A COMPARATIVE PERFORMANCE SEMIOTICS OF ORIN KETE AND ORIN AGBÈ AMONG THE ÌBÀRÀPÁ AND ÒKÈ-ÒGÙN PEOPLE OF YORÙBÁ, NIGERIA

BY

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CERTIFICATION

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my parents; my father, late Chief **KÍARÍBÈÉ DÚRÓWOJÚ** ÀLÀDÉ:

Kíaríbèé omo Òkètòbí Àlàdé omo Òkétàwè Dúrówojú omo Adítán-o-tó-memu Àlàdé èló omo Ìyá Òrísà Àlàdé omo Aráowé Aráowé mòjé ànónó Aráowé mòjé àso Mòjé sàn-án omo Arìnmásìnà

Also to my late dear mother, SAFURAT ÌYÁBÒDÉ ÀBÍKÉ KÍARÍBÈÉ:

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Eni tá a şe lóore

Tí kò bá dúpé

And proves to be ungrateful

Bí olóṣà kó ni lérù kó

Such a person is not just a thief

His/she is more than a thief

Kò sóhun tó dùnnìyàn

Nothing pains one than

Tó ká seni lóore àìdúpé Showing ungratefulness to the kindness

one is offered

Eni a se lóore tó dúpé It is a grateful person

Ló jé ká lékún nínú oore síse That makes one to increase in being kind

to others

In the name of the Almighty ALLAH, the most Gracious and Merciful, I give all praise and adoration to the Owner and the Sustainer of the Universe. Allah, thank you for everything you have blessed me with.

Bí Baàsè ò sè

If a chef does not cook

Kí ni Baàlá ì bá lá

What would a foodie consume

Bí abíni ò bíni sáyé

If parents do not give birth

Akóni ò ríni kó

What would a teacher teach

Bákóni ò kóni lógbón

If a tutor does not teach a child

Bínibíni ò rérè eni jé
Parents would gain nothing from bearing a child
Eni kóni là bá kí
It is the tutor that deserves acknowledgement
Eni kóni là bá lù lógo enu
It is the tutor that deserves appreciation

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ABSTRACT

Orin kete and Orin agbè are Yorùbá oral poetic forms predominantly performed among the Ìbàràpá and Òkè-Ògùn people of Òyó State, South-West Nigeria. Previous studies on Yorùbá oral poetry have focused largely on poetic types, such as, èṣà and ìjálá; with little attention devoted to Orin agbè and Orin kete. This study was, therefore, designed to investigate the comparative performance semiotic features of Orin kete and Orin agbè, with a view to establishing their socio-cultural relevance and factors responsible for their sustainability.

Yuri Lotman's Cultural Semiotics, complemented by Richard Schechner's Performance Theory and Steven Totosy de Zepetnek's Comparative Approach, was adopted as the framework. The ethnographic design was employed. Five performances of Orin kete and three performances of Orin agbè were collected from Igbó Orà in Ìbàràpá; while one performance of Orin agbè was collected from each of Ìmia and Ilùà in Òkè-Ògùn. These communities are where the performance of the genres are active. Audio-visual data were recorded during the performances. Key informant interviews were conducted with four respondents, purposively selected for being leaders in each of the performance groups. A thirty-item questionnaire on the relevance and sustainability of Orin kete and Orin agbè, were administered to 100 respondents, 51 members and 49 non-members of the performance groups. The data were subjected to literary and descriptive analyses.

Both genres feature in secular performance contexts but Orin kete is primarily performed in religious contexts. The two genres maintain a tripartite performance structure of prelude, body and finale. The prelude sub-divided into isèlù, ibà, iwúre and ifira-eni-hàn. Ìsèlù is, however, not realised in Orin kete. Both genres are not gender-selective, as both attract female and male performers as vocalists, instrumentalists and dancers. Male youthful acrobats are, however, found only in Orin agbè performances. The costumes are either formal or informal. Formal white constumes are used in Orin kete strictly during religious performances, while in Orin agbè, a special uniform is worn for formal occassions. Musical instruments in Orin kete consist of membranophones and idiophones, while only idiophones are found in Orin agbè. Ìlù/agbè jíjá, ìdòbálè/ìyíkàá, yopáyosè/eléyoèyo, shoulder twisting and dancing, while playing musical instruments are dance styles observed in both genres. However, while open and close dance style is peculiar to Orin kete, fiwájújó-fèvìnjó is restricted to Orin agbè. Olóbìírípobírí, lifting with brooms, lifting with leaves and àlòsílò are prominent acrobatic displays in Orin agbè. The poetic exploration of qualisign, sinsign, legisign, index, symbol, dicent and nonsensical codes are employed in the signification of poetic harmony, dance skills, omolúàbí attributes and women's rights in both genres. Orin kete performs socioreligious functions, while Orin agbè performs only social functions. Both genres are deployed for curbing societal anomalies. Religious status (80%), family sense of belonging (72%) and kinship affiliation (72%) were identified as factors responsible for the sustainability of both genres.

Among the Ibarapa and Oke ogun people, the performance semiotic features of Orin kete are socio-religious, while those of Orin agbè are basically socially oriented.

Keywords: Orin kete, Orin agbè, performance semiotics features, responsorial forms,

socio-religious functions

Word count: 492

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CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

1.1 **Background to the study**

Ìbàràpá and Òkè Ògùn people of Òyó have a long history of attachment to Old Òyó and some other ancient cities like Ifè, Ìbàdàn, Abéòkútà and Ìlorin among others. Many of the Ìbàràpá and Òkè Ògùn settlements evolved after the collapse of the Old Òyó Empire while some had been in existence before its collapse. This is evident in Johnson's (1921) account of the story of Aláàfin Àjàká who succeeded Sàngó, beheaded one of his warlords (Eléńre) for disobeying his order as regards the continual execution of a particular war. Eléńre's head flew off, but instead of falling, stuck to Ajùwon's hand and mysteriously prevented him from using the hand to eat. All herbalists in the kingdom were summoned to rescue the king from Eléńre's head but they could not salvage the situation. Asawo, the founder of Ayétè, one of the seven towns in Ìbàràpá, after which the kingship title of the town was named, arrived to try his best. He began to praise Elénre instead of abusing him like the previously invited herbalists. As a result, Elénre's head fell off the king's hand and the case was settled. This account according to Johnson occurred before the collapse of the Old Oyó Empire (Oyó Ajàká). This is an indication that some towns in Ìbàràpá and Òkè Ògùn were in existence during the period of Old Òyó Empire. Similarly, Johnson (1921) accounts that during the reign of Onígbógi, the king of Tapa (Nupe) besieged Oyó and completely got its control. Onígbógi fled to Gbere, an Ìbàrìbá town. When the situation in Gbere was also getting tense, Ìràwò, a Yorùbá town, was also raided by Ìbàrìbá armies. Subsequently, Òfinràn (a young prince then) took Oyó people out of the land. He assembled his people at Kuşu where he finally died.

Johnson (1921) further explains that Òfinràn was succeeded by his son, Egungunojú, who proposed to take his corpse to Ìgbòho, a town to be founded. On their way, the cord with which the corpse was tied broke and another one was made. The place where this occurred was where the Ṣakí palace was built. Egungunojú proceeded to build Ìgbòho where Òfinràn was buried. Ọrọnpọto, Ajíbóyèdé and Abíípa were the other three kings who reigned at Ìgbòho. Abíípa took Ọyọ people out of the town.

Accounts related to these were also discussed in Adédèjì (1969) and Ògúndèjì (1992) in their attempts to reveal the origin of Yorùbá masquerade theatre. Three Òkè Ògùn towns are mentioned in the history revealed above; Ìràwò, Ṣakí and Ìgbòho. These historical facts are recounted to show that Òkè Ògun and Ìbàràpá people are Òyó Yorùbá and many towns in the area have a long history like Òyó town herself.

Orin kete is a Yorùbá oral poetry that is found among Ìbàràpá (Àlàbá, 1985), Òkè Ògùn and Yewa people of Yorùbá. It is a religious poetry attributed to Ọbàtálá, Aláráagbó, Ìbejì and some other children related Yorùbá deities. The poetry is named after the musical instrument (kete), a calabash pot drum, played to it. Owólabí (1974) and Àlàbá (1985) mention that orin kete as one of Yorùbá oral poetry is used in social entertainment. Owólabí's (1974) and Àlàbá's (1985) opinions about this social function of orin kete are apt. However, the social function of the genre is not its primary function. Our interaction with the performers of the genre shows that the song is a religious song attributed to the aforementioned deities but now performed outside the religious settings. Orin kete is also performed at secular and social programmes like naming ceremony, wedding ceremony, house-warming events, and political gatherings among others. Based on this, the religious function is the background/primary function of orin kete while the secular and social functions are its secondary/applied function.

Forethermore, *orin agbè* is a poetic genre among the Yorùbá people of Òyó. It is a secular song. Like *orin kete*, the genre is also named after a musical instrument, *agbè* (gourd) played to it. Two major existing pieces of research on *orin agbè* are Ògúndèjì (1979) and Àlàbá (1985). Although Ògúndèjì (1979) is a long essay, no analytical theory is used as a base for its analysis; yet the study is one of the foremost works on *orin agbè*. Àlàbá (1985) is the only existing doctoral thesis on *orin agbè*. Therefore, these extant studies are relevant to the present study. Both scholars claim that *orin agbè* is a secular song. Àlàbá (1985) argues that the song emanated from Old Òyó. It is long-dated to the reign of Ṣàngó and a warlord, Gbòn-ńkáà who was said to have made the song popular. The song, according to Àlàbá (1985), emanated from warfare; it is performed as a palace poem and later extended to other social gatherings. *Okòó Ewì Alohùn* (Òpádòtun, 2002) is a textbook on Yorùbá oral poetry. *Orin agbè* is recognised in the work as one of Yorùbá oral poetry among Yorùbá people of Òyó. Thus, Òpádòtun's (2002) position on *orin agbè* is not contrary to those of Ògúndèjì (1979) and Àlàbá (1985).

There are similarities between these two poetic genres. This is even evident from their nomenclatures. This study investigates points of convergence and divergence of these two oral poetry using semiotics. According to Riffatarre (1978) and Ògúndèjì (1988), literary text (i.e. poetry), is a system and network of codes. Olátéjú (1998) also shows that the language of literary discourse is optional, examined, non-casual and critical. Riffaterre (1978) further reveals that the language of poetry is quite different from the ordinary and conversational language. Olátéjú (1998) also shares this view. As a result of high usage of codefication in poetic genre, semiotics is therefore employed in this study to analyse and decode different semantic implications in the performance of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Yorùbá language is not only endangered through its speakers' attitudes in favour of colonial languages, but the endangerment also has ripple effects on Yorùbá culture, literature and world view in general. Balogun (2013) observes this when saying that in the specific case of the Yorùbá language, the behaviours of native speakers towards the language is one of the major factors accountable for its endangerment. Since language cannot thrive outside its cultural context, many cultural values, including Yorùbá oral poetry, have gone into extinction. Many have no performers again; the contents of many Yorùbá poetry have been forgotten while many have merged with other genres, and many have transformed into a new poetic genre. For instance, ekún ìyàwó (Yorùbá nuptial poem) is rarely practised nowadays. Western/Islamic civilisation and religion have affected the performance of the poetic genre as Christian, Islamic and court marriages are preferred to the purely traditional marriage system, where chanting of nuptial poems is used. Opádotún (2002) avers that the performance of rárà Eşù (Eşù praise poetic genre) is no more to be found since many of its believers do not want to be identified with the deity. Etiyeri (Satirical masquerade song) and ògbérè (a dirge chant among Yorùbá Òyó) performances are also rare. Even some modern Yorùbá poems which came into existence as a result of Islamic and Christianity contacts in Yorùbáland are affected. This is in the case of orin wéré and orin fújì. The metamorphosis of orin wéré into orin fújì cannot be underestimated. Nowadays, it is hard to identify live performers of Yorùbá Islamic influenced oral poetry like *orin àwúrèbe* and *orin sákárà*. It is expected that a language or a culture must, as a matter of necessity, change over time. To remain stagnant means cultural death. So, any cultural change that could result in a loss or degradation of Yorùbá cultural values must be arrested and addressed.

According to Hamlet (2011), oral tradition is a body of knowledge through which culture is transmitted. The people's cultural ethics, values, histories and religions were transmitted from the old generation to the new generation by elderly individuals who were known to be excellent in storytelling and societal norms. Some of them are oral poets, storytellers, palace poets, priests, teachers, and soothsayers, among others. Many of the values which they display are solutions to societal problems. The degradation of these values has affected societal morals, leading to different social vices like bribery, corruption, suicide, armed robbery, religious terrorism, sexual abuse, human trafficking, human ritual and other forms of immorality prevalent in Yorùbá modern society. Given this, this study becomes imperative as it examines how lessons from Yorùbá oral poetry can address the moral decadence and cultural degradation observed in the contemporary Yorùbá world. In particular, the study, as well, investigates how *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are used as means of implementing orderliness in society.

History forms part of oral poetry. Many historical facts are revealed through the use of oral poetry. *Orin kete* and *orin agbè*, as implied above, are found among the Yorùbá people of Òyó, which include Ìbàràpá and Òkè Ògùn. *Orin kete* could also be found among Yorùbá people of Yewa. There are some common features of Òyó Yorùbá in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* that many people do not pay attention to. In the course of applying semiotics, these features will be revealed as insight to explain the socio-cultural relevance of the poetic types under study.

There are styles and techniques in the performance of Yorùbá oral poetry in general. These styles and techniques are mainly known to the performers while the audience may also know little about them. Many of these styles and techniques of performance signify different things. Information could be best and fully understood if only all codes through which information is passed are decoded and understood. As pointed out earlier, the literary text is usually a network of codes and even different levels of sub-codes are possible in literature (Eco, 1976; Ògúndèjì, 1988). The language of poetry differs from everyday language because poetry employs words excluded from common usage and has its special grammar (Riffaterre, 1978). It is evident that codifications of different types exist in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. Hence, these codifications need critical elucidation in order to explain in detail the messages the poems pass across to the audience. This will no doubt assist in exploring the meaning and the beauty of the poetic renditions under the study.

In terms of their ensembles, *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are closely related. Àlàbá (1985) lists *orin kete* among other Yorùbá poetic types to which *orin agbè* could be compared. The apparent ground for comparing *orin kete* and *orin agbè* lies in the similarity of the musical instruments after which each of the genres is named, coupled with the fact that they are both performed within the same locality. As suggested by Àlàbá, one would like to explore more other interconnections between these oral poetic types. The texts, themes, performers and performances, musical ensembles, tonal manipulation and some other features of both genres need to be compared.

Performances of many Yorùbá oral poetic types are no more regular as in the past and some have gone into extinction due to the impact of modern religion and civilisation. An example is ekún ìyàwó (nuptial poem) and orin etíyerí (satirical masquerade song). However, despite the negative attitudes of some Yorùbá people, especially the elite and those who have embraced Christianity and Islam, to the Yorùbá traditional culture and customs, orin kete and orin agbè still survive. Therefore, this study investigates the survival patterns and strategies of orin kete and orin agbè in coping with external influences. Although Ògúndèjì (1979) and Àlàbá (1985) have investigated orin agbè which serve as documentation of this oral poetry, orin kete has little or no documentation. All that exists on it, to the best of our knowledge are references and light comments. Based on this, the genre needs proper documentation to protect against its possible total extinction. However, there are existing research works on orin agbè but Àlàbá (1985) which happened to be the major study on the genre posits that orin agbè has multi-modal features, as a result, the genre needs further investigation for more understanding. All these are problems this current study is geared toward solving.

1.3 Aim and objectives of the study

Deriving from the last subsection, this study aims to analyse a comprarative performance of semiotic of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. To make this aim a reality, the specific objectives are listed below:

- i. Compare *orin kete* and *orin agbè* from the perspective of their contents, structures, styles of performance, language use, rhythm, musical instruments, costumes, ritual aspects, geographical distributions, socio-cultural relevance, and other features related to these oral poetic types.
- ii. Analyse the semiotic elements in the performance of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*.

- iii. Discuss the factors responsible for the sustainability of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*.
- iv. Discuss how the sustainability of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* could be upheld.

1.4 Research questions

Based on the above-identified objectives, this research answers the following questions:

- i. How related are *orin kete* and *orin agbè* from the perspective of their contents, structures, styles of performance, language use, rhythm, musical instruments, costumes, ritual aspects, geographical distributions and socio-cultural relevance?
- ii. What are the semiotic elements in the performance of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* and what meanings do they generate?
- iii. What are the factors responsible for the sustainability of *orin kete*?
- iv. How can the sustainability of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* be upheld?

1.5 Significance of the study

The study analyses the performance semiotics of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. Using semiotics as theoretical framework, many signs and significations in the performances of the poetic types under study are identified and analysed from a comparative perspective. On the other hand, this study is an update on Ògúndèjì's (1979) and Àlàbá's (1985) studies on *orin agbè*. It is a further study on *orin agbè* which Ògúndèjì (1979) and Àlàbá (1985) researched into some of its aspects. The work provides full documentation on *orin kete* which has not been able to get any serious academic attention before now.

This study is a new research perspective on Yorùbá oral poetry. Scholars like Yemitan (1963), Adébóyè (1966 and 1975), Olájubù (1970 and 1972), Olábíntán (1971) and Àjùwòn (1981) interrogate different Yorùbá oral poetic genres, one per a study. In another words, their selected poetic genres are investigated individually, and not comparatively. This study compares two independent Yorùbá oral poetry. This has helped to suggest into the field of Yorùbá literature a new method through which relatedness of Yorùba oral poetic genres can be a factor in grouping them into poetic families.

The research also shows how *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are useful as means of implementing orderliness in society. The research is a means of exposing the survival patterns of Yorùbá oral poetry.

1.6 Scope of the study

The geographical scope of Yorùbá land this study covers are Ìbàràpá and Òkè Ògùn in Òyó State. Data on *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are collected at Igbó-Ọrà while data on *orin agbè* are got from Igbó-Ọrà, Ìmia and Ilùà. The availability of the oral poetic types in these geographical areas is responsible for our choice.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 **Review of related literature**

In the first subsection, oral literature is discussed as a universal phenomenon. Further discussions on oral poetry in the Yorùbá cultural setting are carried out. Scholars' views on taxonomisation of Yorùbá oral poetry are critiqued. The characteristic features of Yorùbá oral poetry performance are discussed. The different stages, which Yorùbá oral poetry has passed through, in an attempt to examine its globalisation are also examined. Similarly, the historical and geographical description of Ìbàràpá and Òkè Ògùn people of Òyó State are elucidated. Lastly in this subsection, the extant works on *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are critically reviewed.

2.1.1 Oral literature as a universal phenomenon

Finnegan (1977) does not give a specific definition of oral poetry because of its heterogeneous nature. Instead, she describes what the concept "oral" means. Her description is even not specific because of the diversity of the concept of oralness. In summary, Finnegan (1977:17) states that what is most readily called oral must be so in its: "(1) composition, (2) mode of transmission, and (3), performance". She insists that some oral poetic types are oral in all these features while some are in just one or in two. Oral genres, according to Merolla (2016: 168) are the construction and expression of knowledge that is transmