a pandore type, i.e. an instrument with a string or strings stretched partly across a sound-chest and partly over a neck. That the Middle Ages knew of a monochord-psaltery type, may be admitted, but this was not the canon, but the monochord, as we know from Guillaume de Machaut's La Prise d'Alexandrie and Li Temps Pasteur and Adenet's Roman de Cléomades, where both instruments are distinctly mentioned. It is quite evident, therefore, that there was a wide difference between the monochord-pandore which the Greek mathematicians called the kanon, and the psaltery named by the Arabs the qanun.

² We do not urge the authenticity of the design, but similar types occur in Greek art. See Revue des Études Greeques, viil, 371.

¹ Revue des Éludes Grecques, xix, 318.

Nikomachos, Harm. (Meibom), 8. Théo Reinach says (Rev. des Etudes Grec., viii, 372) that this monochord was "analogue an rahab (? tabāb) actual des Arabes du Cairo". The passage is repeated in Daremberg and Saglio, Dict. des antiq., iii (2), 1450. The statement is misleading, since this rabāb is a flat-chested reboe or viol.

⁴ Julius Pollux, iv, 60.

⁵ It is also attributed to the Egyptians, Phrygians, etc. See Athenaics, iv, 184. Mart. Capella, ix, 924. Clem. Alex.

Viollet le Duc, Diot. du Mobilier, ii, 291.

At the same time, it is fortunate that the point has been raised, since it has enabled us to properly discriminate between these two types, and also to emphasize a "rather early date for Arabian influence", in the Julius Pollux reference.

Babylonia-Assyria possessed the psaltery type, and it was from this fount that other peoples borrowed it. Whether the Greeks possessed the psaltery is open to question. We certainly read of the psaltērion (ψαλτήριον), but this appears to have been a generic term applied to any musical instrument played with the fingers. On the other hand, it is highly probable that the epigoneion (ἐπιγονεῖον) was a psaltery. On the whole, it is doubtful if the psaltery was ever popular with the Greeks, and certainly, Greek art had not preserved the slightest trace of its use. Even in the Roman Empire of the West, we have no absolute proof that the psalterium was our psaltery. Indeed, the definitions of the Christian Fathers go rather to disprove their identity.

In the late Middle Ages, the psalterium was probably a psaltery, yet it was quite distinct from the canon, just as the canon was dissimilar from the monochord, as we know from Guillaume de Machaut, Adenet, and Juan Ruiz:—

"Orgues, vielles, micanons, Rubebes et psalterions,

Et les fretiaus, et monochorde, Qui à tous instrumens s'acorde."

La Prisc d'Alexandric.

¹ Maspero, Hist. anc. des peuples de l'orient classique, iii, 411. Mémoires de la délégation en Perse, iii, pl. xxiii. Engel., Music of the Most Ancient Nations, figs. 5 and 9.

² Clement of Alexandria says that the term was given to these instruments of Egyptian provenance.

³ Cf. Vigouroux, Diet. de la Bible, v. 807. Mahillon, Catalogue . . . du Musée instrumental du conservatoire royal de Musique de Bruxelles, i. 307.

⁴ St. Augustine, Patr. Lat., xxxvi, 671.

⁵ The psalterium, canon, and medius canon are recognized as distinct by Aegidius Zamorensis (ca. 1270). Cerbert, Scriptores, ii, 388.

"El salterio con ellos mas alto que la Mota.

La vihuela de pénola con aquestos sota.

Medio caño et arpa con el rabé morisco,

Entre ellos alegranza el galipo Francisco.

Dulce caño entero sal con el panderete,

Con sonajas de azofar fasen dulce sonete." 1

It may have been, as others have suggested,² that it was the trapezoidal form of the psaltery that the Arabs introduced as the qānūn, hence the term canon. At any rate, there does not seem to be much doubt in other quarters, that the qānūn became the canon.³

Yet, apart from the philological identity, and the unmistakable Arabesque floridity in the ornamentation of the Mediaeval psaltery, no direct evidence has yet been put forward to establish the Arabian origin of the canon, for, indeed, we have no published historical data concerning the Arabian psaltery.⁴ In view of this, I offer the following material as a contribution towards the subject.

- ¹ Riaño, Notes on Early Spanish Music, 120-30. For other versions see that of Jean Ducamin (Toulouse, 1901), and Ribera, La musica de las cantigas, 83.
 - ² Fotis, Hist. Mus., v, 153, 155. Ency. Brit., xxii, 540.
- ³ Grove, Dict. Mus., i, 730; iii, 846-7. Snohs, Reallexikon der Musikinstrumente. Burke, Hist. Spain, ii, 331 (of. 384). Cf. Lavignae, Ency. de la musique, iv, 1944.
- 4 Even the compilers of the copious and diffuse Encyclopedia of Islam give us but six lines on the qanan, and these concern the modern instrument as described by Lane, Modern Egyptians, and F. Salvador Daniel, La musique arabe. For other modern references see the following:—

Engel, Desc. Cat. of the Musical Instruments in the South Kensington Museum, 208. Christianowitsch, Enquisse historique de la musique arabe, 30, pl. iii. Déscription de l'Egypte, état moderne, i, 883. Mahillon, Cat. Desc. . . . du Musée Instrumental du Conservatoire royal de Musique, i, 190-1. Brown, Musical Instruments and their Homes, 188. Cat. of the Crosby Brown Collection of Mus. Instruments, ii, 77. Delphin et Guin, Notes sur la poésic et la musique arabes, 56. Mélanges de la faculté orientale (Beyrouth), vi, 27. Lavignac, Ency. de la musique, v, 2788, 2927, 3020, 3072. Darwish Muhammad, Kitāb Ṣafā al-auqāt (A.H. 1328), 15. Hammorich, Das Musikhistorische Museum zu Kopenhagen, 140. Stanley, Cat. of the Stearns Collection of Musical Instruments, 171. Pillaut, Le musée du Conservatoire National de Musique, 1er Suppl., 60. Dalman, Palästinischer Diwan, xxvi.

The Arabs possessed the harp (wanaj, jank, sanj, salbāq) and the barbiton, psaltery, etc. (ma'āzif) from pre-Islāmic or early Islāmic times, as well as the duleimer (sanj sīnī, santīr) and the arch-lute (shahrūd) a little later. All of these were constructed with strings which gave wholly, or partly, the open notes, i.e. without the fingers being used for stopping the notes as in the lute ('ūd), pandore (tunbūr), and rebec (rabāb).

Concerning the former instruments Al-Fārābī (d. 950) says in his Kitāb al-mūsīgī 4:—

"And it is necessary that we should now turn to the mention of the instruments in which the 'open strings' are employed, and they are those in which there is made to every note, according to its state, a solitary string, like the ma'āzif (sing. mi'zaf, mi'zafa) and the sunūj (sing. sanj)."

What were the ma'āzif? The Arabic lexicographers say that they were instruments "which you play (lit. 'beat', daraba) upon (? with a pleotrum) as in the lute and pandore". It may be assumed, however, that the resemblance refers to the method of playing, but not necessarily to the form or structure, because the use of the term by the Banti Mūsā, Al-Fārābī, and Ibn Zaila, rather precludes this latter. Al-Laith ibn Nasr (8th cent.) says that the mi'zaf (or/and al-Masafjan

Al-Mas'ūdī, Prairies d'or, vili, 01. 'Iqd al-farīd (Caho odit., 1887), ili 179. Δl-Tirmidhī, ii, 33. Aghānī, x, 101. Mafātīk al-'ulūm, 230~7. Δl-Tibrīzī, Shark al-gaṣā'id, 146.

Ibn Sīnā, Al-shifā' (India Office MS.), Iol. 173. Horo the Instrument is called الحين الصنح الحين in Pocock, 100 and 260, Bodiolan Library). Al-IInsain ibn Zaila (Brit. Mus., Or. 2301, Iol. 236 v.) has الصنح الصيني

According to the Mafatth al-'ulum the glade ad was invented in the year 912 by Hakim ibn Ahwas al-Sughdi, called Khulais ibn Akhwas by Al-Füräbi (Lib. Cant., 43), and Ibn al-Akhwas by Sali al-Din 'Abd al-Mu'min (Sharaftyya).

^{*} Kosegarten, Liber cantilenarum, 110, of. 77.

⁸ Al-Mashrig, xvi, 454.

⁶ Ibn Zaila, Brit. Mus. MS., Or. 2361, fol. 235.

mi'zafa) has "many strings". Al-Muţarrizī (12th cent.) specifies the mi'zaf as "a sort of !unbūr made by the people of Al-Yaman", whilst the mi'zafa is mentioned in the Mafātīh al-'ulūm (10th cent.) as "a stringed instrument of the people of Al-'Irāq". From the way that the ma'āzif are defined by Al-Fārābī, it is tolerably clear that the term includes the barbiton (² mi'zaf) and/or psaltery (? mi'zafa), both having "open strings" stretched across the surface of the instrument.

Ibn Sīnā (d. 1037) says in the <u>Shifā' 2</u> after defining the lute (barbat) and pandore (tunbūr):—

"And of those (instruments) possessed of strings upon which one plays without frets, there are different kinds. Some of them have strings stretched across the surface of the instrument such as the <u>shahrūdh</u>, and the <u>dhū'l-'anqā'</u>, and the <u>khujista.</u>3 Others have strings stretched, not across the surface of the instrument, but upon a space . . . like the sanj and the <u>saltāq</u> (? salbāq)."

His disciple, Al-Ḥusain ibn Zaila (d. 1048), has a similar passage in his Kitāb al-kāfī fī'l-müsīqī ':—

"And of those (instruments) possessed of strings without frets to determine the places (pitch) of the notes, but whose difference between the places (pitch) is in the length or shortness of the string itself, as in the sanj and the shahrūd, or in the length or shortness of the string and the similarity of the bridges (hāmilāt) and the supports (ā'mida) as in the 'angā'."

In spite of these several references to instruments with "open strings", and especially to the "Chinese sanj" (sanj $s\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}$), which is distinctly described as an instrument that "you

¹ Kosegarten, Lib. Cant., 45, translates ma'āzif by phorminges, and on pp. 77 and 110 by nablra.

² Ibn Sinā, as above.

³ It is written thus in the India Office MS., but in the Bodleian *Pocock*, 109, there are no points, whilst the word is omitted in *Pocock*, 250.

⁴ Ibn Zaila, Brit. Mus. MS., Or. 2361, fol. 285.

⁵ Yet the Chinese evidently borrowed it, since they call their dulcimor the yang-k'ın (" foreign k'ın ").

play on with beating-rods (majāriq)," i.e. a dulcimer, we do not find any specific mention of the psaltery, which is the same instrument practically, save that it was played by the fingers or pleetra (madārīb) instead of by beating-rods.

What the 'anga' was we can only surmise. The word suggests a "long necked" instrument, perhaps something like the Norwegian langleik. On the other hand, it may have been a psaltery pure and simple. We know from the Syriac lexicographers of the tenth century, that the trapezoidal psaltery was known to the Arabs.

The famous Al-Fārābī is credited with the type known as the qānūn. The statement is made by Ibn Khallikān (d. 1282), who says: "It is stated that the instrument called the qānūn was Al-Fārābī's invention, and that he was the first who mounted it in its present form." The name is not mentioned in Al-Fārābī's Kitāb al-mūsīqī, although the type of instrument was probably included under ma'āzif. Nor is the qānūn mentioned by Ibn Sīnā or Al-Iļusain ibn Zaila.

The word does not even occur, as the name of a musical instrument, in the Syriac lexicons of the ninth-tenth century. Here, however, a psaltery is depicted by Bar Bahlul (fl. 963) under the heading qithoro (= cithara), a generic term for "stringed instruments", as in Mediaeval Latin. Qithoro stood for quite a number of stringed instruments, and among them, according to the running Arabic commentary in these lexicons, were the wanaj, shanj (?), sanj, rabāb, 'ad, barbat, mizhar, tunbūr, qīthāra, mi'zafa, and mi'zaf. At the same time, the Syriac term qithoro evidently stood for a specific instrument since Bar Bahlul depicts a trapezoidal psaltery of ten strings

¹ Ibn Zaila, fol. 285 v.

² Ibn Khallikan, Biog. Dict., ili, 309,

Cassiodorus says: "Tonsibilia sunt chordarum fila, sub arte religata, quae amodo piectro percussa mulcont aurium delectabiliter sensum; in quibus sunt species cithararum diversarum," Patr. Lat., lxx, 1200. See also Isidoro, Patr. Lat., lxxxii, 167.

under this heading.¹ This is perhaps the earliest clue for the name zither (= $qi\underline{thoro}$, cithara) attached to an instrument of this kind, and its history from this date up to the time when there appears an instrument called the zither in Germany, would make an interesting contribution to the history of musical instruments.² But to return to the $q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$.

In the Thousand and One Nights, the qānūn is introduced into the Tale of 'Alī ibn Bakkar and Shams al-Nahār,3 which is one of the oldest tales, ascribed by Mardrus, to the tenth century.4 In the Tale of King 'Umar ibn Nu'mān and his Son, the instrument is called the qānūn miṣrī (Egyptian qānūn),5 and perhaps we have here a clue to the home of the particular type of psaltery represented by the qānūn, and attributed to Al-Fārābī, as we have seen.6 Certainly the psaltery as exemplified in the Syrian qithoro, was a ten-stringed instrument strung singly, whilst the new qānūn, as we see it in Spain in the thirteenth-fourteenth century, has many more strings, and is strung trichordally.7

The name $q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$ was clearly derived from the Greek. By the tenth century, owing to Arabic translations from the Greek, Syriae, and Persian a considerable foreign nomenclature had been adopted by the Arabs in their sciences and arts. So far as music is concerned, this loaning was, on the whole, quite spasmodic. In musical instruments we find the tunbūr (pandore) being occasionally called the kinnār, kinnāra (= 142), the rabāb (rebec, viol), may have been known as the $l\bar{u}r$, $l\bar{u}r\bar{a}$ (= $\lambda \delta \rho a$), the murabba' (flat-chested guitar) was named the qitāra, qisāra, $q\bar{\imath}th\bar{a}ra$, $k\bar{\imath}th\bar{a}ra$ (= $\kappa\iota\theta d\rho a$), and so we may assume that about the same time the psaltery,

¹ Payne Smith, Thes. Syr., 3013.

² Cf. Riomann, Diet. Mus. (Engl. edit.) sub" Zither".

³ Alf laila wa laila (Macnaghton edit.), 169th night.

⁴ Mardrus, Le livre des mille nuits et une nuil.

⁵ Alf laila wa laila, 40th night.

⁶ The theorists Euclid and Ptolemy, who both experimented with a κανών, belonged to Egypt.

⁷ Ribera, op. eit.

whatever its earlier Arabic name was, became the quain (= κανών), because it expressed the canon or rule of the Greeks, a system which Al-Pārābī was anxious that the Arabs should adopt. Probably this is what the Khallikan meant when he said that Al-Pārābī was "the first who mounted it in its present form".

Al-Shaqendī (d. 1231) mentions the qānūn among the chief instruments of Al-Andalus. This author was an Andalusian Arab, whose risāla in praise of his native land, was freely used by Al-Maqqarī. He tells us that Seville was a centre for the manufacture of musical instruments, in which it did a considerable export trade. Among the instruments mentioned are the <u>khiyāl</u> (?), the kirrīj (?), the 'ūd, the rūṭa, the rabāb, the qānūn, the mūnis (?), the kinnīra, the ghinār (?), the zulāmī, the shaqira, the nūra, and the būq. Ibn Rushd, better known as Averroes, paid a similar tribute to the musical reputation of Seville concerning instruments. It is not improbable that some of the Arabian musical instruments that came "swarming into Europe through the port of Spain", came from Seville.

Strange to say, the qānūn does not appear to be included in the lengthy treatise of the twelfth thirteenth century on the legality of music and musical instruments, entitled the Kitāb al-imtā' wa'l-intifā', which is in the National Library at Madrid, or in the list of instruments extracted from this work by Casiri, although De Gayanges says: "According to Al-Shalāhī (= Kitāb al-imtā') this (qānūn) is the Persian name for a species of dulcimer, harp, or sackbut, the strings of which, from fifty to sixty in number, rest upon bridges, and are touched with both hands, without making use of any pleetrum or bow." of

- 1 Al-Maggail, Analectes, ii, 143-4.
- 2 Rowbotham, Hist. Mus., iii, 512.
- ³ Cf. Casiri, loc. cit., and Derenbourg's Catalogue, p. 613.
- 4 Robles, Catalogo, No. 603.
- 5 Casiri, Bibl. Bsour., 1, 527.
- ⁶ Al-Maqqari, Mohammedan Dynastics in Spain, 1, 305-0. Cf. Golius, Lexicon, and Moninski, Thesaurus, sub" adnun".

The famous musical theorist, Ṣafī al-Dīn 'Abd al-Mu'min (d. 1294), who was in the service of the last khalif of Baghdād, was the inventor of a rectangular psaltery called the nuzha (¾). A design of the nuzha is given in this author's Kuāb al-adwār, or, at least, in some copies, notably those in the Bodleian Library. Here is a design from that in the Marsh MS. 521. Thirty-two pegs (malāwī) are shown on the left side of the instrument, which control thirty-two strings of various lengths stretched across the belly of the instrument between the double lines.

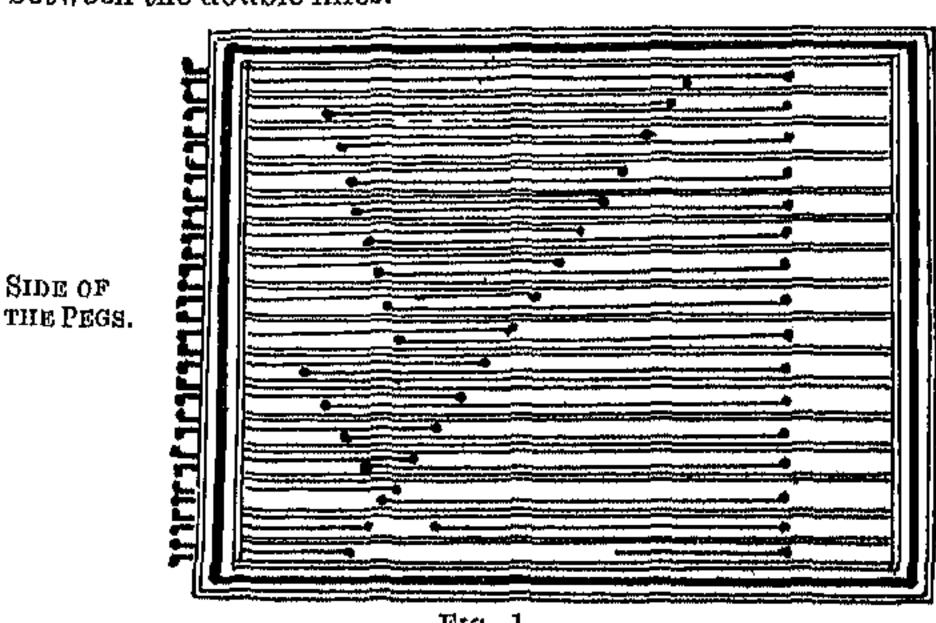


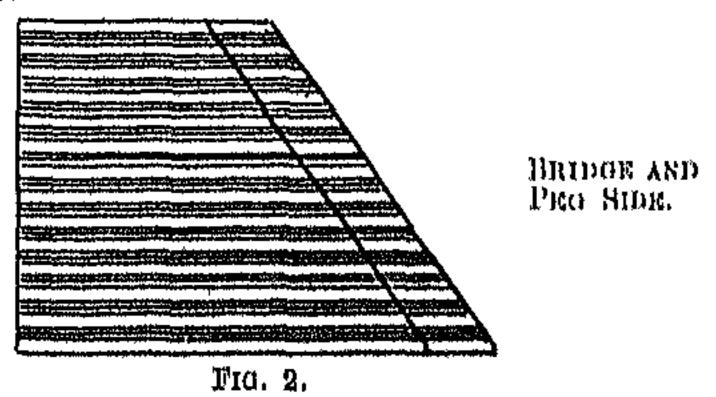
Fig. 1.

In the Kanz al-tuḥaf, a Persian treatise on music dating from the fourteenth century, we get a full description of both the qānūn and nuzha, as well as designs. The qānūn is trapezoidal, and the author directs that it should be made of the wood of the vine or plum-tree. Its length on the lower side (jānib al-thaqīl "bass end") was 81 cm. (= 3 badast), and on the shorter side (jānib al-ḥādd = "treble end") 40.5 cm. (= 1½ badast), whilst the length of oblique side where

¹ Riou, Suppl. Pers. MSS. in the Brit. Museum, 15, says that the date, in a chronogram, may be read as 1316, 1355, or 1362. Cf. Clément Huart in Lavignac's Ency de la musique, v, 3071.

² I use the following scale, A digit (angusht) = 2.25 cm., an open digit (angusht kushāda) = 6.75 cm., and a span (badast) = 27 cm.

the tuning pegs (malāwī) were fixed, was 74.25 cm. (-2 badast and 3 angusht kushāda). It was strung with sixty-four strings (awtār), trichordally, i.e. every (?) three strings being tuned to one note. If If is the design from the Kanz al-tuhaf. From this we see (if it is correct) that the instrument differed in construction from the modern specimens. First the bridge (zāmila) is shown in conformity with the text, on the side of the pegs, i.e. on the oblique side. Nowadays, this bridge is at the opposite side, and stands on that part of the belly (wajh = surface), which is covered with parchment, a feature not mentioned in the above treatise. Further, the shape does not agree with other figures of the instrument found in MSS, nor with modern specimens. In the latter, if the bass end is at the bottom, then the oblique side and the pegs are on the left.



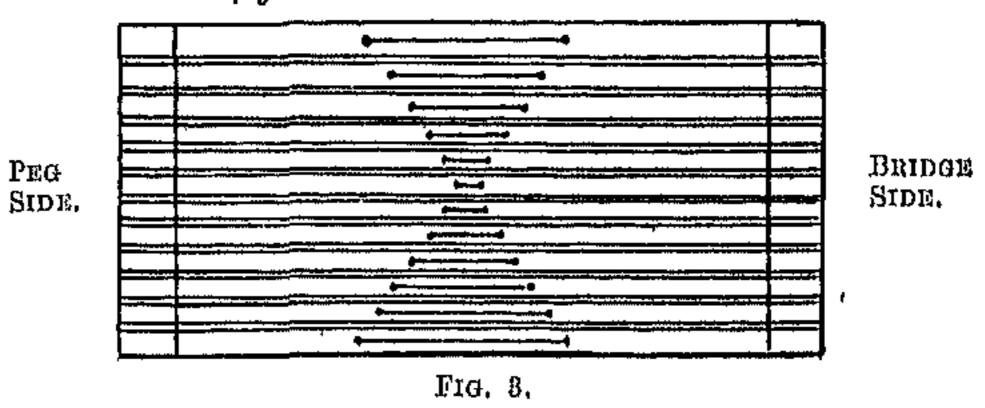
The nuzha, says the author of the Kanz al-tuhaf, was twice the size of the qānūn, and he directs that it should be made of red willow, shah-wood, boxwood, or eypress. Its dimensions were 74.25 cm. (= 2 badast and 3 angusht kushāda) by 54 cm. (= 2 badast), and the thickness of the sound-chest 27 cm. (= 4 angusht kushāda). The belly was made, like that of the lute ('ūd), of yery thin wood. One hundred and eight strings were mounted on the instrument altogether, and were disposed thus: eighty-one strings were stretched across the whole

¹ Kanz al-tuhaf, Brit. Mus. MS., Or. 2361, fol. 264,

² The MS, dates from 1602-64.

This looks as though it should be 4 angusht (= 0 cm.) as in 'Abd al-Qādir ibn Ghaibī. Yet the above dimension occurs in the Paris copy of the Kanz al-tuhaf.

body of the instrument, and were arranged trichordally, i.e. every three strings gave the same note. Between these strings twenty-seven single strings of different lengths were placed, and these were the treble strings. The nuzha was played horizontally, both hands being used, the side of the pegs being on the left. Here is the nuzha as delineated in the Kanz al-tuhaf.



The eminent virtuoso 'Abd al-Qādir ibn Ghaibī (d. 1435) describes the qānūn in his Jāmi' al-alḥān fī 'ilm al-mūsīqī, written in 1418, a holograph of which is preserved in the Bodleian Library.² This instrument, which, in another treatise Ibn Ghaibī attributes to Plato, is described as trapezoidal, with a sound-chest 9 cm. (= 4 angusht) deep. We are not informed of the number of strings, save that they were strung trichordally as above, and that they were made of twisted copper. The instrument gave the same scale, says this author, as the harp (chang), and as this latter had twenty-four strings, the qānūn must have had seventy-two. Sometimes, he says, the musicians who "combined theory and practice", i.e. who could play in the rule of the "Systematists" with eighteen notes within the octave, used thirty-five strings on the harp, which would mean 105 strings on the qānūn.

Another instrument of the psaltery type was the mughnī (مغنی). Its form, according to 'Abd al-Qādir ibn Ghaibī, was that of a board. It had twenty-four strings, every second

¹ Kanz al-tuhaf, fol. 263 v.

² Bodleian MS., No. 1842, fol. 78. Cf. Lavignac's Encyclopédie de la musique, v, 2078.

string giving the octave of the preceding string. Itvliya Chelobî (d. ca. 1679), who writes it mūyhnī (موغنى), says that it is not mentioned in the Säznäma of Nihānī Chelebī, but that the instrument was in the form of a ganan, and that it was invented in Magnesia, where it was still popular in his day, as well as in Aidin, and Tira.1 Evidently the modern muglini of Georgia is a similar type of instrument.2 Yet the instrument known by this name in the thirteenth century, and even in the fourteenth, can scarcely be classed as a psaltery strictly speaking, as Dr. Curt Sachs has done in his admirable Reallexikon der Musikinstrumente. The mughni described in the Kanz al-tuhaf as being invented by Sasi al-Din 'Abd al-Mu'min, was "a combination of the rubāb, gānān, and nuzha". It had a large convex sound-chest (käsa) like the rubāb, with a wide, sat neck (dasta) like a narrow nuzha, whilst the strings were arranged as in the quantin, so as to pass over a diagonally placed bridge or nut (zāmila) on the neck.4 There were thirty-nine strings, but we are not told whether any of the strings were fingered. Probably they were not, and the instrument would appear to belong to the type with a convex sound-chest, that gave the "open notes" only, which we have termed barbitons. The design in the Kanz al-tulaf bears this out.

A Turkish author named Ahmad Uglu Shukrullah, who lived under Murad II (1421-51) says concerning the nuzha, that there were eighty-one strings, tuned trichordally, giving twenty-seven notes. In the Maghrib, according to Ibn Khaldan (d. 1406), the qanan was rectangular, but probably the term murabba was but loosely used, and most likely the instrument was really a trapezoid.

¹ Evliya Efondi, Narrative of Travels, 1 (2), 235; and the text in the Sighhat-nāma.

² Curt Sachs, op. cit., 263.

^a Ibid., 261.

⁴ Kanz al-tuhaf, fol. 204 y. sog.

Quoted by Yokta Boy, Lavignac's Nucy. de la musique, v, 3013,

The Khaldin, Prolegomena, ii, 352. Dolphin of Cluin, in their Notes sur la poésie et la musique arabes, 57, quoto a nativo authority for the statement that the ganan was introduced into Algeria in the ninoteenth century |

The names of two famous Eastern qānūn players have been handed down to us—Shams al-Dīn al-Dahmān (d. 1321) who was also famed as a poet, and Khwāja 'Abdallāh Marwārīd (d. sixteenth century) who invented the "shake" on the qānūn.¹

By the fourteenth century the qānān was well established in Western Europe,² as the Latin canon and medius canon,⁸ the Spanish caño entero and medio caño,⁴ the French canon and micanon,⁵ the German kanôn and metzkanôn, canale and medicinale,⁶ the Italian canone and mezzo canone,⁷ and the Scandinavian (Livonian) kanala. The name and instrument probably came through Arab Spain, and not from the East by means of the Crusades, as Fétis and Hipkins believed.⁸

- Bābar nāma (edit. Bovoridge), i, 278.
- ² See the typical Arabian quantu in the painting of Wilhelm von Herle (Moreck, Die Musik in der Malerei, pl. i), and Oreagna's Trionfo della Morte (Lacroix, Les arts au moyen âge. Naumann, History of Music, ii, 320).
 - 3 Aegidius Zamoiensis (ca. 1270). Gerbeit, Scriptores, ii, 388.
 - 4 Juan Ruiz (ca. 1330). See Riaño, Notes on Early Spanish Music, 129.
 - 6 Guillaumo de Machant (fourteenth century).
 - Der Minne Regel, ca. 1404. Soo Samm. d. Inter. Musikgessel., xiv.
 - ⁷ Fr. da Barbarmo, Reggimento e costumi di donne. P. ii, iii, 79.
 - 8 Fétis, Hist. Mus., v. 153. Grove, Dict. Mus., i, 739.

The Origin of the Eschaquiel

The Origin of the Eschaquiel

"In . . . The Arabian Influence on Musical Theory, by H. G. Farmer, occurs the sentence—'The European instrument known as the eschaquiel . . . was surely derived from the Arabian mishqar or al-shaqira.' . . . 'Surely' seems to suggest a more philological guess, but the idea may be worth investigating."—A. H. Fox Strangways, Music and Letters, vi, 150.

I SAID that "The European instrument known as the eschaquiel or exaquir was surely derived from the Arabian mishqar (ﷺ) or al-shaqira" (ﷺ). Mr. Fox Strangways says that my "surely" "seems to suggest a mere philological guess". One might reply by pointing out that much good philological work is based on guesswork at the start. Indeed, the key to the Babylonian-Assyrian cuneiform script originated in a guess. However, Mr. Fox Strangways has a saving clause which tells us that my idea "may be worth investigating", and for that reason I take pleasure in pushing the inquiry a little further.

The circumstance which has given rise to the comment above, is an article by Dr. W. II. Grattan Flood entitled "The Eschequier Virginal: An English Invention", in which the earliest references to this instrument in Western Europe from Guillaume de Machaut (1360) to Molinet (lifteenth century) are summarized. We are told that "its English origin is placed beyond any question" by the fact that Guillaume de Machaut describes it as the eschaquier d'Engletere. Since this is the solitary reference to the eschaquier d'Engletere, I fail to see that this is sufficient authority for Dr. Flood stating, "Thus, in the second half of the fourteenth century, French writers seemed to take it for granted that the musical instrument called Eschequier or Chequer was an English invention."

¹ Music and Letters, April, 1925.

The only other evidence submitted for the English claim is based on the fact that in 1371 Philip the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, had a minstrel who played on the eschequier. Says Dr. Grattan Flood: "Doubtless this minstrel was an Englishman, for, in 1375, Philip had an English harper called Walter, who was also proficient on the Rote." Yet, why assume that the player of the eschequier was an Englishman merely because the player on the harp and rote was English?

The meaning of the phrase eschaquier d'Engletere is explicable from De Machaut himself. This author also mentions the cors sarrazinois, the cornet d'Allemainge, etc., but we do not refer the origin or invention of the horn and cornet to the Saracens or Germans on that account! On the contrary we merely recognize that these names refer to distinctive models of the horn and cornet used by these people. And so, when we read of the exchaquier d'Engletere we can only assume that the English possessed a particular type of this instrument.

The various forms of the name of this instrument (apparently a type of virginal), schaquier, exquaquiel, eschequier, echiquier, exaquir, chekkers, appear to carry strong features of Hispano-Arabian origin. To me, they recalled a certain instrument called al-shaqira, mentioned by an Arabic author named Al-Shaqandī. It is not a "mere philological guess", because, after all, there are such things as philological laws which enable us to formulate certain criteria belonging to the same type, from which we can safely generalize. The forms given above are philologically identical with the Spanish axabeba (= Arabic al-shabbāba). and axaqueqa (= al-shaqiqa). The fact that the English word was chekkers would seem to show that the Arabic article al (= the phonetic esh), which we find in the Spanish and French names, has been properly dispensed with.

² The <u>shabbāba</u> was a flute. This was another of the Arabic names adopted by Southern Europe.



¹ Grattan Flood, loc. cit, Galpin, Old English Instruments of Music, 121. Samml. Inter. Mus. Gesel., xiv, 485. Sachs, Real-Lexikon der Musik-instrumente, s.v.

In the work of Al-Shaqandi (d. 1231), already quoted, we read: "Al-shaqira and al-nūra (? al-lūra) are mazāmīr," 1 the former having a "beguiling sound", and the latter a "very delicate one". Mazāmīr (sing. mizmār) was the term generally used for the "wood-wind", but apparently it was also applied to "stringed instruments". In the Kitüb al-imta' wa'l-intifā' (thirteenth century) an authority is quoted who says: "The mizmär is a stringed instrument of ancient origin amongst us. It is confounded with the mizmar which is the näy (flute or oboc)." 4 It is probable, therefore, that this shaqira was a "stringed instrument". That it may be equated with the above European names is confirmed by clearly defined laws of phonetic change. Yet, even if it is allowed that my argument above has some validity, I admit that it does not prove that the Arabs knew of the principle of the virginal, but only that the shaqira was a "stringed instrument", and that the word equates with exaguir, etc. For that reason it will be necessary to seek for evidence that the Arabs had knowledge of a keyboard as in the virginal. In the Greek Orthodox College at Bairut, and at the St. Sophia Library at Constantinople, there are MSS. attributed to a certain Müristus on organ construction. The Bairut MSS, date from the twelfth century, although we can definitely trace the works themselves to the tenth century,7 and probably to the early ninth century.8 Ibn Abī Uşaibi'a (d. 1270) tells us of two eminent twelfth century constructors of organs. Indeed, the organ was known to the Arabs,

¹ I use the plural instead of the dual here.

² Al-Maggari, Analectes, ii, 148.

³ De Gayanges, Al-Maqqari's Mohammedan Dynastics, i, 366. Mizmar man psalterium in one of the oldest Arabic versions of Psalm el.

⁴ Madrid, Bibl. Nac., No. 003.

⁵ Seo Dozy and Engelmann, Glossaire des mots Espagnols et Portugais dérives de l'Arabe, Intro.

⁶ Al-Mashriq, ix, 18-28.

⁷ Al-Fihrist, 270.

⁸ Al-Jāhiz (Cairo edit.), 133, 143.

^e Ibn Abî Uşaibi'a, ii, 165, 163.

Persians, and Syrians from the early ninth century onwards. Although in the Müristus MSS. it is sliders and not keys (levers) that are described, yet the key system was known to them as early as the ninth century, as will be demonstrated presently. Meanwhile, the description of the portative organ by 'Abd al-Qādir ibn Ghaibī in 1414, is quite that of an up-to-date instrument.

"The organ (urghanun) is much used by the Franks. It is constructed of pipes arranged in a row. Behind them are arranged bellows from which the wind goes into the pipes... And with the left hand they move the bellows, and with the fingers of the right hand they play. And the notes are in its pipes, and to every pipe there is a 'pallet' (lit. 'screen') in the form of a . . . (?) . . . , which, when pressed down, opens a passage (into the pipe) and its voice is heard." 3

That the principle of a plucked instrument with a keyboard, as in the virginal, might have been known to the Arabs in the ninth-twelfth century, there are reliable grounds for believing. Pleetra were already used for their psalteries and beating-rods for their dulcimers, and as they knew of the keyboard system in the organ, all that was necessary was a combination of the two. There is a MS of the twelfth century at the college of the Greek Orthodox Church at Bairūt, written by the Banū Mūsā in the ninth century, entitled Al-ālat illatī tuzammir binafsihā ("The Instrument which Plays by Itself") which gives some interesting information on this point.

The text of this MS. has been printed in the Mashriq,⁴ and a complete translation is given in my Organ of the Ancients from Eastern Sources. From it we see an "automatic organ" furnished with a keyboard, although, being an automatic contrivance, the keys were not adapted for the fingers.

¹ See authorities quoted in my "Byzantine Musical Instruments in the Ninth Century", in the JRAS., Pt. II, 1925, p. 304 (1).

² For full details of the organ from Arabic sources see my book, The Organ of the Ancients from Eastern Sources (Hebrew, Syriae, and Arabic).

³ Ibn Ghaibi, Bodleian MS., No. 1842, fol. 78,

^{*} Al-Mashrig, xvi, 444-58.

The keys (مسطرات) were moved by a cylinder (برنج) supplied with teeth (شفلیات), and this cylinder, when turned, moved the keys according to the specific arrangement of the teeth, as in the modern barrel-organ.

The same principle could have been adapted to the psaltery, that is to say, that instead of the keys controlling "pallets" or wind valves, they would move "jacks" which plucked strings. Indeed, the Banti Mūsā even constructed images whose arms were made to move mechanically as though they were playing stringed instruments. The Banti Mūsā say:—

"And according to this same method (that already described in the organ), it is sometimes proper that we should make an image which plays (lit. 'beats') on the lute ('ūd) or on instruments of strings like the ma'āzif... And the contrivance in all this is like the contrivance of the organ (zamr), so that every one note of the strings corresponds with every note of the organ." 2

It is therefore tolerably clear that the Arabs knew of the keyboard principle of the eschaquiel-virginal in the ninth-twelfth century. Further, some of the writings of the Banti Müsä were known to the Andalusian Arabs, and some were even translated into Latin (Liber trium fratum) by Gerard of Cremona, and their Alat illati tuzammir binafsihä may have been one of them. It was this knowledge, plus what Mr. Fox Strangways is pleased to call "a mere philological guess", that prompted me to suggest among my "clues" for the Arabian influence, that "the European instrument known as the eschaquiel or exaquir was surely derived from the Arabian mishqar or al-shaqira".

² Al-Mashrig, xvi, 454.

Professor M. Collangettes, who supplied a note to the text, conceived this instrument to be similar to the one described by Kircher in his Musurgia Universalis, ii, 344 (Icon., xxii), but the principle of the wind supply in the Banu Müsü instrument was different from that of the latter instrument.

Organs



Two Eastern Organs

THE earliest reference to an organ in Arabic literature is contained in the Kitāb al-siyāsa, that is, if we accept the document at its face yalue, which says that it was translated by Yūḥannā ibn Baṭrīq (d. 815) from the Greek via Syriac. Although this book does not appear to be mentioned in Arabic literature earlier than Ibn Khaldūn (d. 1406), yet we know that it was translated from the Arabic into Latin by John of Spain (c. 1135), and again by Philip of Tripoli (c. 1243), a version reflected in the Secretum Secretorum of Roger Bacon, whilst a Hebrov version from the Arabic was made by Judah al-Ḥarizi (fl. 1190-1218).

Full historical and critical details of this work may be found in Mr. Robert Steele's edition of Roger Bacon's Secretum Secretorum, and in Professor Lynn Thorndike's History of Magic and Experimental Science. The Arabic text has not yet been published, so that the passage dealing with the so-called "Horn of Alexander" (a hydraulis) is worth quoting together with a design of the instrument.

Mr. Steele says—"No Latin MS. is known in which there is a figure of the horn, with the exception of that in Holkham Hall, in the borders of which an entirely fanciful instrument is depicted". Professor Thorndike points out, however, that a figure may be found in a Munich MS. (2574b, fol. 68v.). Achillini, in the 1501 and 1516 editions of the Secretum Secretorum, gives a woodcut of a horn, which is certainly chimerical. The idea was borrowed by Kircher in his Ars magna (1646), and in his Phonurgia nova (1674). The Holkham Hall design, which has been reproduced in the facsimile issued by the Roxburghe Club, turns out to be not so "entirely fanciful" as Mr. Steele suggests. Clearly,

¹ Stoole, op. oit., lviii.

² Thorndike, op. cit., ii, 265. ⁵ p. 140. ⁴ p. 132.

^{- 5} The Treatise of Walter de Milamete . . . et De Secretis Secretorum Aristotelis, 1913, pl. 151.

the artist had some substantial authority for his conception of the "Horn of Alexander" as an organ, with blowers manipulating diagonal bellows to wind the instrument.

The text of the Kitāb al-siyāsa according to two MSS. in the British Museum runs:—1

ويجب ان يكون معك الآلة التي اقامها يايسطيوس للاندار وهي آلة مفرغة تتصرف في كشير من الامور لانك ربما احتجت الى اندار جميع بلادك وتهي الاجناد فيها ليوم زحف او تقليع او غير ذلك مما يحتاج اليه و في العساكر الثقال وصوتها يسمع من ستين ميلاً.

Translation

"And it is necessary that there should be with thee the instrument which Yāyasṭayūs (Thāsīṭūs and Thāsṭīyūs in 'D') invented for warning (people). And it is a pneumatic instrument used for various purposes, because it enables you to warn all your country, and propare the troops the same day for advancing or retiring, or any other purpose necessary in a mighty army. And its sound will be heard sixty miles."

w. **

15

¹ Or. 3118, fols. 52v-53 (called "C"), and Or. 6421, fol. 90 (called "D"),

ولنكن MS. " D " begins ولنكن.

[.] ثاسطيكوس and ثاسبطوس has " D " is

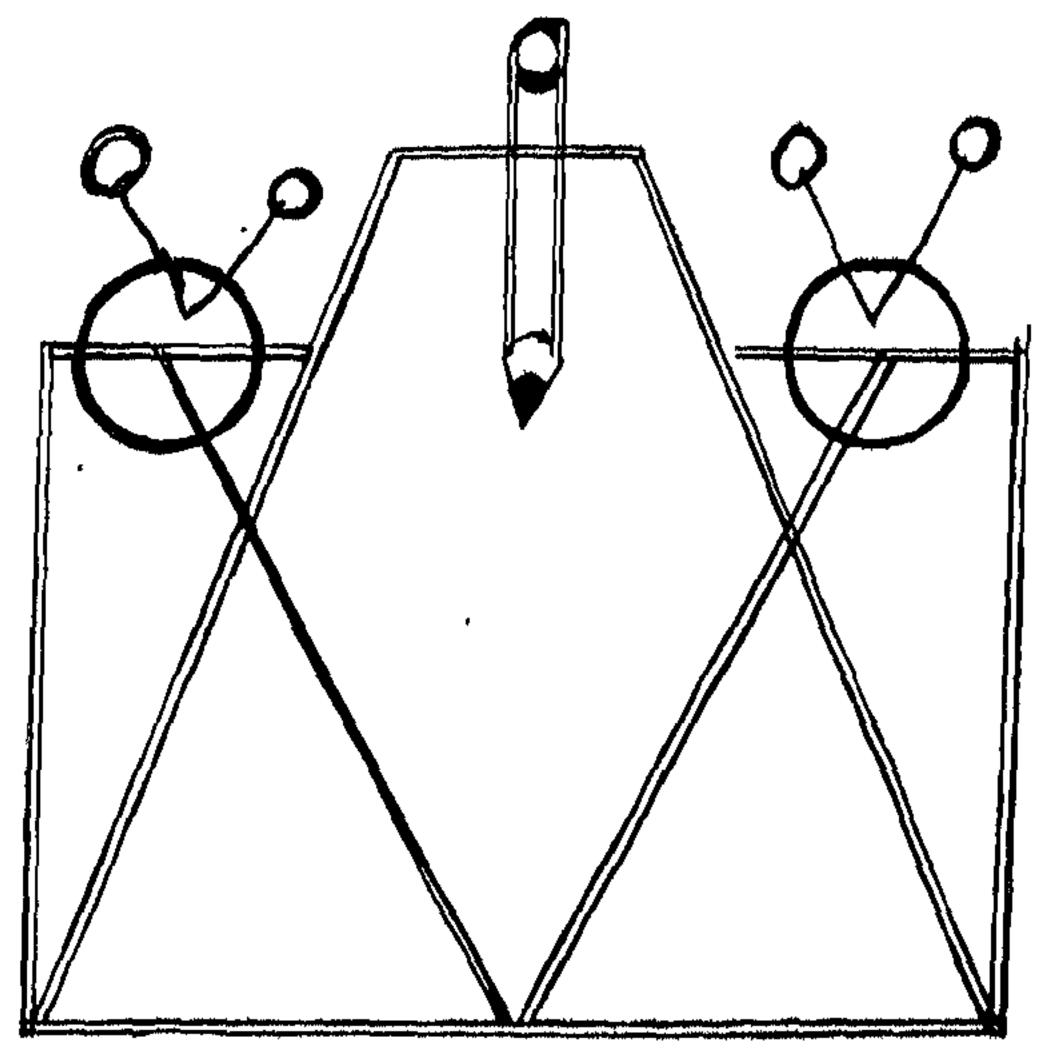
י" O" has ביביב" torrifying". See the Latin version of Bacon. as in "D", agrees with the Hobrew בלי דומים "hydraulie (1) instruments". See the Hebrow text in JRAS., 1907.

[&]quot;همو has " D " has

او لىقايع the passage runs ليوم the passage runs.

^{&#}x27; 9 omitted in " D ".

⁸ Roger Bacon has ad nocendum, which Stoole suggests is a mistake for advocandum, as in the Holkham Hall MS.



From Brit. Mus. Or. 3118 1

Ilere we have a hydraulis of a similar type to that described and delineated in the Müristus MS. entitled "-" Construction of the Instrument which Müristus Invented, The Sound of which Travels Sixty Miles" (على الآلة التي الخذها مورسطس) and to the specifications of Herön and Vitruvius.

The design shows the infunibulum inversum of Vitruvius (= Horon muyeus, Mūristus (i.e., Mūristus (i.e., Mūristus (i.e., Mūristus (I)). On onch ot Vitruvius (= Tleron $\beta \omega \mu lokos$, Mūristus (I). On onch

¹ By the courtesy of the Trustees of the British Museum.

^a Al-Mashriq, ix, 21.

Both the Alabs and Syrians likened this ar(e)a to an " oven " (tannar).



side of the top of the ar(c)a are cylindrical bellows (Vitr. modiolus, Herön πυξίς, Mūristus زق رومي).1

The "invention" of this instrument is ascribed above to a certain Yāyasṭayūs, or Thāsīṭūs, or Thāsṭīyūs. Can these forms be scribal errors for Mūrisṭus, Mūrṭus, or Mīrisṭus, or vice versa? In the latter forms the person intended is evidently Ameristos, the brother of Stēsichoros, for whom the Commentary of Proklos on Euklid is quoted. Baron Carra de Vaux has argued that the names might be malformations of Aristos, the friend to whom Philon dedicated his works. At the same time, whilst theories are "in the air", why should it not be hazarded that these names are scribal slips for Ktēsibios, to whom the hydraulis is more usually ascribed.

Another account of a mediaeval organ in the Orient comes from Chinese sources. In 1926 the Rev. A. C. Moule gave details of an organ in China in the thirteenth century, although M. Maurice Courant had brought it to our notice in 1913 (Lavignac's Encyclopédie de la musique, i, 161). However, it was not until the Rev. A. C. Moule's article, A Western Organ in Mediaeval China (Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, April, 1926) appeared that we got definite particulars. Three documents of the fourteenth century (the Yüan shih, the Chokéng lu, and the Wang chung wén kung [ch' llan] chi) were given (text and translation), to which the Rev. Canon F. W. Galpin added an explanatory article—Some notes on the original form and source of the Hsing lung Shéng.

¹ These "Greek bellows" are called zauqī bellows in the Arabic version of Philon's Pneumatics. Since روى and زوق are much alike in appearance, one may be a copyist's error for the other.

² Al-Fihrist, 270. Ibn al-Qifțī, 322. Abū'l-Fidā, 156.

³ Pape, Wörterbuck, s.v. I am indobted for this "oluo" to Professor D. S. Margoliouth.

^{*} Revue des Etudes Grecques, xxi, 338-40. Notices et Extraits des MSS., xxxviii, 29, 38. Journal Asiatique, sor. x1, Tomo x, 450.

The Rev. A. C. Moule had mentioned the instrument in 1908 (Journal of the China R.A.S.), but without knowing what it was.

The Yilan shih describes an organ called the hsing lung shing. It owes its origin in China to an organ "presented by the Muslim kingdoms in Chung-t'ung (1260-1264). The original Muslim instrument, we are told, "produced sounds but no scale." The Imperial Ytlan Music Office, however, "after examining the notes and scales, and distributing the high and low notes properly, added to and changed the instrument." The Wang chung wen kung chi says that the instrument was "an offering from the lands of the west", and that the Emperor Khubilāi (a kinsman of Hūlāgū the ruler of the Muslim kingdoms in the West) himself "added improvements to it". In the fourteenth century, the hsing lung ching had ninety pipes in six ranks of lifteen each.

All this is of the highest interest to orientalists and historians, for, as Canon Galpin says, the documents brought forward raise some interesting questions as to (1) the country or place or its origin, (2) the form of its reeds, and (3) the scale represented by its fifteen notes.

Where did it come from? The Yilan shih says from the "Muslim kingdoms", and the Wang chung wên kung chi says the "Lands of the West". Mr. Moule kindly informs us that whilst the phrase Hsi yil stood for "Arabia", it would be more generally true to say that it meant the "Lands of the West", i.e., "the greater part of Western Asia." If, as we may suppose, Hülägü, presented this organ to Khubiläi, it is probable that it came from Syria, as we shall see. Hülägü held Damascus and Aloppo, the home of the Muslim organ, in 1260-1.

I have already given a number of references to the organ from Arabic literature.² The Muslim peoples clearly got their organ from Byzantium. In Syria the Arabs would have come in contact with the pneumatic organ from the days of

¹ The Rev. A. C. Moule informs me that in Chinese the same word is used for the notes of the seale as for the kinds of sound. In view of this, it is possible that the word scales above might be sounds.

² See ante p. 22-3.

Arabian school of translators began to work on some of the ancient Greek treatises (especially those on organ construction) that the Muslim mechanicians began to produce the instrument for the Khalifate court and nobility. We may be sure that the hydraulis made its appearance in this way, seeing that it had long passed out of ken in both the East and West. Indeed, it is highly probable that the hydraulis was reintroduced into the Orient by the Muslims after its disappearance for three centuries. But this opens a question for later discussion.

As early as Yühannä ibn Bairīq (d. 815), who translated a pseudo-Aristotelian work known as the Kitāb al-siyāsa, we read of the hydraulis, as will be seen from the preceding account. In the Kitāb al-aghānī there is a story about Princess 'Ulayya (d. 826), Khalif Al-Ma'mūn (813-33) and an organ (i) written الرغن). From this time onwards to the date of the hsing lung shêng, we have a goodly number of references to and descriptions of organs from Arabic sources.

As for the construction of the instruments, we know from the Arabic versions of the Pneumatics of Philon, the Mechanics of Heron, the Automatic Flute-Player of Archimedes and Apollonios of Perga, the Flue-Pipe Organ and the Reed-Pipe Organ of Mūristus, and the treatise about The Instrument which Plays by Itself by the Banū Mūsā, that the Muslims were fairly conversant with these questions of mechanics, hydraulics, and pneumatics in the ninth-tenth century.

Canon Galpin says concerning the origin of the hsing hung sheng, that there "is every reason to believe that it came from Baghdad". It may be so. But the evidence of the organ presented by Harun to Charlemagne is worthless, since there is no earlier authority for the story than the novel

¹ There is no mention of or evidence for the hydraulis in the West after Apollinaris Sidenius (c. 483), and in the East after Isaac of Antioch (fl. 459) and the Talmud (c. 500).

² Aghānī, ix, 95.

of Madame de Genlis entitled Les Chevaliers du Cygne. One can scarcely believe that the organ presented by the Muslim kingdoms was an "antique". Is it not more likely to have been specially constructed? We read of two organ constructors in the twelfth century in Syria-Abü'l-Majd (d. 1180), who was in the service of the Zangids at Damaseus, and Abū Zakariyyā, one of the scientists attached to Saladin's suite. Concerning the latter we are told that "he made for Ibn al-Naggash many instruments of a composite nature, which he derived from engineering . . . and he constructed an organ, and sought by artful contrivance the playing of it ".1 Other types of instruments which were designed to sound by hydraulic action were constructed by Badi' al-Zamän al-Aşturlābī (d. 1139-40), and Badī' al-Zamān al-Jazarī (c. 1205). The former was in the service of the Saljug sultan and Khalif Al-Mustarshid, and the latter served the 'Urtugids." In the heing lung shing, Canon Galpin suggests that the two bellows, which were raised and depressed alternately, forced the wind into a reservoir or wind-chest. "If so," he says, "it anticipates the European invention as applied to the organ." Yet we have this clearly described and delineated in the Arabic Müristus treatises on the organ, which date from the ninth-tenth century. Another feature of the heing lung shêng in its original form, says Canon Galpin, was "that it was a reed organ and not the usual flue-pipe organ, preceding by at least two centuries the reputed invention of the readorgan by Traxdorf . . . in 1460". Yet we have seen that the Muslims possessed both the seed-pipe and the slue-pipe organ in the Müristus treatises.4

¹ Ibn Abi Uşaibi'a, ii, 155, 103.

Soo Der Islam, 1918, p. 55, and Archiv für die geschichte der naturwissenschaften und der technik, vill, 140. Geholment Professor E. Wjedemann of Erlangen, my distinguished co-worker in the field of tesearch into Arabian musical maiters, has dealt with the whole range of this subject.

^{*} Al-Mashriq, ix, 23 soq.

الأرغان الزمري = Al-Fihriet, 270, 285. Reed-pipe organ الأرغان الزمري - organ الأرغان البوقي = الأرغان البوقي - الأرغان البوقي

Canon Galpin suggests that the scale of the instrument in its original form was a scale of "one-third tones". Such a scale had no existence with the Muslims. This mistaken notion originated with Villoteau, and has been repeated by many writers. The real scale to which Canon Galpin refers is that which proceeds by two limmas and a comma. It was not "brought to perfection under Hārūn", and it was not "expounded" by 'Alī of Iṣfahān. Although its origin may be traced in the tunbūr al-khurāsānī scale given by Al-Fārābī (d. 950), it was not systematized until the time of Ṣafī al-Dīn 'Abd al-Mu'min (d. 1294).2 The proper reading of this scale may be found in Land's Récherches sur l'histoire de la gamme arabe, § 9, and Helmholtz' Sensations of Tone (third Eng. ed., p. 517).

From Arabic sources (ninth-tenth century) we know of two organ scales, and these lead us to believe that a diatonic scale was used. The Banū Mūsā (ninth century) give a scale which is described by the frets of the lute, and can therefore be identified as follows 4:—

Notes. F. G. a. $(bb)^5$ b. c. d. e. f. g. Cents. 0. 204, 408, (498), 612, 702, 906, 1110, 1200, 1404.

In the Bairüt MS. of the Müristus treatise on the pneumatic organ the design shows the pipes marked with the following phonetic notation. Prior to the Systematist School of Şafī al-Dīn the only author who uses this notation is Ibn Zaila (d. 1048), and if the Müristus notation coincides with that of Ibn Zaila, the scheme would be as follows ⁶:—

¹ De l'État Actuel de l'Art musical en Égypte: In Description de l'Égypte, Etat Mod., Tomo I (fol. edit.), p. 613 et seq. Cf. Land, Récherches sur l'histoire de la gamme arabe.

² British Museum MS., Or. 136, fols. 3v-5.

³ Ibn Zaila, Şafī al-Dīn, Ibn Ghaibī (d. 1435), and the author of the Muhammad ibn Murād MS. (Brit. Mus., Or. 2361, fol. 168, v. seq.) show a diatonic system for the "wood-wind" instruments.

Al-Mashrig, xvi, 407.

⁵ An alternative note to b (612).

⁶ British Museum MS., Or. 2361, fol. 226.

As Roman letters appear on the organ pipes in Mediaeval Latin MSS., and they represent the notes emitted by the pipes, it naturally occurred to the present writer that the Arabic letters on the organ pipes in the Arabic Mūristus MSS. given above, also represented the actual notes of the pipes. This opinion I expressed in my Historical Facts for the Arabian Musical Influence (pp. 104-5), although I withdrew it on the page devoted to errata.

It is now fairly certain, however, that this notation was intended for the elucidation of the text, as I have pointed out in my Organ of the Ancients: From Eastern Sources (p. 72).

A North African Folk Instrument



A North African Folk Instrument

"Near the temb of the saint a group of children . . . is collected round a white-haired negro with checks covered with sears. He sings in a said broken voice, which can scarcely be heard, accompanying the song on a sort of square guitar, a gimbrī. Strange and weird is the effect of this primitive melody, rhythmed under the burning sun, in the great plains of mysterious Africa, where no European has ever penetrated. Absorbed in his own thoughts, the old child of the dark continent will eroon for hours together his plaintive melody, muttering this same said note, this unvarying strain, escaping like a sigh from his thick, pale, colourless lips."

(4. Montabb, Among the Moors, p. 7.

A MONG the folk instruments of music in North Africa the primitive lute, guitar, or pandore known as the gunbrī (ڤنبرى) or gunībrī (ڤنبرى) stands facile princeps, ا Look where you will from Egypt to Morocco, from the Mediterranean to the southern confines of the Südän, and you will find this instrument in some form or other, although its name may have slight variation.2 It is essentially an instrument of the people, and is but rarely found in the hands of the professional musician of the town orchestra (ribā'at al-āla), who usually confines his attention to the more refined 'ud (lute), kuftra (mandoline), or tunbur (pandore) 3 among the stringed instruments whose strings are plucked. All and sundry among the people at large who are impelled to try their hand at music, take up the gunbri or gunibri-the noisy youth, the whining beggar, the strolling minstrel, the industrious workman, the respectable merchant, and the faqīr of the religious fraternity (zāwiya)—each thinking himself an adept as a performer,

¹ In their various shapes the gunbri and gunibri may be termed lutes, panderes, or guitars.

² The negro cambreh, or chalam (halam), is identical with the Arabic gunbri.

³ The funbür is but rarely used newadays.

The ancestry of the gunbri is clearly traceable, although its etymological significance may escape us. The identical type, replete with tuning-rings and tabs 1 (and also with the tuning pegs which succeeded them), as well as with the neck passing into the sound-chest (to be explained later), may be found in the art remains of Ancient Egypt, both in pictorial design and in actual specimens.²

The earliest reference to the gunbri is made by Ibn Battūta (d. 1377). He describes the court music of the sultān of Mallī in the Western Sūdān, and among the instruments of music he specifies qunābir (قابي) made of gold and silver. MM. Defrémery and Sanguinetti, the editors of Ibn Battūta, say that the singular is doubtless qunbarā' (i.e., gunburā'). On the other hand, the lexicographers and special authorities say that the singular is gunbrī, with gunībrī as a diminutive, the plural being ganābir. Strange to say, not one of the later chroniclers of the Western Sūdān mention these instruments, although others are frequently spoken of. 5

The etymology given above is open to question. A Moor of my acquaintance informs me that gunbri is merely a debased form of gunāwi or gināwi (عاري = "of the negroes").

The system of the tuning-rings and tabs is explained below, but it is interesting to note the persistence of this primitive method in spite of the existence of the peg system. Even when the latter is found in the modern instrument, the tabs survive as an adornment (see Nos. 3 and 4) and as a means by which the instrument is hung up.

² Soo Sachs, Die musikinstrumente des Alten ägyptens, p. 51, ot soq., and tafolix. Wilkinson, J. G., Manners and Customs of the Ancient Egyptians (1837), ii, 208, et soq., figs. 185, 187, 188, 101.

³ Voyages d'Ibn Batoutah, trad. par Dofrémory et Sanguinetti (Paris, 1853-8), iv, 406.

Boothor, Dict. Français-Arabe (1864); Bolkassom ben Sodira, Petit Dict. Arabe-Français (1882); Dolphin of Quin, Notes sur la poësie et la musique arabes (1886), p. 60. Boanssior, Dict. practique Arabe-Français (1887) writes Ling specially the instead of the instead of the giving the regular feminine plural.

^{*} Tārīkh al-sūdān, Tārīkh al-fattāsh, and Tadhkirat al-nisyān.

It is highly probable that the instrument was taken over by the Arabs of North Africa in general from the older inhabitants. It is scarcely possible to examine the examples given without recognizing the instrument of Ancient Egypt. Yet when the Arabs came to North Africa in the late seventh century, they actually possessed a far better instrument of this type in the tunbūr, and this probably explains why the more primitive gunbrī and gunībrī of the older inhabitants became relegated to the folk.

MM. Delphin and Guin say that the gunbri is the larger instrument used by the negroes, whilst the gunbri is the smaller type of the Arabs and Moors. The gunbri has a large oblong square or boat-shaped sound-chest (makhzina) of wood, the face (wajh) of which, known to us as the "belly", is covered

¹ Höst, op. oit., p. 262. Kināwī is certainly as old as Yāqāt (d. 1220). See his Mu'jam al-buldān, iv, 307 [where, however, it is said to be the name of a Berber tribe].

² Christianowitsch, Esquisse historique de la musique arabe (1863), p. 31. The statement has been repeated by Rouanet in Lavignac's Encyclopédie de la musique, v, 2930.

Delphin of Guin, op. cit., pp. 60-1. Rounnet, op. cit., would make the distinction regional, i.e., the gunbit in the south especially in the Südün, and the gunöbit in the north. Meaken only writes grabit and attaches this name to the smaller instrument. See his Introduction to the Arabic of Morocco (1891), and his later work The Moors (1902).

with skin, hence the face is often called the jilda. At the lower end of the face there is a sound-hole about 4 cm. in diameter. This skin is fastened to the sound-chest either by glue, nails, or by leathern thongs which are threaded to the edge and laced around the back. The neck (yad = "hand", or 'ung = "neck") is cylindrical and has no finger-board. In the more primitive types the upper extremity of the neck is quite plain, save perhaps for the addition of a metal ferrule. In better types, however, a scroll or ornamental head called the garmuda is added. This is generally bent backward. Perhaps the distinctive feature of the gunbii type is the comprehensive use to which the neck is put. Besides serving as a neck proper, is passes into the sound-chest, being so close to the belly as to actually raise it, where it might be termed the bass-bar, and reaches as far as the sound-hole. Its end, which shows itself at this sound-hole, is fashioned like a fork with two or three prongs, and serves the purpose of tail-pins to which the strings are fastened. This fork is called the mastara.

The strings (awtār, sing. watar) are generally three in number, although occasionally four or two are used. They are made of gut (sometimes horsehair) and are tied by a loop at the fork (mastara), from whence they pass over a high bridge (kursī, kimār) up the neck where they are fastened at various places by means of tuning-rings of leather, as there are no tuning-pegs. These places (mawādi', sing. maudi') are determined by the accordatura, the tuning-rings having tabs attached which enable the performer to shift these rings when tuning. The instrument given by Host in 1787 had the

following accordatura which probably sounded an octave lower. It is usually played with the

¹ In the design in Höst, tab. xxxi, the neck is bent forward.

In Egypt the name kursi is given to the tail-piece of the junbur, whilst the bridge is called the faras (" horse"). Of, the Maginibi term himar (" donkey"),

For other schemes of accordatura see Rounnet, op. cit., p. v. 2030.

thumb and fingers and not with a plectrum, the music being of the simplest character.1

A particular point of interest about the gunbri is the custom of decorating the instrument. Usually of plain and somewhat primitive structure in itself, the neck and sound-chest are generally adorned. Shells and metal ornaments are often attached to the latter, whilst the former is furnished with a curious assortment of shells, teeth, bells, coins, chains, tassels, ribbons, etc., dangling from it. Many of these adornments are looked upon by their owners as charms, and the cowrie shell especially brings "good luck" to women.² The gunbri is rather a cumbersome instrument to handle, and for that reason it is usually supported by means of a strap or cord which passes round the neck of the player.

No negro fête would be considered complete without the gunbrī. Whether it be the popular "merry-making" or the seance (haḍra) of the faqīrs (fuqarā'), the gunbrī will be found, striving to make its few notes heard above the din of the large metal castagnets (qarāqib) and the noisy drum (ṭabl, dardaba) which maintain the rhythm. When there is no drum, which is frequently the case away from the fêtes, the gunbrī player improvises his own rhythmic accompaniment by beating the skin of the gunbrī with his hand.

The gunibil, which is the instrument preferred by the Arabs and Moors, has a much smaller sound-chest, with a relatively longer neck, and is actually a primitive type of tunbur. Where in the gunbri the sound-chest is either boatshaped or oblong-square, and made of wood, in the gunibri it is generally pear-shaped, ovoid, or homispherical, and made

¹ For some typical music see Archives Marocaines, ii, 191, and Rouanet, loc. cit.

² The lure of display is, however, at the root of the custom. Just as the professional musician of the city likes to possess an instrument richly iniaid with mother-of-pearl and choice woods, with exquisite carvings and metal work, so the mendicant negro minsteel yearns for his frippery and garnishings.

³ See Archives Marocaines, viii, 125, and Delphin of Chin, op. cit., p. 61. Dardaba = dabdaba. Lyon, loc. cit., writes dubdaba (cf. text).

of wood, tortoise-shell, cocoa-nut shell, gourd, and even metal. It has a skin belly, and the neck passes into the sound-chest in the same way as in the gunbrī. The belly is generally pierced by a number of small sound-holes in addition to the large sound-hole at the lower extremity. Some of these are mere pin-holes, but they are invariably arranged symmetrically either singly or in twos, threes, or fours, often as part of a decorative scheme.

Unlike the gunbrī, however, the head of the gunībrī is furnished with tuning-pegs, which are cone-shaped,² cylindrical ³ or flat like those of our violin.⁴ These are not always fixed in a peg-box (as in Nos. 2 and 6), but pierce the neck diagonally from the front or back. Very rarely is the gunībrī found with a "nut".⁵ In its stead a piece of gut or leather is tied round both strings and neck.

In spite of some of the primitive appurtenances, however, some excellently fashioned specimens of the gunībrī are produced, with carefully selected woods which are highly polished and finished. Most of them have the scroll and neck embellished with incised or fluted rings, sometimes painted in colours. Many have the sound-chest carved in arabesque, although painting the belly is more common. In the latter practice, the smaller sound-holes are used to imitate the Hispano-Moorish rosettes (nuwwārāt) that are found in the lute, mandoline, and rebec. Flowers, animals, and pious inscriptions are the usual subjects that attract the artist's fancy in pigment decoration.

The gunībrī is usually mounted with two strings, although three are occasionally found. They are tuned a fifth apart

¹ In some specimens the neck passes completely through the sound-chest.

³ See No. 4 below.

³ See Nos. 3 and 5 below.

⁴ See Nos. 2 and 6 below.

[&]quot; The example given by Christianowitsch has a " nut ".

⁶ See No. 6 below.

⁷ See No. 419, New York.

⁸ See No. 2 below,

generally. This is the custom of the amateurs of the towns, but elsewhere the tuning depends on the needs and the ability of the performer. Although the strings are invariably plucked by thumb and fingers, the plectrum has occasional use, especially in Morocco, where it still carries the mediaeval Andalusian Arabic name of sattā'a.

In spite of the popularity of the tambourines (tarr, a duff, bandīr, darbūka, quivivāl,3 and ta'rija), drums (tabl, tabīla, and gas'a), flutes (gasba, ijuwāq), reed-pipe (ghaita), and hagpipe (zukra), the gunībrī has more deeply implanted itself into the affections of the folk. To us Westerners this is almost inexplicable. What means this dull, hollow, meaningless note that results when we strike a gunībrī string in these cold climes of ours? Nothing! And we are amazed indeed that it could convey aught else to others. Yet hearkon to this same gunībrī in an Arab dawwār (village) or Moorish gahwa (café) at 30° N. Lat., when the "belly" of the instrument is taut, and the string is crisp, and then one begins to apprehend. Listen to that plaintive voice of the singer, that perpetual cadence of the gunībrī that haunts it, and that equally persistent yet seemingly alien rhythmical sequence of the tambourine, and you may enter the spiritual world of these Semites and feel the delights that this music brings to them. If not, you will at least understand that to them this poor "bladder and string" as the gunibri has been called, with its instrumental congener, can bring an ineffable joy, at once a soothing peace and delirious frenzy, even though it leaves you unmoved.

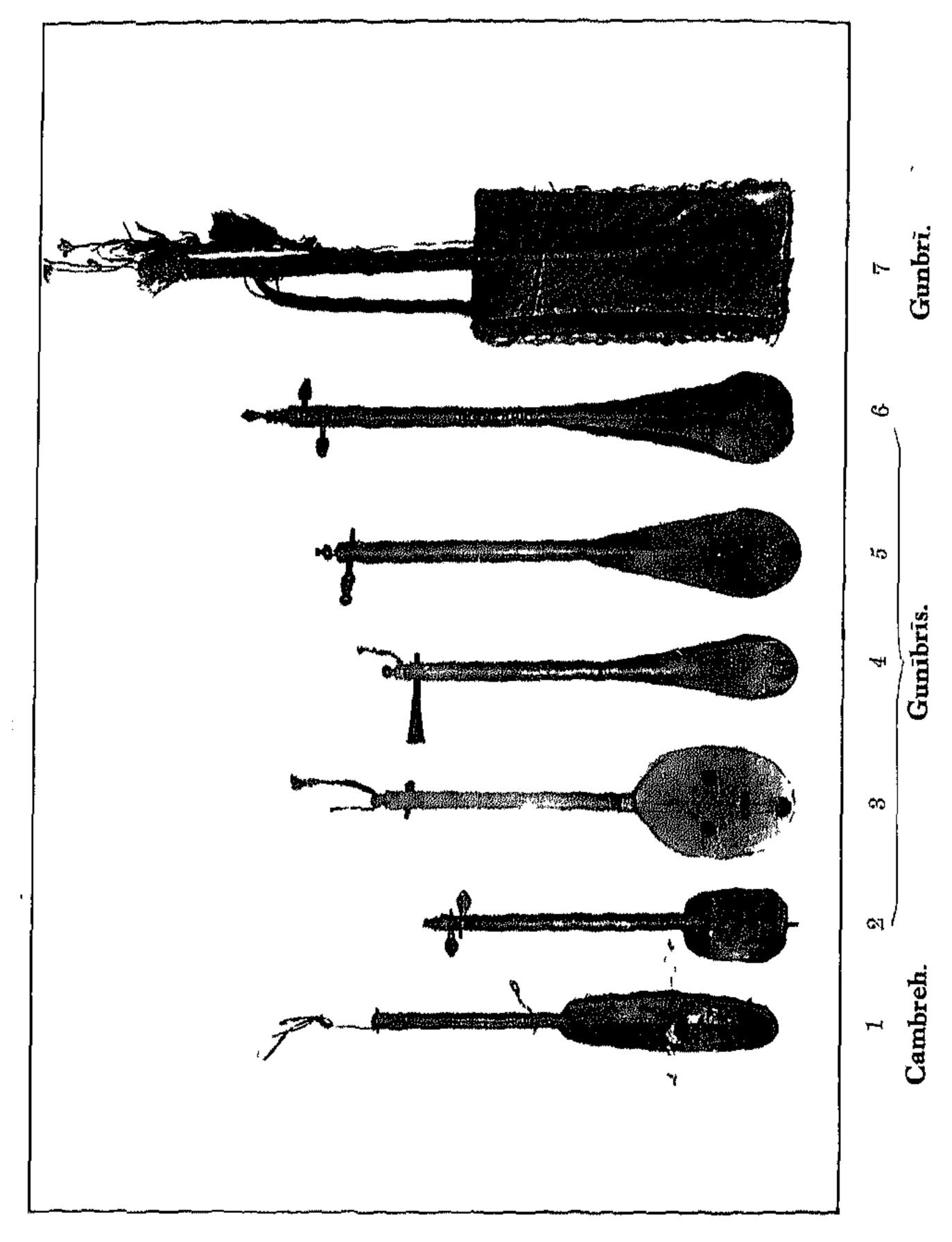
The specimens of these instruments which are given here-

- ¹ See Soybold's Glossarium Latino Arabicum (eleventh century) sub · "Pleetrum". Cf. Archives Marocaines, vill, 189, where it is written saffa.
 - ² Called *fār* in Algeria.
 - Oalled qullāl in Algeria.
 - 4 The Maghribi vocalization of quanta.
 - Also called <u>ah</u>āita and <u>ah</u>āta.
- Beaussier writes zugra, and Lyon (A Nanative of Travels in North Africa, p. 234) has zukkrā. Cf. Villotoan (Descr. de l'Égypte, étal mod., 1, 979), where it is written zāqqara,

with are selected from my own collection—gunībrīs from Morocco, Algeria, and Tunisia, a gunbrī from the Western Sūdān, and a cambreh from Senegambia. I have also indicated where similar or other specimens are to be found in public collections.¹

1 New York = Cutalogue of the Crosby Brown Collection of Musical Instruments (New York, 1904-5). Michigan = Catalogue of the Stearns Collection of Musical Instruments (Michigan, 1918). Brussels = Catalogue descriptiv et analytique du Musée instrumental du conservatoire royal de Musique (Gand, 1893-1912). Copenhagen = Das Musik-historische Museum du Kopenhagen (Copenhagen, 1911). Paris = Le Musée du Conservatoire National de Musique. Catalogue descr. et raisonné (Paris, 1884). Supplements (Paris, 1894, 1899, and 1903).

totalian to



To face p. 17.]

DESCRIPTION OF THE PLATE

No. 1, Cambreh from Senegambia.—Boat-shaped sound-chest of roughly finished wood. Cylindrical neck of cane ornamented with incised Vandyko pattern, and the end surmounted by a metal ring. Skin belly fastened to the sound-chest by means of neatly plaited leathern thongs which are stretched across the back. Two strings of horse-hair are attached to the fork (mastern), and, passing over a high bridge, are fastened, not to tuning-page, but to tuning-rings with tabs, which are tied round the neck.

| | cm. |
|-----------------------|------|
| Total length | 52 |
| Longth of sound-chest | 29.5 |
| Width of sound-chest | 7.5 |
| Depth of sound-chest | 5.5 |

See New York, Nos. 473 and 475. This specimen, which is a lineal descendant of the Ancient Egyptian nefer, is found among the more primitive negro and negroid peoples. See Ankermann, Die africanischen Musik-instrumente. In the cambreh and qunibri, we not unfrequently see the bassbar threading the belly as in the Ancient Egyptian instrument.

No. 2, Gunibri from Morocco.—Ovoid sound-chest of tortoise-shell. Cylindrical nock of wood, painted green, with floral designs in black, yellow, and red. Skin belly, fastened to the sound-chest with glue, painted dark red, with floral designs in white, blue, yellow, and light red. Hight small sound-holes in the belly. The neck passes through the sound-chest completely, and the lower extremity being pointed, where it projects through the chest, is used as a tail-pin for the strings (missing) to be attached to. At the upper extremity the strings are fastened to two tuning-pags which work in a peg-box.

| | | cm. |
|-----------------------|---|-----|
| Total longth | | 50 |
| Longth of sound-chest | • | 13 |
| Width of sound-chest | | 10 |
| Depth of sound-chest | • | 5 |

See New York, Nos. 400, 406, 408, and 1324. Brussels, Nos. 308 and 300. Copenhagen, No. 547.

No. 3. Gunibri from Algoria.—Ovoid sound-chost of tortoise-sholl. Cylindrical neck of wood, ornamented with incised rings. Skin bolly fastened at the back with tautly drawn string. Seven sound-holes, including the one at the base. Two strings of gut are attached to the fork, which, passing over a high bridge, are fastened to two pegs in the neck. (No peg-box.)

| | | cm. |
|-----------------------|---|------|
| Total length | | 55 |
| Length of sound-chest | | 20 |
| Width of sound-chest | , | 14-6 |
| Depth of sound-chest | | ts . |

| | | cm. |
|-----------------------|---|------|
| Total length | • | 53 |
| Longth of sound-chest | | 22.5 |
| Width of sound-chest | | 8.5 |
| Dopth of sound-chest | | 5.5 |

No. 5, Gunibri from Tunisia.—Pear-shaped sound-chest of polished wood. Cylindrical neck of polished wood ornamented with incised rings. Skin belly fastened to the sound-chest as in No. 4. Five sound-holes including the one at the base. Two strings (missing) are fastened as in No. 3. (One tuning-peg missing.)

| | | cm. |
|-----------------------|---|------|
| Total length | | 62 |
| Longth of sound-chest | | 26 |
| Width of sound-chest | • | 11.5 |
| Dopth of sound-chest | | 9.5 |

See New York, Nov. 415 (three strings), 419, and 420, all from Egypt, and with the bellies painted. Paris, Nov. 848 and 819, are also painted.

No. 6, Gunibri from Algeria.—Pear-shaped sound-chest, slightly waisted, of wood. Cylindrical neck of wood, the upper portion of which is detachable, so as to allow it to be more conveniently carried. This neck is ornamented with incised and turned rings, which are coloured blue, green, and red. Skin belly fastened as in No. 4. Two gut strings are attached as in No. 2. There are no sound-holes other than the one at the base.

| | | cm. |
|-----------------------|---|-----|
| Total length | | 72 |
| Longth of sound-chest | | 31 |
| Width of sound-ohest | | 12 |
| Depth of sound-chest | ٠ | 8.6 |

Another pertable device is to make a greeve in the back of the neek, which serves as a case for the fife called the juwaq.

See the instrument given in the Catalogue of Musical Instruments . . . the Properly of Henry Boddington (Manchester, 1888), fig. 35.

For a gourd sound-chest see New York, Nov. 413, 1322, and 3488. Michigan, No. 1191. For a cocca-nut sound-chest see New York, No. 404.

No. 7, Gunbri from the Western Südün.—Oblong square sound-chest of wood, covered with leather and cloth, which are fastened with square-headed iron nails. Two rows of cowrie shells ornament the sides. Cylindrical neck of wood, from the top of which hang silken and leathern tassels, trinklets, chains, cowrie shells, and coins. A strap passes from the head to the foot of the instrument so that the minstrel can sling the instrument over his neck or shoulder. Skin belly fastened to the sound-chest with brass tacks. No sound-holes in the chest other than the one at the base. Three strings of gut are attached as in No. 1.

| | | cm. |
|-----------------------|---|------|
| Total length | , | 83.5 |
| Length of sound-chest | , | 38.5 |
| Width of sound-chest | | 16.5 |
| Dopth of sound-chest | | 12 |

See New York, No. 1320. Michigan, Nos. 1188 and 1180. For a boat-shaped sound-chest see Höst, op. cit.

Ninth Century Musical Instruments



Ninth Century Musical Instruments

"And L-Qāsim 'Unaidallāii [inn 'Andallāii] inn Kuundādhuit [c. 820-912]. And [ins grandfather] Khuidādhuih was a Magian who turned Muslim at the persuasion of the Barmakids. Ahū'l-Qāsim became Director of the Posts and the Intelligence Department in the Province of 'Irāq 'Ajamī (Al-Jabal). And he was 'boon companion' of Al-Mu'tamid and was intimate with him. And his books are: On Liberal Education in Music; The Generality of the Genealogies of the Persians and the [Arab] Immigrants; The Routes and Kingdoms; On Cookery: On Entertainment and Musical Instruments; On Wine; On Setting Stars; and On Boon Companions and Associates."—AL-FIHRIST' (A.v. 988), p. 149.

IN an article written in 1926 on "Byzantine Musical Instruments in the Ninth Century "1 I mentioned that one of the earliest extant accounts in Arabic of the musical instruments of the Arabs and their neighbours is contained in an oration delivered by Ibn <u>Khurdādh</u>bih before Al-Mu'tamid (870-93). The narration appears in the Murūj al-dhahab of Al-Mas'ūdī (d. c. 956). Both of these writers were competent, to some extent, to deal with the question in its general aspect, and for that reason the recital has an added interest. Ibn Khurdādhbih had been taught music by the famous Ishāq al-Mausilī (767-850), who was his father's personal friend. By his books,2 and by other means,3 some historical details of music and musicians were preserved, and they have been cited by later writers. Some of this information has, however, been challenged more than once by the author of the Kitāb al-aghānī, who consures Ibn Khurdädhbih for his mere conjectures, and for making statements without sufficient authority.4 Yet it may be presumed that the details given by Al-Mas'ūdī on the authority of Ibn Khurdadhbih may be trusted. The former, who had the highest opinion of the latter, would scarcely

¹ JRAS. 1025, p. 200 ot seq.

² Al-Aghānī, i, 19; v, 3; vi, 16; viii, 13, 149, 162.

⁹ Al-Aghānī, 1x, 58; xix, 133; xxi, 240. For dotails 1co Bibliotheca Geographorum Arabicorum, vi, Préface.

⁴ It is only fair to say that Ibn Khurdadhbih is sometimes quoted at second hand in this work.

⁶ Al-Mas'ndi, Prairies d'or, i, 13,

have quoted him at such length without reservations had he not approved. Al-Mas'ūdī was a great traveller and observer, and he had himself dealt with the music and musical instruments of the Arabs, Greeks, Byzantines, Syrians, Nabatæans, Indians, Persians, and others in his various works. If Ibn Khurdādhbih had erred, "the Imām of the historians," as Ibn Khaldūn has called Al-Mas'ūdī, would assuredly have corrected him.

Ibn Khurdādhbih was of Persian descent, his father was a Governor of Țabaristān, and he himself had been a government official in 'Irāq 'Ajamī. It may, therefore, be reasonably assumed that Ibn Khurdādhbih could speak from personal acquaintance so far as related to Iranian musical instruments at least. For his information concerning the music of other countries, we know that in some cases he depended on literary sources.² It is also probable that some of his data were obtained from the government archives at Sāmarrā or Baghdād, at the time that he was writing his work on The Routes and Kingdoms (Al-masālik wa'l-mamālik).

Ibn Khurdādhbih's oration on music has been edited in text and French translation by Barbier de Meynard in Les Prairies d'or (1861-77). Notwithstanding the existence of this excellent work, I venture to suggest that a fresh text of Ibn Khurdādhbih's oration, based on other MSS., together with an adequate apparatus criticus, is eminently desirable. The need is all the more pressing since we now know, although it was hitherto unsuspected, that his Kitāb al-lahw wa'l-malāhī (On Entertainment and Musical Instruments) is in existence. I therefore take the opportunity to call attention

¹ Ibid., ii, 322.

² He quotes a certain Fandurüs al-Rümï, as well as writers on mathematics. Possibly, he also obtained information from Muhammad ibn Müsä ibn Shäkir (d. 873).

s viii, 88-99. There are also two oriental texts at least, Büläq (A.H. 1283) and Cairo (A.H. 1303).

⁴ Encyclopædia of Islām, ii, 398.

⁴ Al-Hilāl, xxviii, 214.

to a MS. in the Berlin Staatsbibliothek in which there is a fragment on musical instruments obviously based on Ibn Khurdādhbih. This MS. (Pm. 173, fol. 1), although a somewhat late copy (A.D. 1688), deserves attention on account of its variants from the MSS. used by Barbier de Meynard. For that reason I submit a translation of it:—

"And it is said that the first to invent the 'ūd (lute) was Lamak ibn Matūshalaḥ.2 . . .3 Then after that there were invented the tubūl (drums; sing. tabl) and the duff (tambourine). And Palāl bint Lamak made the ma'āzif (instruments with open strings; sing. mi'zaf, mi'zafa, 'azf). Then the people of Lūt (Sodom and Gomorrah) invented the tanābīr (pandores; sing. tunbūr) to charm the youth. Then the shepherd-folk and the Kurds invented different sorts [of instruments] to pipe (lit. "whistle," safara) with, and when their cattle were dispersed they piped and they gathered together. Then the Persians invented the diyānai (? double reed-pipe) to [accompany] the 'ūd; and the suryānai (reed-pipe, flute, flageolet) to [accompany] the tabl; and the kabar (single-headed drum) to [accompany] the sanj (harp).

"And the mathra [string of the 'ad | was double the ply of the zīr [string]; and the mathrath [string] was triple the ply of the zīr [string]; and the bann [string] was quadruple the ply of the zīr [string].4

"And the music (phina") of the Persians was with 'adan (lutes; sing. 'ud) and sunuj (harps; sing. sanj). And they had music (phina"), notes (nagham), and rhythms (īqā'āt). And the music of the people of Khurāsān and

¹ Ahlwardt, Verzeichnis, No. 8502.

² The text has Malik instead of Lamak, and Matüşlialah, the same as Abū'l-Fidā'. Barbier de Meynard has Matūşlialakh.

³ Here follow details of the invention of the lute.

⁴ As the translation is not quite literal I give the text:

وجعل المثنى ضعف الزير والمثلث ضعفا وزن الزير (الوزير toxt) والبمّ ثلاثة اضعاف وزن الزير

their neighbours was with the munoannaj (a kind of harp), and upon it were seven strings. And its rhythm was like the rhythm of the sanj. And the music of the people of Al-Raiy, and Tabaristān, and Al-Dailam, was with the tanābīr. And the Persians preferred the tunbūr beyond all other musical instruments. And the music of the Nabatæans and Jarmaqs was with the qundhūrāt (sing. qundhūra), and their rhythm was like the rhythm of the tanābīr.

"And of musical instruments the Byzantines (Al-Rüm) had the drahan 1 (ὄργανον πολύχορδον), and upon it are twenty-six strings, 2 and it has a wide compass (بعد الذهب); and it is of the invention of the Ancient Greeks (Yūnāniyyūn); and also 3 [an instrument of] twenty-four strings, namely the salbāq 1 (σαμβύκη), and it [the word] is interpreted to mean 'a thousand voices'. 5 And to them [the Byzantines] is the lūrā (λύρα), and it is the rabāb (rebec), and to it are five strings."

Some of the variations from the other texts are worthy of notice and comment.

Lamak ibn Matūshalah is, of course, the Lamech ben Methusael of Gen. iv, 18. In Al-Mas'ūdī, Lamak's son Tūbal 7 is credited with the invention of the *tabl* and *duff*. Barbier de Meynard says that Dalāl is the Zillah of Gen. iv, 8 but the former is Lamak's daughter, and the latter is a wife.

- الأوعر The Cairo text has
- ² The Paris and Cairo texts say "sixteen strings".
- The text has الها but this interferes with the sonse, and I have presumed that ايضا was written originally.
 - السلبسق The text has
- 5 The text has العضوت which is meaningless in any translation of the diacritical point. The Cairo edition has النصون. I have adopted Barbier de Meynard's reading.
 - " The text has الورا, and the Cairo edition اللوزا, instead of اللوزا.
 - " The Cairo text has موسك in place of Tubal.
 - 8 Prairies d'or, viii, 417.

The invention of the tunbūr by the people of Lūt may be compared with an account elsewhere which credits it to the Sabæans as follows: "The pandore (tunbūr) came from the Sabæans who measured the earth, and so it was called the 'measured pandore'." This agrees with the name of the instrument called the tunbūr al-mīzānī (measured tunbūr) mentioned in the Mafātīh al-'ulūm (c. 980), which appears to have been an earlier name for the tunbūr al-bayhdādī. Both these accounts of the origin of the tunbūr may have had a common origin with that related by Julius Pollux (second century A.D.).3

'Abd al-Qādir ibn Ghaibī (d. 1435), in his Sharh al-adwār, holds the opinion that the instrument "invented" by the shepherd-folk and the Kurds was the nāy safīd, a name given to the flute.⁴

The words diyānai (دياني) and suryānai (سرياني) reopen an old discussion. These forms occur in Al-Mas'ūdī and in the Kitāb al-mūsīqī of Al-Fārābī (d. o. 950). As far back as 1840, Kosegarten suggested that the latter was intended for surnāyī (سرنايي), but he made no allusion to the structure of the former. Barbier de Meynard boldly adopted dūnāy (دوناي) and surnāy (سرناي) in their stead in Les Prairies d'or, but gave no reason. Von Hammer had already registered such forms as dūfāy, dūrāy, and dūsāy (१ dūzāy), all of which were evident malformations of dūnāy. Land, in editing part of Al-Fārābī's treatise, pointed out that the three MSS. of this author at Leyden, Madrid, and Milan

¹ A MS, in the writer's possession.

² Mafātīh al-'ulūm, 237. Kosogarton, Liber cantilenarum, 91.

³ Onomasticon, iv, 60.

⁴ Nür-i Osmänīye MS. (Constantinople), No. 3651. Quoted by Yokta Bey in Lavignac's Ency. de la musique, v, 2971. See also Bodleian MS., No. 1842, fol. 79 v, and British Museum MS., Or. 2361, fol. 178 v.

[&]quot;The Cairo text has thant (إناني) in place of diganay.

⁶ Kosegarten, Lib. Cant., 101, 104.

⁷ Kiesewetter, Musik der Araber, 92. Cf. Land, Actes du sivième congrès international des orientalistes . . . , 1883, ii, p. 84.

gave diyānai, but proposed dūnāy in its stead.¹ At the same time he inserted surnāy in the text in place of suryānan without comment, as though the form occurred in the MSS. Yet the fact is that in both the Leyden (Or. 651, fol. 79) and the Madrid (No. 602, fol. 67) MSS. the word is suryānai.² Indeed/if we accept the opinion of the author of the Burhāni-qāṭi' (seventeenth century), the above would appear to have been the original form, and it was due to the fact that it was a Syrian instrument (nāy rūmī),³ the word being derived apparently from Suryā (Syria) and nai or nāy (reed). The Syrians had long been noted for their "wood-wind" instruments.⁴

In Barbier de Meynard's text the entire passage is different from the Berlin MS. In the former it runs:—

"Then the Persians invented the näy to [accompany] the 'ūd; and the diyānai to [accompany] the tunbūr; and the suryānai to [accompany] the tabl; and the sinj to [accompany] the sanj."

A noteworthy variant in the Berlin MS, is the substitution of the kabar for the sinj. The latter word, which also appears in the Cairo text, probably stood for a cymbal. In the thirteenth century Vocabulista in Arabico we have the word zinj equated with cinbalum (cymbalum), and in the Maghrib.

¹ Land, op. cit., ii, 168, 165. Cf. 84.

² The Ikhwān al-Ṣafā' (Diotorici ed., ii, 311) give a plural suryānāt (سريانات), and in another place (ii, 305) we have surtāy (سريانات), a singular in the midst of a number of plurals. The former word is identical in both the Cairo (a discritical point missing) and Bombay editions, although the latter word is written surnāy. The word is given as surnāy in the Mafātīh al-'ulām (p. 287), and in the treatise of Al-Ḥusain ibn Zaila (British Museum MS., Or. 2861, fol. 285, 235v) we have both surnāy and surnāyāt. Strange to say, both the Būlāq (xvi, 138) and Sāsī (xvi, 133) editions of the Aghānī refer to a surnāb (سرناب), and the word stands uncorrected in the Taṣḥīḥ issued in 1917.

³ Rum sometimes stood for Syria, as it was once part of the Byzantine Empire.

⁴ Athenaios, iv, 78.

[.] dirور for طبلوت The Cairo text has

to-day the zunūj (plur.) are metal castanets. In the Glossarum Latino-Arabicum (eleventh century) kabar is equated with chorus in Psalm el. In the Kitāb al-imtā' wa'l-intifā' (twelfth-thirteenth century) the kabar is described as a drum (tabl). Ibn Khallikān (d. 1282) is more precise in defining it as a drum with one "head" (lit. "face," wajh).

The specification for the various thicknesses of the strings of the 'ūd does not occur in any of the published texts of Al-Mas'ūdī, nor in the MSS. used by Barbier de Meynard apparently. The measures given in the Berlin MS. agree in substance with those formulated in a treatise which I have attributed to Al-Kindī (d. 874), where the zīr, mathā, mathlath, and bamm strings are made of one, two, three, and four strands (tabaqāt) respectively. The Ikhwān al-Ṣafā' (tenth century) are more exact, and compound these strings of 27, 36, 48, and 64 threads (tāqa) respectively.

The muwannaj of the people of Khurāsān is of interest because in the printed texts the instrument is called the zanj. The latter word implies might very well be a copyist's error for (wanaj = muwannaj). The wanaj as a musical instrument with open strings, and practically identical with the sanj, is mentioned in the Mafātīḥ al-'ulūm.' It was certainly a stringed instrument in the time of Bar Bahlūl (fl. 963) the Syriae lexicographer.8

The qundhura (قندورة) of the Nabatæans and Jarmaqs is perhaps just as vague as the ghīrwāra (غبروارة) or

² Madrid MS., No. 603.

4 JRAS., Jan., 1926, p. 92.

7 Mafālīh al-'ulūm, 287.

¹ Beaussier, Dict. pract. Arabe-Francais (1882).

¹ Ibn Khallikan, Wafayat (Bülüq ed., A.tr. 1275), ii, 450.

⁵ Berlin MS., No. 5580 (Ahlwardt), fol. 25.

[&]quot; Ikhwan al-Şafa' (Bombay ed.), i, 08, 106.

Bodleian MS., Marsh 157, fol. 845. See also the Lisan allarabe (thirteenth century), where the wanaj is said to be the mizhar or 'ad. The Taj allaras (eighteenth century) includes the sanj and mi'zaf as well.

'irvāra (عيروارة) of the published texts. Barbier do Meynard thought that kinnāra (كتّارة) was intended,¹ and strangely enough we find that the Nabatæans of Palmyra had the kinōrā.²

So far the Berlin MS. In Al-Mas'ūdī's account of the oration of Ibn Khurdādhbih, many other instruments of music are introduced. To the Byzantines the following are ascribed in addition:—

"The $q\bar{\imath}\underline{h}\bar{a}ra$ ($\kappa\iota\theta\acute{a}\rho\alpha$), with twelve strings; the saltij ($\psi\acute{a}\lambda\tau\iota\gamma\zeta$), of calves' skins. And all these are of the $ma'\bar{a}zif$ type (instruments with open strings) of diverse construction. And they [the Byzantines] had the $urg\underline{h}anun$ ($\delta\rho\gamma\alpha\nu\rho\nu$ $\pi\nu\epsilon\nu\mu\alpha\tau\iota\kappa\acute{o}\nu$), possessing bellows and ironwork." 3

Ibn Khurdädhbih also includes some interesting information about the ' $\bar{u}d$ (lute). He says:—

"Fandurüs al-Rümi (Fandurüs the Byzantine) as says that the four strings [of the 'ud] correspond to the natures (humours). So the zīr corresponds to the yellow bile, and the mathnä to the blood, and the mathlath to the phlegm, and the bamm to the black bile."

This passage is worthy of attention because it differs from the system laid down by Al-Kindī and the Ikhwān al-Ṣafā'. There is clearly a mistake in Al-Kindī, and it would appear to have been copied by the Ikhwān al-Ṣafā'.⁵

¹ Al-Firūzābādī (d. 1414) in his Qāmūs mentions a ginnīn which he likens to a tunbūr.

² ZDMG. xviii, 105. See Corp. Inscr. Semit., ii, No. 268. Cf. Mission archéologique en Arabie, by Jaussen and Savignae, p. 217.

³ Cf. JRAS., Jan. 1926, p. 92 ot seq. Barbier do Moynard says that some MSS. give القشارة and القشارة. The Cairo text also gives urghanin. Barbier de Meynard prefers salinj (silinj) although three of the MSS. consulted by him gave الملتح. Probably the word should be الملتح and it would thus be nearer the Byzantine Greek.

⁽Qandhurüs). قنذروس Also فنذروس

The account of the natures, attributed to Ziryāb (ninth century) in Al-Maqqari's Nafh al-fib (Analectes, ii, 86, Moh. Dyn., ii, 119), is probably

Ibn Khurdādhbih also contributes the following information concerning the structure and value of the ' $\vec{u}d$: –

"According to most of the peoples and the majority of the savants, the 'ūd is Greek [in origin]. It was constructed by the geometricians upon the form of the natures of man.¹ Then if the strings are in just relation to the celestial numbers (al-aqdār al-sharīfa) the natures are in agreement. Thus it creates an emotion, and the emotion restores the soul to its natural state at once. And each string is equal to the string next it plus a third.² And the fret (dastān) which is nearest to the nut (anf) is placed on the point of one-ninth of the total string, and that which is nearest to the bridge-tailpiece (mush!) is placed on the point of one-fourth of the total string."

From this account we see that the sabbāba (first linger) fret on the 'ūd was fixed at 204 cents (8:9), and the khinsir (fourth finger) fret at 498 cents (3:4).

The question of the Greek origin of the lute is remarkable in view of the mythical foundation by Lamak the Semite. Further, Al-Mas'ūdī himself informs us in his Tanbīh wa'l-ishrāf that since Ptolemy (Baţulmiyūs) does not mention the lute in his Kitāb al-mūsīqī it is obvious that the instrument was unknown to the Greeks at that time. Indeed, Abū'l-Fidā' (d. 1331) places the invention of the 'ūd in the days of the Persian monarch Shāpūr I (241-272). Prior to the correct formula, although the "compounds" of the elements are obviously wrong.

- ¹ See my Influence of Music: From Arabic Sources for a lengthy treatment of this question.
 - ² This may refer to the thickness of the strings or to the accordatura.
- ³ Barbior do Meynard's text has dastabān and the Cairo text الرسان, but dastān is intended, although the word is probably derived from the Persian dast-band,
- 4 The mush ton the lute served the double purpose of bridge and tail-
- Bibl. Geog. Arab., viii. Ptolomy's Kilāb al-mūsīqī (porhaps the Harmonics) is not recorded by either Wenrich or Steinschnolder, but it was certainly known to the Arabs, and is also mentioned by Ibn 'Abd Rabbibi, 'Iqd ul-farīd, iii, 186, and Al-Maqqarī, Analectes, ii, 87.

⁶ Hist. Anteislam., 82.

the Ilijazian Arabs borrowing the Trāqian or Persian lute about the close of the sixth century, which is also told us by Ibn Khurdādhbih, they had a lute of their own called the mizhar. This is alluded to by Ibn Khurdādhbih in another passage:—

"The Indians have the kankala (Z) which has but one string stretched across a gourd. And it serves them in place of the lute or harp. . . . The Arabs used to call . . . the lute the mizhar. And the music of the people of Al-Yaman was with ma'āzif." 3

Ibn Khurdāḍhbih also introduces an occasional paragraph on music in his book on The Routes and Kingdoms. On the sea route from India to China he describes an island called Barṭā'il in the Sea of Ṣanf, where we read of the 'azf and ṭubūl resounding throughout the night.4 In India we are told that there were seven castes (ajnās), the sixth and seventh having musicians among them. The former he calls the Sandāliyya (cf. عَدُالًا), and they were men of entertainment (lahw) and music (luḥūn; lit. "molodies"). The latter he names the Dunbiyya (cf. المورضة), who were men of entertainment, stringed instruments (ma'āzif) and jesting (la'ib).5 From Bukhāra he relates a charming story of a shepherd-lad who played on a stringed instrument (watar), a yarā' (flageolet), and a mizmār (reed-pipe) in so enchanting a way that the naiads lured him away.

^{1 &#}x27;Iqd al-farid (Cairo ed., A.H. 1305), iit, 186.

[&]quot;The three MSS. consulted by Barbier de Meynard, as well as the Cairo text, have المنازة. Al-Jähi، (d. 864), however, gives kunkula (Majmü'āt rasā'il, p. 80). Being a one-stringed instrument with a gourd sound-clost one is inclined to suggest that yaktāra (مكارة) was intended.

³ Al-Mutarrizī (d. 1213) also attributes the mi'zaf to the people of Al-Yaman (Lane, Lexicon). According to the Kitāb al-imtā' wa'l-intifā' this instrument was used in the time of the Prophet.

⁴ Bibl. Geog. Arab., vi, 68 of toxt.

⁵ Bibl. Geog. Arab., vi, 71.

Probably the tunbur or dutar since it had two strings.

⁷ Ibid., vi, 181.

A Note on the Mizmār and Nāy

A Note on the Mizmär and Nay

Difficulties occasionally arise in recognizing the various musical instruments of the "wood-wind" group among the Arabs of the Middle Ages as well as to-day. For instance, the Arabic word mizmār, and the Persian word nāy, stand for any instrument of the "wood-wind" family, i.e. either term can refer to a reed-pipe (cylindrical or conical bore) 1 or a flute (lip or beak variety). These words also have a specific as well as a generic meaning since both mizmār and nāy are names given specially to the reed-pipe by the Arabs and Persians respectively. We know this on good authority.

Ibn Sinā (d. 1037) says in the <u>Shifā</u> that the mizmār is an instrument "which you blow into from its end which you swallow", in contradistinction from the instrument "which you blow into from a hole like the yarā' which is known as the surnāy" (?). On the other hand, his pupil, Al-J. Lusain ibn Zaila (d. 1048), uses the same definition but substitutes the term nāy for mizmār. This bears out the description in the Mafātīḥ al-'ulūm (ca. 976-7), which says that "the nāy is the mizmār" and that "the surnāy is the saffāra and likewise the yarā'". Further, we have a passage dealing with

¹ Read-pipe == a read-blown instrument.

² The vibrating reed of the Arabs is taken completely into the mouth.

India Office MS., Loth, 477, fol. 173. There is, however, a point or points for a من or ي either before or after the س, which looks as though the scribe had that puzzing word سرياني before him. The Bodleian MS., Pocook, 250, fol. 92v, and Pocock, 109, fol. 192v, have سرنامي (?) respectively. The R.A.S. MS., No. 58, fol. 366v, appears to have

⁴ Brit. Mus. MS., Or. 2361, fol. 286.

⁵ Mafātīh al-'uhām, 236. In the thirteenth contury Vocabulista in Arabico, 216, 392, the last-named instrument is written yarā.

the mizmār in Ibn Sīnā's Arabic treatise the Kitāb al-najāt, which is reproduced in the Persian Dānish nāma, but the instrument is here called the nāy.

Yet in spite of these clear and definite statements that the mizmār and the nāy were identical, and that both were reedpipes, we find that these names were also allotted to separate and distinct instruments representing the reed-pipe and flute respectively. Al-Fārābī (d. 950) certainly deals with the "wood-wind" under the generic term mazāmīr (sing. mizmār), yet he discriminates betweeen the mizmār and the nāy in the specific sense. The Ikhwān al-Ṣafā' (10th century) also consider the mizmār and nāy to be different. This latter distinction continues in several Arabic speaking lands in modern times, notably in Egypt. The result is that the term nāy in one country designates a flute, while in another it refers to a reed-pipe. How did this confusion arise?

Whilst the Pre-Islamic Arabs probably used the words mizmār or zamr to denote any instrument of the "woodwind", they appear to have known the reed-pipe and the flute under the special names of mizmār and quṣṣāba (or qaṣaba) respectively. Similarly, the Persians used the term nāy in a generic sense for a "wood wind" instrument as well as in a specific sense for a reed-pipe, whilst denoting, it would seem, the flute by the name nāy narm ("flute douce"). Later, the two types were distinguished from each other by the genus of the reed (nai) from which they were made, as the

¹ Bodleian MS., Pocock, 250, fol. 168,

² Brit, Mus. MS., Add. 16659, fol. 341v.

³ Leyden MS., Or. 651, fol. 77 et seq. Kosegarten, Lib. Cant., 95.

⁴ Leyden MS., Or. 051, fol. 15 et seq. Kosegarten, Lib. Cant., 45.

⁵ Bombay Edit., i, 97.

Descr. de l'Egypte. Etat Mod., i, 954. Lano, Mod. Egypt., ohap. xvii. Darwigh Muhammad, Şafā' al-awgāt (Cairo, 1328), p. 13. Ahmad Afandī, Nail al-adab fi mūsig. (Būlāq, 1320), p. 94.

¹ Al-Aghānī, ii, 175. Al-Mufaddaliyyāt, xvii. Lane, Lexicon, в.v.

⁸ Cf. Dozy, Suppl. Dict. Arabes, s.v.

¹ Al-Jawālīqī. Kitāb al-mu'arrab.

nāy siyāh (black nāy), a reed-pipe, and the nāy safīd (white nāy), a flute. This custom was actually followed by Arabic writers in the nāy aswād and nāy abyād.

So long as quissaba (or quisaba) stood for a flute with the Arabs there was scarcely any likelihood of confusion arising. But as soon as Persian instruments and nomenclature came to be adopted in Arabian music, the vexed question started. Unfortunately, when the Arabs borrowed the Persian word nāy in the specific sense, they did not always attach the qualifying adjective which determined whether it was a reed-pipe or a flute. The result is that, not only in the Middle Ages, but even to-day, we must know the provenance of the instrument referred to, or the nationality of the writer, before we can determine whether the word nāy stands for a reed-pipe or a flute.

¹ Kanz al-tuhaf, Brit. Mus., MS., Or. 2361, fol. 263. Um Ghaibi, Bodloian MS., No. 1842, fol. 70v.

Muhammad ibn Murād Treatise, But. Mus. MS., Or. 2361, Jul. 173v.

| | ., | |
|--|--------|--|
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

Meccan Musical Instruments

Meccan Musical Instruments

A MONG the most interesting exhibits at the Rijks Ethnographisch Museum at Leyden are the Meccan musical instruments presented by the well-known Arabist and traveller, Professor Dr. C. Snouck Hurgronje. They are displayed, in a special case containing other Meccan objects, in the bureau of the Director, Dr. H. H. Juynboll. These instruments, Dr. Snouck Hurgronje informs me, were not collected by himself personally, but by a Jidda friend who, unfortunately, omitted to supply the requisite data for scientific registering. Even their names are denied us. Yet with the help of the donor, both by conversations and correspondence, and the courtesy of the Director of the Museum, the present writer is able to submit an account of these instruments, which comprise a lute, two viols, three rustic reed-pipes, an oboe, a flute, and a tambourine.

Even Dr. Snouck Hurgronje has not been able to furnish me with many precise details concerning instrumental music among the Meccans, for the simple reason that during his sojourn in the Holy City (1884-5) as a student of the sacred law, he was, naturally, obliged to keep aloof from anything like musical entertainments, for, as Burton says, whilst music may not actually be sinful (haram) to a Muslim, it is certainly religiously unpraiseworthy (makrūh). There are, however, many references to music and musical

All Bey, who made the pilgrimage to Meson at the beginning of the nineteenth century, said: "I never once heard the sound of a musical instrument or song during the whole of my stay that was executed by a man; but my ears were struck once or twice by the songs of some women" (Travels of Ali Bey, ii, 103).

² Burton, Arabian Nights (Lady Burton's edit.), vi, 50. For music in relation to Islām, see my History of Arabian Music, chap. ii.

instruments in Dr. Snouck Hurgronje's Mckku (La Haye, 1888-9, 2 vols. and atlas).

We must bear in mind at the outset that the population of Mecca has long been cosmopolitan, especially since the Uthmānlī Turkish conquest in 1517, and this fact helps us to appreciate the following statement made by Dr. Snouck Hurgronje to the present writer: "There is no special Meccan tradition in music or musical instruments. They are imported into Mecca chiefly from Egypt (+Syria) and Al-Yaman, and the instruments keep their names from their country of origin." 1

Yet, in the early days of Islām, Mecca was one of the centres of Arabian musical culture, and many of the celebrated virtuosi mentioned in the Kitāb al-aghānī belonged to the Holy City, and among them Ibn Misjaḥ, Ibn Muḥriz, Ibn Suraij, and Yaḥyā al-Makkī, the first being the systematizer of the Arabian musical theory and practice of classical times,² and the last being the author of a Kitāb ſī'l-aghānī ³ which was used by Abū'l-Faraj al-Iṣſahānī in compiling his own work.

Тик Lute. 1973/25.

History.—The Meccan lute is called the qabūs. According to the Turkish writer, Evliyā (helebī (d. o. 1679), the qapūz was "invented" by a vezīr of Sul(ān Muḥammad II (d. 1481). The instrument, however, is described by Ibn Ghaibī in his Jāmi al-alḥān fī 'ilm al-mūsīqī, written in 1418. The former writer refers to a three-stringed lute, whilst the latter deals with a five- (double) stringed instrument, which he terms the qūpūz rūmī ("Byzantine qūpūz").

¹ Since the Wahhābī conquest, music has probably been prescribed.

^a Al-Aghānī, iii, 84.

^a Al-Aghānī, vi, 17-18.

⁴ Snouck Hurgronje, Mekka, ii, 54. Landberg, Arabica, iii, 29.

⁵ Evliyā Chelebī, Siyāhat nāma (Constantinople edit.), i, 638. Travels of Evliya Efendi, 1, ii, 235.

⁶ Bodleian MS., No. 1842, fol. 77v.

Of course the Arabs knew of the lute under the name of mizhar in pre-Islāmic times.¹ It was, apparently, a skinbellied instrument, and it was used until the close of the sixth century, when the lute proper, a wooden-bellied instrument, called the 'ūd (= "wood"), was introduced into Mecca from Al-Ḥīra.² Later, the Persian lute ('ūd fārisī) was adopted by the Arabs.³ When the qabūs was introduced we have no information. Al-Muṭarrizī (d. 1213) and Al-Fayūmī (d. 1333) speak of an instrument called the mi'zaf, which they describe às "a sort of a tunbūr made by the people of Al-Yaman",⁴ which, says the author (d. 1790) of the Tāj al-'arūs, is the instrument "now called the qabūs". The instrument may therefore be traced to pre-Islāmic times,⁵ and after.⁰

The word qabūs (qabbūs in 'Uman, and qanbūs in Itadramaut) would appear to be Turkish. Landberg, however, suggests an Arabic root in قص (" to pinch ", " to take with the finger-tips"), and equates قص به الله في (" to strike, play a musical instrument"). "On the other hand, the persistence of such words as the 'Uthmānlī Turkish qūpūz قو بوز , the Uzbeg qūbūz قو بوز , or qūwūz قو بوز , is too constant to be ignored. Landberg himself admits, however, that it is not impossible for the instrument to have been introduced by the Turks, seeing that the Ghuzz (from 1104) and the Ayyūbids (1173–1228) held sway in Al-Yaman, whilst the 'Uthmānlī Turks have ruled from 1517 (1512) to 1916. The late Dr. J. P. N. Land

^{1 &#}x27;Iqd al-farid (Cairo edit., 1887-8), ii, 186.

² Al-Mas'ūdī. Prairies d'or, viii, 04.

³ Al-Ag<u>h</u>ānī, 1, 98.

عزف Lane, Lexicon, s.v. عزف

⁵ Kilāb al-imtā' wa'l-intifā'. Madrid MS, No. 606, fol. 13-14

⁰ Lane, Lexicon, loc. cit.

² Landberg, op. cit., 20-30.

Britrat, أوزبيك قبلا سسيقه مووسيقاسي, (Tashkont, 1927), p. 43.

f Landberg, 30-1.

argued for the Turkish origin of the word, which is also the opinion of Dr. Snouck Hurgronje.¹

The Exhibit.—Total length, 100 cm. Greatest depth, 11 cm. Greatest width, 25 cm. The instrument is made of wood, with the exception of the lower portion of the belly (wajh), which is covered with skin to the extent of 33 cm. The face of the neck ('unq, raqaba) is flat, and runs flush with the belly, there being neither fingerboard or frets (dasātīn). Strictly speaking, one can scarcely refer to a neck in this particular case, seeing that the entire instrument, from the nut (anf) downwards, constitutes the sound-chest (kāsa, qas'a), the whole being made in one graduated piece, hollow throughout. Indeed, the three chief sound-holes (a'yun, shamsiyyāt) are in the face of the neck, the minor sound-holes being at the back. The instrument is beautifully made, being exquisitely carved and decorated in colours.

Unlike the classical lute ('ūd), the qabūs has no musht or bridge-tail-piece. It is mounted with a separate bridge (hāmila, faras), as well as a separate tail-pin (zubaiba) to which the strings (awtār) are fastened. There are six tuning-pegs (malāwī, 'aṣāfīr), five large and one small, but we have no information concerning the grouping of the strings or the accordatura (taswiya). The qanbūş of lladramaut, which is practically identical with the Meccan exhibit in shape, possesses seven strings, one of metal and six of gut, the latter being tuned in pairs. In the Ḥaḍramī instrument, the lowest string is of metal, and the accordatura is in fourths, like the 'ūd of classical days. Dr. Snouck Hurgronje mentions the Meccan qabūs being used by some pilgrims to Sittanā

¹ Landberg, 114. Indeed, the name given to the musical instruments of the Nabataeans and Jarmaqs by Ibn Khurdādhbih (d. 912), might very well refer to quabūzāt (قبوزات == قندُورات), as I have already hinted in my History of Arabian Music (p. 6). See ante, p. 59.

² The classical names for the various parts of the lute after Al-Fārābī are given, followed in some instances by the modern Egyptian terms after Villetau.

^a Dr. Snouck Hurgionjo informs me that the word 'ad is not used by the Mescans, except in poetry.

Maimūna. It is described by him as a four-stringed instrument much like the kamānja. The Ḥadramī qanbūs is played with a plectrum (midrab, rīshat al-nasr) of quill, 15.5 cm. long.

THE VIOLS. 1973/26 AND 27.

History.—The earliest viol that we read of as used by the Arabs is the rabāb. Legend asserts that it was known to them before and during the time of the Prophet. We know of it definitely as a bowed instrument from the tenth century, when it is described by Al-Fārābī and the Ikhwān al-Ṣafā'. In Arabic, rabāb was primarily a generic term for any bowed instrument, in the same way, perhaps, as kamān in Persian and ahizhak in Turkish, whatever specific types these names may have represented later.

Several distinct types of the viol may be recognized among the Arabs. In Al-IIijāz, both the flat-chested type and the long-necked globular-chested type, known in Egypt respectively as the rabāb al-shā'ir and kamānja 'ajūz,' wore in common use. The former has ever been a favourite with the badawī, as Ibn Ghaibī (d. 1435) tells us. In the sixteenth century, the rabāb was to be found even in the Meccan cafés. The kamānja 'ajūz type, such as we have

¹ Mekka, 11, 51-5.

The Messan gabis exhibited is certainly not "much like" the kamānja 'ajūz of Lane (Mod. Egypt., chap. xvili), to which Dr. Snouck Hurgionje refers us. There is, however, a type of kamānja to which it could be likened. See Engel, Catalogue of the Musical Instruments in the South Kensington Museum, 210.

³ Evliya Cholobi, Travels, i, ii, 226, 234.

⁴ Kosegarten, Lib. Cant., 77.

⁵ Ikhwan al-Şafa' (Bombay edit.), i, 01-2.

⁶ And the rubab al-mughannt.

⁷ Villotenu, Description de l'Égypte, Etât moderne, i, 900, 916. Lano, Modern Egyptians (5th ed.), 356, 364.

⁸ Doughty, Travels in Arabia Deserta (1888), i, 201, 280. Catalogue of the Crosby Brown Collection of Musical Instruments (1905 et seq.), ii, 81-2.

Bodleian MS, cit., fol. 78v.

¹⁰ De Sacy, Chrest, arabe, i, 150 of text.

in one of the exhibits (No. 27), is fully described in the Kanz al-tuḥaf (fourteenth century) under the name of <u>ghishak</u>, by Ibn Ghaibī under the names of kamānja and ghizhak, each being a separate type, and by Ahmad Ughlu Shukrullāh (fifteenth century), a Turkish writer, who calls it the iqligh.

Mecca probably took the name (\sqrt{Pers. kamān_tha}, dim. of kamān), as well as the instrument, from Egypt, where we read of it as early as the thirteenth century.\(^5\) Egypt may have borrowed it during the Kurdish ascendancy of the Ayyūbids, as the instrument was considered almost a national instrument with the Kurds.\(^6\)

The Exhibits.—The first instrument (No. 26) is an unusual type and quite dissimilar from the kamānjāt of Egypt, Syria, Palestine, Mesopotamia, Persia, and Turkestan, and is probably indigenous. Total length, 78.5 cm. Diameter of sound-chest, 8 cm. Depth of sound-chest, 7.5 cm. Length of foot, 5.5 cm. The neck, called the 'amūd in Egypt, which is cylindrical, and the tuning-peg box are made of one piece of plain wood. The foot is of iron, and is inserted into the lower end of the neck, passing through the sound-chest. The latter is a coco-nut (jauz hindī) shell, one-third of which is cut off. Over this cut portion a skin is stretched which serves as the belly, and is fastened to the shell by means of nails. The back of the sound-chest is perforated with innumerable sound-holes. There are four tuning-pegs, and the gut strings (which in the present exhibit are scarcely original) pass over a nut. The bridge exhibited is also not original.

This would appear to be the type of kamānja to which Dr. Snouck Hurgronje refers in his Mckka, since it is a four-

¹ It actually corresponds in size with the kamānja farkh or kamānja sughayyir of Villeteau.

^a Brit. Mus. MS., Or. 2361, fol. 262.

³ MS, cit., 78-78v.

⁴ Lavignae, Ency. de la Musique, v. 3012.

⁵ Al-Maqrīzī, Hist. des Sultans Mamlouks de l'Egypte, i, i, 136.

⁶ Berlin MS., We. 1233, fol. 47v.

⁷ Bowed instruments are not used in Hadramaut. Landberg, 25.



stringed instrument. We have no information concerning its accordatura, but the four-stringed kamānja rūmī, which is not unlike the European viol, is sometimes tuned—from the lowest to the highest string—A. E. G. d.¹ The bow (qaus), which is the same shape, only smaller, as the warrior's bow, is of wood, with horse-hair stretched from end to end. Horizontal length, 65.5 cm. Width of arc, 6.5 cm.

The second instrument (No. 27) is clearly of Egyptian provenance. Total length, 73 cm. Diameter of sound-chest, 9.5 cm. Depth of sound-chest, 5.5 cm. Length of foot, 20.5 cm. Its construction, in general principles, is the same as that of the preceding. The sound-chest, which is of coco-nut, is open at the back, where it is cut off. There are two tuning-pegs, and the strings pass over a crude, bulky nut, which, obviously, is not original. The two strings are made of horse-hair, and are attached to a fork or tail-pin, which is distinct from the foot. The bridge is missing.

The instrument is well made, the neck, tuning-pegs, peg box, and scroll are nicely finished in colours of black, yellow, red, and green, the latter also being the colour of the belly skin. We do not know its accordatura, but the Egyptian instrument of this type has its strings tuned a fourth apart.²

REED-PIPES. 1973/128, 129, 29.

History.—As I have remarked elsewhere,³ the Arabs called every instrument of the "wood-wind" family a mizmār, although the term was also used specifically for a reed-pipe, i.e. a reed-blown pipe. It is highly probable that the early mizmār was a simple reed-pipe with a cylindrical tube, played with a single reed. As early as the sixth century the poet Al-Muzarrid tells us of the mizmār at a convivial party.⁴

¹ See exhibit 149, Catalogue . . . du Musée Instrumental du Conservatoire royal de Musique de Bruxelles. Villoteau, Description, i, 882. Fétis, Hist. Mus., ii, 141.

² The fifteenth century kamānja of Ibn Ghaibī was tuned similarly,

^a See ante, p. 65.

⁴ The Mufaddaliyyāt, xvii.

In the following century, the mizmār and duff (tambourine) were the martial instruments of the Jewish tribes of Al-IIijāz.¹ The mizmār was used as an accompaniment to the singers of the early Umayyad period.² The Prophet Muḥammad so highly esteemed the tones of the instrument that he likened the chanting of Abū Mūsā al-Ash'arī to "a reed-pipe (mizmār) from the reed-pipes of David",³ although there is a IIadīth which says that the Prophet stopped his ears when he heard the mizmār.⁴

The double reed-pipe is called the diyānai (? dūnai, "double nai") by Ibn Khurdādhbih (d. 912), whilst Al-Fārābī (d. 950) describes it as the mizmār al-muzawwaj ("married mizmār"), the mizmār al-muzhannā ("double mizmār"), or the diyānai. From the eleventh century, the word zammāra, later corrupted to zummāra, has been used, although not always perhaps in reference to a double reed-pipe. In an Arabic treatise entitled Al-shajara dhāt akmām al-hāwiya uṣūl al-anghām, the "wood-wind" comprise the nāy, zamr, and mauṣūl. The last-named instrument is mentioned as early as the thirteenth century, and the word means "joined". This leads one to conclude that the mauṣūl was also a double reed-pipe.

In modern times, zummāra as the name for a double reedpipe survives in Egypt,¹¹ and also in Mecca.¹² In North Africa, however, the zammāra is described as a "chalumeau ou

¹ Al-Aghānī, ii, 172.

² Al-Aghānī, 11, 121.

^{3 &#}x27;Iqd al-farid, iti, 176.

Ibn Khallikan, Biog. Diet., ici, 521.

⁵ See ante, pp. 55, 57.

⁶ Kosegarton, Lib. Cant., 204.

⁷ Schiaparelli, Vocabulista in Arabico (13th century), s.v. "fistula".

⁸ Seybold, Glossarium Latino-Arabicum (eleventh contury), s.v. "fistula".

⁹ Buit, Mus. MS., Or. 1535. See Villoteau, op. cit., i, 617.

¹⁰ Al-Maqrīzī, *Histoire*, i, i, 136. Ibn Ḥajar, Berlin MS., We. 1505, fol. 24. Muḥammad ibn Ismā'īl, Safīnat al-mulk, 471.

¹¹ Lane, Modern Egyptians (5th Edit.), p. 367.

¹² Snouck Hurgrouje. Doughty, Travels, ii, 118, refers to a double reed-pipe at Kharbar as a mizmār.

flageolet", whilst the double reed-pipe is termed the magnum or magnuma. In Syria and Palestine the latter instrument is called the mijwiz (sic).

With the appearance of reed pipes with conical tubes played with a double reed like the Persian surnay, or the Arab nay zunāmī (zulāmī), the cylindrical tube instruments were relegated to the folk and mendicant class, with whom they have since remained.

The Exhibits.—No. 128. Cylindrical tube of bamboo, 18.2 cm. in length. With the reed inserted, 22.7 cm. in length. There are five finger-holes (thuqab) at the following distances from the manfakh or place of blowing:—

8 cm.
10.8 ,,
13.1 ,,
15.7 ,,
118.4 ,,

No. 129. Two cylindrical tubes of bamboo, with a Vandyko pattern scratched on each. The tubes are fastened together with string. Length of tubes, 20 cm. Length with reeds inserted, 23.7 cm. There are five finger-holes in each tube, at the following approximate 4 distances from the manfakh:—

8.7 cm. 11.4 ,, 14.1 ,, 16.8 ,, 19.5 ,,

No. 29. Two cylindrical tubes of bamboo fastened together with string and wax. Length of tubes, 23.6 cm. Length with reeds inserted, 26 cm. There are five finger-holes in

¹ Beaussier, Dict. practique Arabe-Français.

² Lavignao, Encyclopedie, v, 2703. Revue Africaine, 1866.

³ Dalman, Palästinischer Diwän, 25. Cf. Cat. of the Grosby Brown Collection, 11, 80, 81.

¹ I say "approximate" because the distances in the two tubes do not strictly correspond.

each tube, at the following distances approximate from the $manfa\underline{k}\underline{h}:$ —

9.7 cm.
12.5 ,,
15.4 ,,
18.3 ,,
21.1 ,,

The reed with which these instruments are blown is probably the oldest type of vibrating reed known to us. It consists of a hollow piece of cane stopped at one end, a horizontal slit being made in it, penetrating to the interior cavity, so as to make a vibrating tongue. The reed is invariably attached to the tube by means of string so as to prevent loss.²

Тик Овок. 1973/28.

History.—The Arabs were acquainted with the oboe from an early period. About the beginning of the ninth century, a famous wind-instrumentalist at the Khalifate court, named Zunām, invented or improved an oboe, which was called after him the nāy zunāmī or zunāmī. The name fell into desuetude in the East, but in the West it continued to be used for many centuries, although corrupted into zulāmī. This is probably the instrument which is described by Al-Fārābī (d. 950) and Ibn Zaila (d. 1048) under the titles of mizmār wāḥid and nāy respectively. It is the zamr of the Mamlūk military bands, and the mizmār (in Persian nāy siyāh) of the Kanz

¹ This reed is described and delineated by Villotoau, op. cit., i, 966. Plates (vol. ii), co, fig. 24.

² In the plate one of the reeds of No. 29 has slipped down into the tube of the instrument.

³ Tāj al-'arūs, Al-Iļarīrī, Magāmāt, xvii. Al-Maqqarī, Moh. Dyn., i, 56. Schiaparelli, op. cit. Ibn Khaldūn, Prolégomènes, ii, 353.

⁴ Cf. Ency. of Islām, ii, 136, where zallāma (sic) is considered a metathesis of zammāra.

⁵ Leydon MS., Or. 651, fol. 78. Kosegarton, Lib. Cant., 98.

⁶ Brit. Mus. MS., Or. 2361, fol. 236.

⁷ Al-Maqrīzī, op. cit., i, i, 173.

al-tuḥaf (fourteenth century). Ibn Ghaibī (d. 1435) describes it as the zamr siyāh nāy.

The surnāy or surnā of the Persians appears to have been a smaller type of oboe. It was a martial instrument with the 'Abbāsid khalifs in the ninth century," and was used similarly by the Fāṭimids in the eleventh century, and by the Mughals in the fourteenth century. At the same time, the terms zamr and surnā appear to have been interchangeable in many instances. The surnā is described by Ibn Ghaibī, and by the author of the Sharh al-adwār. Under Turkish influence the word has been altered to zurnā, and has become interchangeable with zamr.

In Spain and North Africa there was a kind of oboe known as the <u>ghaita</u>, which we read of as early as Ibn Battūta (d. 1377), who identifies it with the <u>surnāy</u> of the Mughals. The name still persists in Spain, Morocco, and Algeria, although in Southern Tunisia it is called the <u>zammāra</u>, whilst in Constantine it is the <u>zurna</u>.

The Exhibit.—This instrument has a conical tube of cherrywood (karaz), with a separate head (fast) 10 of boxwood (bags), of a combined length of 30 cm., terminating in a bell or pavilion. There are seven finger-holes in the front of the tube and one thumb-hole at the back, the latter being called the qual ("speech"). 11 The bell also contains a number of small holes for accoustical purposes.

It is played by means of a double-reed (qashsha) which is

- ¹ Brit. Mus. MS., Or. 2301, fol. 263.
- ² MS. cit., fol. 80.
- ^a Al-Aghānī, xvi, 138.
- ⁴ Nāşir-i <u>Kh</u>usrau, Safar nāma, 47.
- ⁵ Ibn Battüta, ii, 126.
- ^a MS. cited, fol. 80.
- ⁷ Brit. Mus. MS., Or. 2361, fol. 173v-174.
- 8 Villoteau, op. cit., i, 931.
- Ibn Battūta, ii, 120.
- 10 I give the modern Egyptian terms for the various parts of the nstrument as given by Villeteau. See also Delphin et Guin, Notes sur a Poësie et la Musique Arabes, pp. 38-0.
 - 11 Cf. the term "speaker key" in the European elarinet,

fastened to a brass staple (laulā, laulya) upon which is mounted a disc called the sadaf, or sadaf mudawwar, because it is generally made of shell or bone. The player usually takes the reed completely into his mouth, his lips touching the sadaf.

The head (fast or fāsila) is a wooden cylinder 9 cm. long, 7.5 cm. of which is fitted into the upper interior of the tube of the instrument. A portion of this cylinder is cut out on one side, and ordinarily this "cut side" is turned towards the line of the finger-holes of the tube. When, however, the "uncut side" of the cylinder is turned towards the line of the finger-holes, the two upper finger-holes are closed, thereby lowering the pitch of the instrument.

The total length of the instrument, with reed and staple added, is 33 cm. The exhibit is clearly of Egyptian provenance, and is practically identical with the zamr, or zurnā sughayyir, which is fully described and delineated by Villoteau. The finger-holes are situated at the following distances from the end of the reed:—

5.3 cm.
7.7 ,,
10.4 ,,
13 ,,
15.6 ,,
20.8 ,,

THE FLUTE. 1973/28.

History.—Elsewhere I have shown 2 that the pre-Islāmic flute was probably called the qussāba (= qasaba). With the influence of Persia, which brought the word $n\bar{a}y$, the Arabic name was neglected in the East, and the flute came to be known as the $n\bar{a}y$ abyād (" white $n\bar{a}y$ "), so as to distinguish it from the oboe which was called the $n\bar{a}y$ aswād (" black

¹ Villoteau, op. cit., i, 931, and plates.

² See ante, p. 66.

³ The Mufaddaliyyat, xvii.

nāy").¹ In modern times the word nāy has stood for flute in Egypt ² and Syria.³ Only in the West has the old Arabic name qaşaba persisted.⁴

The small flute or fife has generally been called the <u>shabbāba</u> (<u>shabāb</u> = "youth"). This is the designation in North-West Africa, although the term juwāq is just as frequently used. In Egypt, <u>shabbāba</u> often stands for the flute à bec, in common with the term saffāra (vulg. suffāra). The latter designation, I am informed by a native of Jidda, would properly be the name for the Meccan flute exhibited, because it is made of brass (sufr). This reminds us that Ibn Sīda (d. 1065) says that the saffāra is "a hollow thing in which a boy whistles to pigeons", to which definition Al-Fīrūzābādī (d. 1414) adds that it was made of copper (naḥās).

The nāy is ignored by Al-Fārābī (d. 950), because he counted the flute among the instruments that were inferior (ukhur), whilst the mizmār was considered to be among the perfect (akmāl) instruments.⁹ The flute is described under the name of nāy abyāḍ in the Sharḥ al-adwār (fourteenth century), 10 and in the Kanz al-tuḥaf (fourteenth century) as the bīsha.¹¹ Ibn Ghaibī (d. 1435) gives details of the instrument as the nāy safīd ("white nāy").¹² All these flutes were made of wood or bamboo.

The Exhibit.—This is a vertical flute, played by directing

- ¹ Brit. Mus. MS., Or. 2361, fol. 173v.
- ² Villotoau, op. cit., i, 954. Lane, op. cit., 362.
- 3 Russell, Natural History of Aleppo (2nd ed.), i, 152.
- ⁴ Salvador-Daniel, The Music and Musical Instruments of the Arab, 109. Christianowitsch, Esquisse historique de la Musique arabe, 31. Delphin et Guin, La Poësie et la Musique arabes, 37.
 - ⁵ Christianowitsch, 31.
 - ⁶ Salvador-Daniel, 116. Delphin of Guju, 45.
 - 7 Villoteau, i, 951.
 - al-Qāmūs, s.v. صفر
 - ⁹ Leyden MS., Or. 651, fol. 15.
 - ¹⁰ Brit. Mus. MS., Or. 2361, fol. 173v.
 - ¹¹ Brit. Mus. MS., Or. 2361, fol. 263,
 - 12 MS. cit., fol. 70v.

the wind from the lips sharply across the orifice at the manfakh or blowing-place. To effect this the instrument is not held vertically, but with the bottom end slightly inclined to the left side. Unlike the better type of nāy, this instrument has no rās or head with which to support the lip of the player.

The tube is cylindrical and of brass, its length being 48 cm. It has six finger-holes at the following distances from the manfalch:—

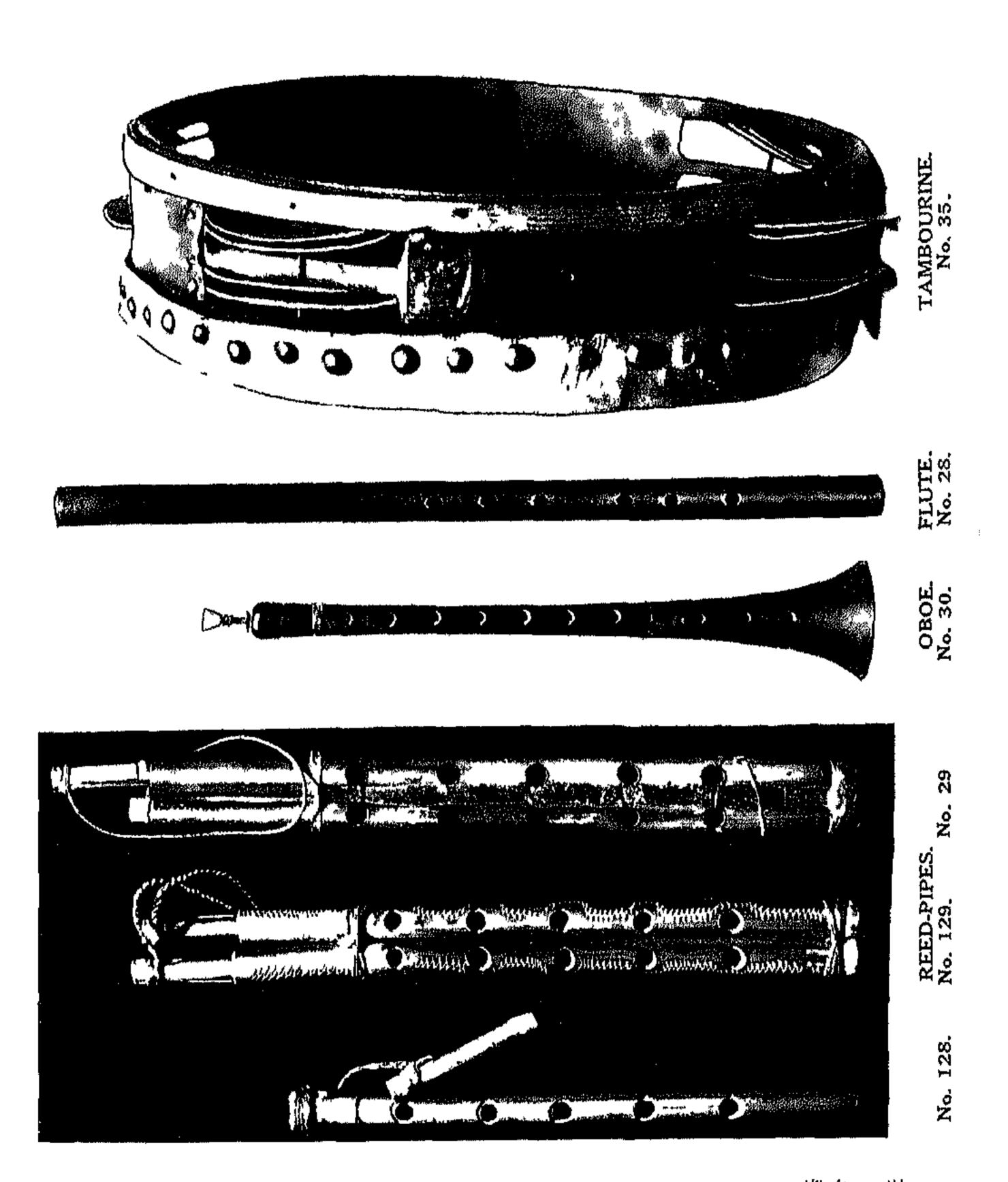
21.6 cm.
24.7 ,,
27.7 ,,
32.5 ,,
35.4 ,,
38.7 ,,

THE TAMBOURINE. 1973/35.

History.—The generic name for tambourine in Arabic was duff. Al-Muțarizi (d. 1213) says that there were two kinds of duff, the rectangular and the round. In the specific sense, however, duff stood for the former type, and dā'ira for the latter. Some legists placed the former among the forbidden instruments, whilst the latter was made "allowable". Others said that it was only the tambourine with "jingles" that was censured. The duff was known in pre-Islāmic times, and was a particular favourite with the women. In the sixteenth century it was used in the Meccan cafés.

The round form was apparently the <u>ghirbāl</u>, which had the approval of the Prophet.³ It had no "jingles", but "snares" were stretched across the inside of the "head".⁴ This type, seemingly, was afterwards called the *bandair* or *bandār*, such as we find nowadays in North-West Africa.⁵

- 1 Farmer, History of Arabian Music, 27.
- ² De Sacy, op. cit., i, 159.
- ⁹ Lisān al-'arab, B.Y.
- 1 Kıtāb al-ımtā', fol. 12v.
- ⁵ Villoteau, i, 988, describes the Egyptian bandair with "jingling plates", which proporly belong to the für.





The round type possessing jingling plates in the shell was called the $t\bar{a}r$ or $tar.^1$ Early in the twelfth century, we read of it in Al-Yaman, and it is also referred to in the thirteenth century Vocabulista in Arabico, and in the Alf larla wa laila.

Dr. Snouck Hurgronje informs me that he never heard the duff, the mazhar, or the dā'ira mentioned in Mecca, but he has shown us in his book that the tār was quite popular. It was used by the ladies at Shaikh Mahmūd, and at the festivities at circumcision, on each occasion accompanied by another type of tambourine called the tabla.

The Exhibit.—This tār is so rudely constructed that we imagine it to be of badawī origin. The shell or body, which is made of wood, is 25.5 cm. in diameter, and 6.5 cm. in depth. One side of the shell is covered with a green skin "head" fastened to the shell by means of brass-headed nails. There are four double sets of jingling metal plates inserted in the shell.

Among other Meccan musical instruments mentioned by Dr. Snouck Hurgronje in his monumental Mekka are the qānūn and ṭabla. The qānūn or psaltery is mentioned as being used by some pilgrims to Sittanā Maimūna.⁸ The author also informs me that he frequently heard in the Holy City of certain Circassian slave-girls who were adept performers on the instrument. The history of the qānūn has been dealt with elsewhere.⁹ The modern instrument has been carefully described by Villoteau.¹⁰ If it is of Syrian,

- ¹ It is written without the | in North-West Africa. Höst, Nachrichten von Marolos und Fes, writes tur.
 - ² Kay, Yaman, 5d.
 - ^a Macnaghton edit., 1, 165; iv, 172.
- 4 The mazhar is a round tambourne with jingling rings of metal in the shell instead of jingling plates of metal.
 - ⁴ Mekka, ii, 61.
 - ⁶ Mekka, ii, 142.
- ⁷ See Lane, Mod. Egypt., 366, for a typical example of an Egyptian tar, as well as a description of its use
 - ⁸ Mekka, 11, 54-5.
 - ⁹ See ante, p. 3.
 - 10 Villoteau, op. cit, 1, 883.

Egyptian, or Turkish provenance,¹ it is usually mounted with 69, 72, or 75 strings, which are tuned in "threes", giving a diatonic scale of 23, 24, or 25 notes respectively.² There is a Turkish specimen in the Victoria and Albert Museum, London.³

The tabla or long-shelled tambourine, is mentioned as being used by ladies at Shaikh Maḥmūd, and elsewhere. It is identical with the instrument known in other Arabic-speaking countries as the darabukka, darābukka, darbūka, and dirbakkā. This type of instrument has been known to the Arabs for centuries. Probably the kabar belonged to this class, and perhaps the dirrīj or durraij also. Doubtless the countries in the Alf laila wa laila is a copyist's error for darabukka, as Burton has assumed. The modern instrument is fully described by Villoteau, Lane, and the

In La Musique turque by Raouf Yekta Bey (Lavignao's Ency. de la Musique, v, 2845-3064) it is stated that in the course of the eighteenth contury the qānūn fell into complete desuctude in Turkey, and that under Sultān Selīm III (1780-1807), the most flourishing period of Turkish music, not a solitary qānūn player's name has been preserved. We are told that the instrument was re-introduced into Constantinople by an Arab of Damasous during the reign of Mahmūd II (1808-39).

At the close of the seventeenth century, Evliya Chelebi (d. c. 1670) mentions both makers and players of the quain in Constantinople. (Narrative of Tracels, i, il, 227, 234.) It is introduced by the Turkish poet Nābi into his Khairābād, written in 1705-5. (Gibb, Hist. of Ottoman Poetry, vi, 233.) It is mentioned by Toderini (Letteratura turchesca, Venice, 1787, i, 238) among the instruments in use in his day in Turkey. The present writer possesses an eighteenth century engraving by G. Scotin, entitled Fille Turque jouant du Canon.

- ² Cat. . . . du Musée inst. du Conservatoire royal du Musique de Bruxelles, in, 312, No. 1901; i, 191, No. 152. Cat. of the Crosby Brown Collection, ii, 77, No. 1248.
 - ⁸ No. 1032/69.
 - 4 Mekka, ii, 61.
 - ⁵ Mekka, ii, 142.
 - Villotoan writes darābukka.
 - ⁷ See ante, p. 58.
 - 8 Gohus, Levicon, 814. Al-Firūzābādī (d. 1414) likens it to the funbūr.
 - ⁰ Maonaghton odit., i, 244.
 - 10 Burton, Arabian Nights.
 - 11 Villoteau, i, 996.
 - 12 Lane, Mod. Egypt, 366-7.

Encyclopædia of Islām, whilst several specimens from Arabia are to be found in the Crosby Brown Collection,¹

The martial instrument par excellence to the Arab is the kettledrum (tabl, naggāra), and a Muslim has said: "The drum is the music sound of the religion of Islam." 2 Indeed, legend has it that Bābā Sawandīk the Indian played the kettledrum called the kūs in the wars of the Prophet,3 although there is only mention of the tambourine called the duff in the older authors.4 In the tenth century we read of several types of kettledrums, the ordinary mounted kettledrum called the tabl al-markab ($=naqq\bar{a}ra$, dabdāb), and the great kettledrum, called the kūs, as well as an instrument with a shallow shell known as the gasa'. Later, we find a monster kettledrum called the kürka. Burton shows the badawī of Al-Ilijāz pounding his kettledrum "pulpit-like", 6 whilst Lawrence has delightfully portrayed the part played by the instrument in his account of the Amīr Faișal's march from Yanbu' to Wajh in January, 1917.7 In the Kelvingrove Museum, Glasgow, there is a fine copper naggāra about 48 cm. in diameter. It once formed part of the marātib (insignia) of the Mahdī.8 My Jidda friend saw a similar kettledrum in the hasham (retinue) of the Meccan sharif in pre-war days.

- ¹ Nos. 335, 340, 364.
- ² Doughty, ii, 119.
- ³ Evliyā Chelebī, ì, ii, 226.
- 4 See my Hist. of Arabian Music, 10.
- ⁵ Ikhwan al-Şafa', i, 91. Ibn al-Tiqtaqa, 30. Eclipse of the 'Abbasid Caliphate, vi, 175.
 - ⁵ Burton, Personal Narrative . . . , iii, 76.
 - ⁷ Revolt in the Desert, 64 et seq.
 - 8 Villotean has fully described the various Egyptian kettledrums.

The Origin of the Arabian Lute and Rebec

The Origin of the Arabian Lute and Rebec

"It is mainly in respect of musical instruments that mediaoval Europe was indebted to the Arabs, as I have pointed out many times in The Precursors of the Violin Family, and in various articles in the Encyclopaedia Britannica? The chief of these instruments were the lute and the rebab, which, however, were only introduced by the Arabs, not invented by them, they themselves indeed acknowledge their indebtedness to Persia in this respect."—Miss Kathleen Schlesinger, Is European Musical Theory Indebted to the Arabs? Reply to the Arabian Influence on Musical Theory by H. G. Farmer.

A MONG the instruments of Mediaeval Europe that contributed most to the progress of the art of music the lute and rebec stand pre-eminent. That they were introduced into Western Europe by the Arabs is generally admitted, and for that reason the question of their original adoption by the Arabs themselves is of some importance, especially in view of the statements of Miss Schlesinger; not only in the above extract, but in the works to which she refers us.

THE LUTE

I did not suggest in my monograph that the Arabs were the "inventors" of the lute and rebec. What I said was this: "That we owe the lute (Arab. al-'ūd)... and rebec (Arab. rabāb) to the Arabs, is generally admitted, and, indeed, their names and construction tell of their origin." By this I meant, as was fairly obvious from what had preceded, that the Arabs were responsible for the introduction of these instruments in Western Europe. The antiquity of the pear-shaped lute-like instrument is generally accepted nowadays, mainly owing to Miss Schlesinger's own researches. Indeed, the Arabs themselves acknowledged the antiquity of the lute, seeing that according to Ibn Khuidādhbih they refer its

^{1 1010.}

² 11th edition, 1900-11.

^{3 1925.}

⁴ See my Arabian Influence on Musical Theory, 4.

"invention" to Lamak, who is the Lamech of Genesis, where we read of his son Jubal as "the father of all such as handle the harp (kinner) and organ ('ugāb) ". The same authority also points out that the majority of writers attribute the lute to the Greeks.2 It is clear, therefore, that the Arabs do not altogether "acknowledge their indebtedness to Persia in this respect " as Miss Schlesinger says. One writer, Abü'l-Fida' (d. 1331), does certainly suggest that the lute was "invented" (استعفرج) in the time of the Persian monarch Shapur I (241-72), but it is more likely that the word "introduced" would be preferable in this case, since it is not improbable that the instrument that Shapur "introduced" was a wooden-bellied lute ('ad == "wood"), known to the Persians as the barbat, which was an improvement on their skin-bellied lute of the rubāb type. Sāsānian art of the fourth-seventh century which is still preserved, shows us this barbat. 5

The general statement made in the Encyclopaedia Britannica that the lute "was adopted by the Arabs from Persia" is also not strictly correct. What was adopted from Persia was a particular type of lute as we shall see later. In pre-Islāmic days the Arabs throughout the peninsula possessed the lute or lutes, under the names mizhar, kirān, and muwattar. That the mizhar and the 'ild were distinct types of lute we know from several authorities. The other names may have been merely regional variations.

¹ Al-Mas'adl, Prairies d'or, viii, 88-0.

² Ibid., p. 99.

³ Fleischer's translation runs: "Sapor magno... ejusdem actate instrumentum musicum quod el-'ud (barbytes) appellatur, inventum esse dicitur." Abulfedas Ilistoria Anteislamica, 82-3.

⁴ See my History of Arabian Music, 16. Barbaj is the older form of the word. (See Majātīh al-'ulūm.) Barbut is a later word. Miss Schlesinger's barbud (Precursors, p. 488) has no existence so far as the present writer is aware.

Dalton, Treasures of the Oxus (2nd ad.), 211.

⁴ Hist. of Arabian Music, 15.

⁷ Madrid MS., 603, fol. 13, v.

In her Precursors of the Violin Family, Miss Schlesinger tells us that the Arabs borrowed the lute from the Persians in this wise 1:—

"The Arabs learned to know the lute . . . from the Persians at the end of the sixth century, when one of their musicians named Al-Nadr ibn al-Ḥārith ibn Kalada was sent to Khusrau Parwīz to learn to sing and play the lute; through him the lute was brought to Mecca."

My critic does not give her authority for this statement, although we know it in spite of that. It was derived from Carl Engel,² who borrowed it from Kiesewetter.³ The proper version of the story is to be found in Ibn Khurdādhbih, and it reads as follows ⁴:—

"In the song (ghinā') the Quraish only knew the nash until Al-Nadr ibn al-Hārith ibn Kalada returned from a deputation to Al-Trāq to the Persian king (kisrā) in Al-Hīra, where he had learned to play the 'ūd (lute) and the song (ghinā') that accompanied it. When he returned to Mecca he taught the people [these accomplishments] and they were adopted by the singing-girls (qaināt)."

It will be observed that Ibn Khurdādhbih does not refer to the Arabs in general, but merely to the Quraigh of Mecca adopting this 'ūd which Al-Nadr had introduced from Al-Ḥīra. Further, the account does not say that it was a Persian lute that was brought to Mecca, nor that Al-Nadr had learned to play it from the Persians. Al-Ḥīra was the capital of the Arab Lakhmid dynasty, which acknowledged the Persian king as suzerain. One famous Persian king, Bahrām Chūr (430-8), was actually sent to Al-Ḥīra to be educated by the Arabs, and was taught music also by them.

¹ p. 491.

² A Descriptive Catalogue of the Musical Instruments in the South Kensington Museum (1874), p. 60.

³ Musik der Araber, p. 9.

⁴ Al-Mas'ūdī, op. cit., viii, 93-4.

⁵ Al-Tabari, i, 185.

Khusrau Parwīz is not mentioned in Ibn Khurdādhbih's account, although it is probable that the visit was made during his reign (590-628). Further, the account does not say that he was "sent" to this monarch so as to learn "to sing and play the lute". He went on a political deputation. Al-Nadr was executed by the order of the Prophet Muhammad in 624, and it would seem that the deputation to Al-IIīra took place prior to the delivery of Sūra, xxxi (5-6), which is one of the Mecca sūrāt dating from 610-22. Probably Al-Nadr's visit ought to be placed earlier than 602, i.e. prior to the extinction of the Lakhmid dynasty in Al-IIīra, when the relations between the latter city and the Persian court at Ctesiphon were cordial. At this period the fame of the Persian minstrel Bārbad or Bārbud was commanding attention.

The Persian lute was adopted much later according to the chronicles. Ibn al-Kalbī (d. 763) tells us that the first to make the 'ūd in Al-Medīna was a musician named Sā'ib Khāthir (d. 683). At Mecca, about the year 684, another musician, Ibn Suraij, was playing on an 'ūd made after the fashion of Persian lutes ('ūdān al-furs), and it was said that he was the first in Mecca to play Arabian music on it. This lute, copied from the Persian instrument, was clearly of recent adoption, and would appear to have been introduced by the Persian workmen imported by 'Abdallāh ibn al-Zubair for his building reforms in 684. If the Persian lute of Ibn Suraij was a novelty

¹ Cf. Ibn Higham (d. 843), Sirat al-rasal (Wastenfeld edit.), 101-2, and Ibn al-Athir (d. 1284), Chron. (Tornberg edit.), ii, 55.

² Al-Nadr learned other things besides music at Al-Hira. It was the Persian stories of Rustam and Islandiyar, and similar legends, that he brought back, that Muhammad condemned as "idle tales".

³ Al-Aghānī, xx, 134.

Known in Arabic as Fälüdh. For other forms of the name see Professor E. G. Browne's History of Persia, i, 11, and JRAS. 1800, p. 54. The vocalization with damma as above is given in the Mafatth al-'ulum, p. 238.

⁵ Al-Aghānī, vii, 188.

^{*} Al-Aghanī, i, 98.

in Mecca, which it seems to have been, then the lute, introduced by Al-Nadr eighty years before, was simply an 'Iraqian instrument.

We are distinctly told by the author of the Kitāb al-aghānī (d. 967) that the Persian lute continued to be favoured by the Arabs until the time of the famous Baghdād lutanist Zalzal (d. 791), although the old Alabian lute called the mizhar, and probably the 'Irāqian lute, also had some vogue. It was Zalzal who introduced a new type of instrument, a "wonderful lute" called the 'ūd al-shabbūṭ.¹ A little later, another musician of Baghdād named Ziryāb contributed some improvements whilst at the court of Hārūn (786-809) and again at the court of the Andalusian sultān 'Abdal-Raḥmān II (822-52).² Since it is highly probable that these improvements found their way into Western Europe, it seems advisable that we should inquire what these improvements were.

The name of the Persian lute, barbat, is said by Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad al-Khwārizmī (fl. 976-97) to have been given to the instrument because it resembled "the breast of the duck", or, as Majd al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr (d. 1210) says, because the player upon it places it against his breast." The pre-Islamic poet 'Abīd ibn al-Abraş (sixth century), who spent much of his time at Al-Ilīra, speaks of an instrument with "strings stretched over a hollow curved sound-chest". This would appear to refer to either the Persian or 'Irāqian lute. Yazīd II (720-4) having asked one day for a description of the barbat was told that "it is hunchbacked" and "lean of belly" (i.e. flat-bellied). From these descriptions we can recognize the familiar vaulted back of the lute, but evidently the instrument at this period had no separate neck, because

¹ Al-Aghānī, v, 24.

² Al-Maqqanī, Moh. Dyn., i, 411; 11, 118-19. Analectes, ii, 84, 86-7.

^a Mafātīh al-'ulūm, 238.

⁴ Lane, Lex., s.v.

⁵ The Diwans of 'Abid b al-Abras and 'Amir b. al-Tufail. Edd. Sir Chas Lyall, ix, 5.

^{4 &#}x27;Iqd al-farid, iii, 186.

the whole thing, from the nut downwards, appears to have been made in one graduated piece, probably hollow throughout, similar to the Meccan and Ḥaḍramī qabūs which I have described elsewhere. The Persian lute shown in the Sāsānian art work (fourth-seventh centuries), preserved in the British Museum, has an outline which strongly suggests this. 2

Zalzal's "invention" in the 'ūd al-shabbūt was probably the substitution of a separate and parallel neck, solid throughout, and a separate sound-chest, just as we have them in the modern instrument. There are fairly good reasons for this assumption. The Arabic lexicographers tell us that there was "a species of fish" called the shabbūt. This fish was "slender in the tail, wide in the middle part, small in the head, resembling a barbat", as we are told by Al-Laith ibn ~ Nagr (eighth century). Burther, we read in the Taj al-'arus, that "the barbat, when long, not broad, is likened to this fish, and this fish to the barbat". This "slender tail" of the fish called the <u>shabbūt</u> is evidently the parallel and separate "neck" of the <u>shabbūt</u> lute ('ūd al-<u>sh</u>abbūt), 1 The lute delineated in the eleventh century (1) silver bowl from Mesopotamia in the Kaiser Friedrich-Museum, Berlin, shows a parallel neck. Later Saraconic art also bears this out.

The Persian lute of the time of Bärbad or Bärbud (sixth-seventh century) was strung with four strings, as we are informed by Khālid ibn al-Fayyād (d. ca. 718). With the Arabs, the lute had four strings in the time of Bighr ibn Marwān (d. 694) and Yazīd II (d. 724). Al-Kindī (d. ca. 874) 8

¹ See ante, p. 72.

² Dalton, Treasures of the Oxus (2nd odit.), 211.

³ Lano, Lex., s.v.

⁴ Cf. Land, Trans. of the Ninth Congress of Orientalists, 1802, ii, 161. See the Portuguese machets in Engel's Catalogue of Musical Instruments, p. 254, and pl. facing p. 248, which is made in the form of a fish.

⁵ See Lachmann, R., Musik des Orients, 136.

^{*} JRAS. 1800, 59.

^{7 &#}x27;Iqd al-farīd, iii, 186.

⁸ Brit. Mus. MS., Or. 2361, fol. 166.

and Al-Fārābī (d. 950) 1 both speak of a fifth string, which is said to have been introduced by Ziryāb (eighth-ninth century). 2 The Arabs certainly adopted the word for "frets" (dasātīn, sing. dastān) from the Persians, and apparently altered the old accordatura of their lute, which was C-D-G-a, to the Persian one of fourths, A-D-G-c. 3 This latter remained the tuning of the lute up to modern times, save in the Maghrib where the old system is still retained in one form or another. 4

Ziryāb's "improvements" to the lute date from the late eighth and early ninth century. Whilst at the court of Hārūn (786-809) he had made a heavier lute than the one in general use, and introduced gut for the lower strings instead of the customary silk. At the court of the Andalusian sultān 'Abd al-Raḥmān II (822-52) he imported the practice of using a quill plectrum instead of the wooden implement hitherto used.

Al-Kindī (d. ca. 874) tells us that both the belly and back of the lute were made of thin wood, which was to be of uniform thinness throughout. The dimensions of the instrument appear to have been as follows.⁶ The depth of the sound-chest was half of the width, and the widest part was at the beating-place of the plectrum or fingers, which was 6.75 cm. (= 3 aṣābi') from the bridge-tailpiece (mushi). We also get a rough idea of the size of the lute because this beating-place was at the tenth part of the strings. This means that the distance from the nut (anf) to the bridge-tailpiece (mushi) was 75.25 cm. In the four-stringed lute of Al-Kindī, the two lower strings, the bamm (A) and mathlath (D), were made of

¹ Leyden MS., Cod. 561, Warn., fol. 59, v.

² Al-Maqqaii, op. cit., ii, 118-19. The fifth string appears to have been adopted in the East just prior to the year 850, as would appear from a story in the Kitāb al-aghānī (v, 53). See also my Historical Facts for the Arabian Musical Influence, p. 252.

⁸ See my History of Arabian Music, p. 70.

⁴ See my Historical Facts, p. 240 at seq.

⁵ Al-Maqqui, Moh. Dyn., ii, 118-19. Cf. Analectes, ii, 86-7.

Berlin MS., No. 5530 (Ahlwardt), fol. 25. There is a hiatus in the MS., which makes the sense doubtful.

gut, and were of four and three strands (tabaqāt) respectively, whilst the higher strings, the mathrā (G) and zīr (e), were made of silk, and were of two strands and one strand respectively. It was realized, says Al-Kindī, that for the higher strings, which required a greater tension, silk stood the strain better, and also gave a better tone.

The Ikhwan al-Ṣafā' (tenth century) say that the length of the lute should be half as much again as its width, whilst its depth should be half of its width, and the neck one-quarter of the length. Its boards (alwāh) 2 should be made of thin and light wood only, whilst the belly (wajh) should also be of thin, hard, light wood. The "Brethren" say that the four-stringed lute should have all its strings made of silk, and that they should be made of sixty-four, forty-eight, thirty-six, and twenty-seven threads (tāqa) respectively, from the bamm to the zīr.

Such was the instrument that became the parent of the European lute, an instrument with a separate neck, which was "invented" at the Baghdad court of the 'Abbasids. Amongst Persian authors, however, we still find the term barbat used for the new lute, and even among Arabic authors of Persian training, such as Ibn Sīnā, but that was due to the fact that the word barbat like the word 'ūd was generic for all types of the lute.

The old pear-shaped barbat type of lute, without a definite neck, still continued to be used, and we see it side by side with the 'ūd in the Cantigas de Santa Maria. Whether it was still known in Spain by the name barbat we do not know. Miss Schlesinger says that the name barbat was used by the Moors of Spain for one of their instruments in the fourteenth century, but the authority that she quotes (at second or

¹ See ante, p. 50.

² The narrow strips of board that compose the back of the lute are referred to here.

² Cf. Riaño, Notes on Early Spanish Music, p. 114, for the 'ad, and p. 115 for the barbat or mizhar.

third hand) is the Kitüb al-imtä' wa'l-intifä', and the author is not dealing only with contemporary musical instruments.

THE REBEO

"The Arabs declare," says Miss Schlesinger, "that it was from the Persians they obtained the rabāb, and probably the fiddle-bow at the same time, but this is not stated, yet the Arab name for the bow is derived from the Persian." ² This statement is repeated in her article "Rebab" in the Encyclopaedia Britannica, where we are further informed that the word used by the Arabs for "bow" is kamān. The authority for these statements is not given in either of these cases, but, again, it would seem that Engel has been the source.

I am not aware that the Arabs declare that they obtained the rabāb and bow from the Persians. The earliest authority to mention the instrument in connection with Persia is Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad al-Khwārizmī (fl. 976-97), who says: "The rabāb is well-known to the people of Persia and Khurāsān." Ile was writing in the land of the Sāmānids. His contemporaries Al-Fārābī (d. 950) and the Ikhwān al-Ṣafā' (tenth century), also show us that the instrument was "well-known" in Syria and Mesopotamia.

Legend among Islāmic peoples says that the rabāb was played before Solomon, whilst tradition has it that the instrument was known to the Arabs in pre-Islamic times.8

In point of fact, her authority is given as a book entitled, Enumeration of Arab Musical Instruments, xiv, c, which so far as the present writer is aware, has no existence under this title. See my Historical Facts for the Arabian Musical Influence, pp. 336-7.

² Precursors of the Violin Family, 398.

⁹ xxii, 948.

^{*} Engol, op. oit., 03. Researches into the Early History of the Violin Family, 13.

⁵ Mafātīh al-'ulūm, 237. Cf. Clement Huart's article in Lavignac's Bucy. de la Musique, p. 3071. Ribera, op. cit., 51.

Leyden MS., Or. 651, fol. 80.

⁷ Bombay odit., i, 02, 97.

⁸ Evliyā Chelebī, Travels, i, ii, 226, 234.

This is borne out by another authority which cites Al-Khalīl (d. 791) as saying that "the ancient Arabs sang their poems to its [the rabāb's] voice". The way in which the instrument is mentioned in the Risāla fī faḍl 'ilm al-mūsīqī by Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad al-Kanjī would seem to show that the rabāb was looked upon as an Arabian instrument. The tradition in the Maghrib is that it was invented by an Arab during his captivity among the Christians.

Some writers favour a Persian origin of the rabāb on the ground that the name itself is derived from the Persian word rawāwa.⁴ What the Persian lexicographers say is that the word rawāwa is another form of rubāb, a Persian lute.⁵ Rawāwa is said to be made up of two Persian words, but this etymology looks quite factitious, and is probably quite modern. The term rawāwa as the name of a lute does not appear to be used in any Persian work on music. At any rate, a writer like Al-Jawālīqī, who specialized in words of foreign extraction, does not notice rabāb as an Arabicized word.

It would seem, however, that the ordinary Arabic root rabba (ج), which means "to collect, arrange, assemble together", is just as likely to be the parent word, because it was the application of the bow to a stringed instrument that "collected, arranged, assembled together" a number of short notes into one long note, a point which accords with the terminology of the Arab theorists. The rabāb was not, therefore, strictly speaking, an instrument of a particular shape or construction, but was essentially an "instrument played with a bow", in much the same way as the Persian kamāncha was, except that the latter bore this fact more clearly stamped in its name. It was the application of the bow

¹ Muth MS. The author's,

² Borlin MS. (Ahlwardt), 5527, fol. 47, v.

^a Delphin et Guin, Notes sur la poesie et la musique arabe, 50.

⁴ Engel, Researches, etc., 12. Curt Sachs, Reallexikon, s.v.

Bahār-i 'ajam and Burhān-i qāţi'.

that caused the flat-chested guitar, the boat-shaped lute, and the pear-shaped lute to be named the rabāb.

The bow evidently came from the East, but the Arabs do not acknowledge that they borrowed it from the Persians, and Miss Schlesinger's reason for making the suggestion (adopted from Engel or his copyists) is of little value because the Persian word for bow which is kamān, is not used by the Arabs. The Arabic word gaus has always sufficed for their needs in reference to the fiddle-bow. On the other hand, the Persians borrowed from the Arabs their terms zakhma and midrāb for the plectrum, and have even used them for the fiddle-bow.

Since the Byzantines had a bowed instrument in the eighthninth century, we may conclude that the Arabs had it also, and perhaps even earlier. Fetis informs us in his Antoine Stradivari (1856) that a bow with a fixed nut may be seen among the ornaments decorating a collection of poems in an Arabic MS. at Vienna dating from the time of the first khalifs. Since Al-Fārābī mentions the rabāb it might be argued that the Arabs possessed the bow in the tenth century, but the late Dr. Land pointed out, this would be a false assumption, because, he said, we have no contemporary evidence of the bow. Miss Schlesinger also says that Al-Fārābī does not mention the bow.

It is quite true that Al-Fārābī does not mention the bow in the chapter on the rabāb in his Kitāb al-mūsīqī. That is probably due to the fact that he was more concerned with what notes were produced on the instrument than with how they were produced. For the same reason we are not told about the plectrum among the plucked stringed instruments

¹L'Arte (1896), i, 24. Miss Sohlesinger's earlier example from the paintings at Baouīt, is doubtful.

² Fétis, Mist. Gén. de la Musique, ii, 144.

³ Land, Recherches, 55.

^{*} Enc. Brit., xxii, 948. See also E. Heron-Allen's Violin-Making (1885), p. 41, and Grove's Dictionary of Music (2nd ed.), v, 289.

⁵ Al-Fārābī does not write rabāba as Miss Schlesinger says.

or the reed in the wood-wind. Yet, in spite of this we have "contemporary evidence of the bow", and it is to be found in Al-Fārābī, although the passage appears to have escaped notice.

The testimony of the Ikhwan al-Ṣafā' (tenth century) also appears to be worthy of attention. They do not actually mention the bow, but its use is implied nevertheless. In faşl 2 of their risāla on music these savants deal with the theory of sound. On the quantitative side, sounds are described under two headings- disjunct (munfaşil) and conjunct (muttaşil). In musical instruments it is shown that disjunct sounds are to be found in the short notes produced by stringed instruments, such as the 'ād, and by percussion instruments such as the qadīb (wand). "As for conjunct sounds" say the Brethren, "they are like the sounds of mizmār, nāy, rabāb, dūlāb, and nā'ūr." Needless to say, it

¹ Kosegarton, Lib. Cant., 77.

² This may also be the parent of the English word "jar" (a tremulous vibration).

³ See my Arabic Musical MSS, in the Rodleian Library, p. 5.

Bombay od, i, 91-2. All these instruments are written in the plural except the rabab. The Cairo (A.n. 1306) text, and that of Dietoriei (Die Abhand. der Ichwan es-Safa) as well as the latter's Propaedeutik der Araber, give dabdab in the place of rabab. The dabdab was a drum, and is clearly a copyist's error. Rabab is given in the Bombay text, and in the two Bodleian MSS.

The terms dulab and na'ur are given to a "water wheel", but it is not improbable that they were also the names of musical instruments. The dulab of Ibn Gharbi was a "hurdy-gurdy".

was the bow on the strings of the rabab that produced this conjunct sound.

Ibn Sīnā (d. 1037) is even more definite on this question. In his great work the <u>Shifā</u>, after dealing with instruments of the lute type such as the <u>barbat</u>, of the psaltery type (?) such as the <u>shahrādh</u>, and of the harp type such as the <u>sanj</u> (= jank), he then proceeds to deal with instruments "possessed of strings and frets which are not beaten upon, but are drawn upon like the rabāb ".1 Again, the verb jarra unmistakably implies the bow.

The Zaila (d. 1048) describes two kinds of sound-producing musical instruments. (1) "Those that are sounded by a beating (qar') . . . and whose notes are cut off with the cessation of the [vibration caused by the] beating like the 'ūd and the şanj and what resembles them." (2) "Those from which the sound . . . is prolonged (muntadd) and is conjunct (muttașil), like the nāy, surnāy, and rabāb." That it was the bow that effected this "prolonged sound" in the rabāb we know from a statement of his elsewhere where he says that the rabāb is played by being drawn upon.

These quotations prove the existence of the bow with the Arabs in the tenth and eleventh centuries, although they must have had it much earlier, and they dispose of Hugo Riemann's contention that the Orientals make no mention of bowed instruments prior to the fourteenth century.

The late Dr. J. P. N. Land regretted that the Leyden copy of the Persian treatise on music entitled the Kanz al-tuhaf did not contain a design of the rabāb, although the instrument was fully described. Yet other copies of this work contain a design, and no bow is shown with the instrument, although in the design of the ghishak, a kind of kamāncha, the bow is delineated side by side with the instrument. The reason

¹ India Offico MS., 1811, fol. 173.

² Brit. Mus. MS, Or. 2361, fol 235, v.

³ Ibid, fol 235.

¹ Land, Recherches . . , 55.

⁵ B116. Mus. MS., Ot. 2361, fol. 262.

for the omission is that the instrument described is the rubāb, a species of lute, and not the rubāb. It was a lute in the fourteenth century, and such it still remains. Indeed, its structure has scarcely altered during the centuries.²

Concerning the history of the rabāb in Spain Miss Schlesinger says: "The Arab scholar Al-Shaqundī, who flourished in Spain about A.D. 1200, states that the rabāb had been known for centuries in Spain, but was not mentioned on account of its want of artistic merit." No source for this statement is given, but again it would seem to have been derived from Engel, or his copyists, who is misquoted. All that we possess of the writings of Al-Shaqundī (d. 1231) is contained in the Nafh al-tāb of Al-Maqqarī (d. 1632) and here only the word rabāb is mentioned in a list of musical instruments.

Whilst Miss Schlesinger acknowledges the antiquity of both the boat-shaped and the pear-shaped rabāb, she says that we have no proof of the antiquity of the flat-chested instrument, known nowadays as the rabāb al-shā'ir. "No evidence," she says, "has yet been brought forward that the rabāb al-shā'ir was in use among the Arabs who conquered Spain in the eighth century; if the instrument was indeed ever introduced into Spain, it has left no trace." "

The evidence of the frescoes of Quanir 'Amra (eighth century)

5%

¹ Ibid., fol. 202, v. See Frontispicee.

² Advielle, La Musique chez les Persans en 1885, p. 13 and plate. Uspensky, Klassicheskaya Muzyka Uzbekov ("Sovietsky Uzbekistan", Tashkent, 1927), p. 306. Fitrat, Uzbik qilässiq müsiqüsi (Tashkent, 1927), p. 42.

⁹ Ency. Brit., xxii, 048.

^{*} Descr. Cat. . . . South Kensington Museum, 62. Engol says: "Al-Shaquadi, who lived in Spain about A.D. 1200, montions the rabab, which may have been in use for conturies without having been thought worthy of notice, on account of its rudeness." For other misquotations see E. Heron-Allen's Violin-Making (1885), p. 41, and Grove's Dictionary of Music (2nd od.), v, 289.

⁵ Al-Maqqari, Moh. Dyn., i, 365-6.

⁵ Ency. Brit., loc. cit.

[†] Precursors of the Violin Family, 308.

⁸ Ency. Brit., loc. oit.

is sufficient proof that the Arabs of Umayyad days knew of a flat-chested instrument, although it was not bowed in this instance. ¹ E. W. Lane was of opinion ² that the ancient rabāb was "probably similar" to the modern rabāb al-shā'ir depicted in his Modern Egyptians, which is a flat-chested instrument.³ Wallaschek also took the view that the original shape of the rabab was that of a guitar.4 We know from Ibn Ghaibí (d. 1435) that the badāwī Arabs used this rectangular flat-chested instrument. It had a sound-chest (qasa), he says, like the "mould of a brick", with a skin belly and back, and one horse-hair string. This murabba' (= "square") was still known to the Arabs in the eighteenth century by this very name, and it was a bowed instrument identical with the rabāb al-shā'ir. The rabāb with some of the badāwī Arabs, as well as with some of the townsmen, was still played guitarwise, i.e. without a bow, in the nineteenth century.7 Lastly, the original name for the guitar in Arabic is said to be murabba', and the latter was claimed to be a national instrument. This is stated by M. Soriano-Fuortes in his Música Arabe-Española on the authority of Al-Shalāhī (date, 1301).8

Miss Schlosinger says that "Al-Färābī... distinctly states that the rabāb was also known as the lyra". I cannot recall that the great Arabic theorist has anywhere used the words

¹ Kuşejr 'Amra, Vionna, 1907, pl. xxxiv. (Published by Kais. Akad. der Wiss.)

^a Lano, Lex., s.v. ربّ.

a Lane, Modern Egyptians (5th ed.), 864.

⁴ Primitive Music (1893), 130.

⁸ Bodleian MS., No. 1842, fol. 78, v.

⁵ Niebuhr, Voyage en Arabie (1776). Laborde, op. oit., i, 381.

⁷ Crichton, History of Arabia, ii, 380. Burckhardt, Bedouins and Wahabys, and Travels in Arabia, i, 398. Burton, Personal Narrative . . . , iii, 76. Cf. Doughty, Arabia Deserta, i, 41, 98, 263, 264.

Barcelona (1853), p. 54. The MS. of Al-Shalāhī (= Kitāb al-imtā' wa'l-intifā', Madrid MS., No. 603), does not appear to wholly confirm this, or at least not fol. 15, which deals with the kaithār. I might also mention that Al-Shalāhī does not give any of the forms rabel, arrabel, or arrabil, as Miss Schlosinger says. (Ency. Brit., xxii, 947.)

^b Ency. Brit., xxii, 950.

by a. Kosegarten, in translating passages from Al-Fārābī's Kitāb al-mūsīqī, has certainly translated the word rabāb by byra. Curiously enough, an interesting passage occurs in Al-Mas'ūdī (d. ca. 956), taken from Ibn Khurdādhbih (d. 912), which throws a side-light on the point. Speaking of the musical instruments of the Byzantines, he says: "And to them is the $l\bar{u}r\bar{a}$ [= $\lambda \delta \rho a$], and it is the rabāb, and to it are five strings." Having the Carrand casket before us, it might be reasonably assumed that the favoured type of rabāb at the time of Ibn Khurdādhbih was the pear-shaped instrument. On the other hand, Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad al-Khwārazmī (fl. 976-97) says that in Greek the word for şanj (harp) is $l\bar{u}r$.

That the rabāb was "mentioned" by writers in Spain before the time of Al-Shaqundī (d. 1231), and that it had "artistic" ment", is evident from the poets Abū Bakr Yaḥyā ibn Hudhail (d. 995), Ibn Hazm (d. 1064), and others.

That the flat-chested rabāb left its trace in Spain, we have the testimony of the altar piece from the Cistercian monastery of Nuestra St. de Piedra in Aragon (fourteenth century). Indeed, the vihuela de arco of Juan Ruiz (fourteenth century) was probably the eval flat-chested instrument depicted in the Cantigas de Santa Maria (thirteenth century). In the thirteenth century Vocabulista in Arabico we have the word rabāb equated with viella, which leads one to suspect that the author must surely have had the flat-chested instrument in

¹ Kosegarten, Lib. Cant., 45, 105.

² Al-Mas'ādī, op. cit., viii.

³ See my Historical Facts . . ., 20. The modern Grooks still call their pear-shaped rebee a lyra.

⁴ Or luia. Mafatth al-'ulum, 236.

⁵ Madrid MS., No. 603, fol. 15.

⁶ Muhammad ibn Ismā'il, Safinat al-mulk, 473.

⁷ Riaño, op. cit., 128. Ribera, La Música de las Cantigas, pl., Angol No. 2.

B Juan Ruiz, Libro de Buen amor (Edit. Ducamin), vorso, 1254.

Riano, op. cit., 114. Ribera, op. cit., fig. ii.

¹⁰ Edited by Schiaparolli.

mind. In the earlier Glossarium Launo Arabicum (eleventh century), the rabāb is called the lyra dicta.

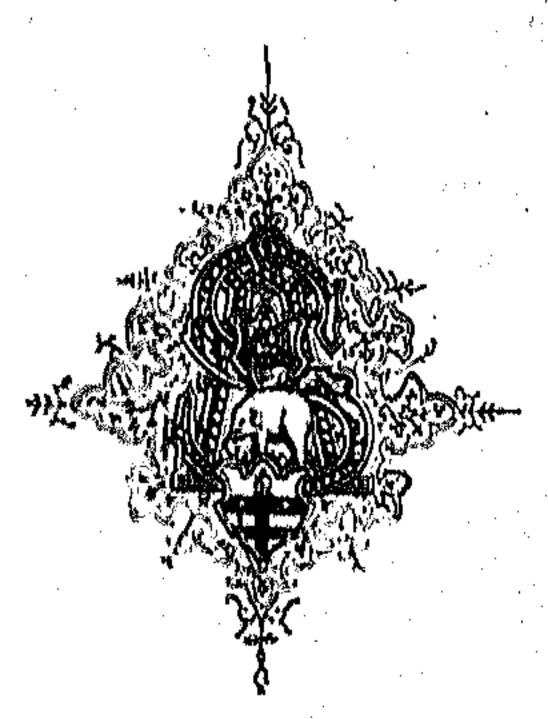
From the foregoing evidence that has been adduced, it would appear that we have good reasons for acknowledging the antiquity of the flat-chested instrument with the Arabs, and its existence with them in Spain, which would give it a place in the ancestry of the modern guitar and violin.

Ledited by Seybold. What was the Mediaeval baldosa, baudosa, baudoise, baudoise, baudoise? Several conjectures have been made. Could it have been a rectangular flat-chested instrument? In Spanish, "a square brick or tile" is called a baldosa. The murabba' (rectangular flat-chested instrument of the Arabs) described by Ibn (thatbi, had a sound-chest like the "mould of a brick".



Notes

RTEPHER AUSTIN AND BONS, LIMITED



PRINTERS, HERTFORD

| • | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |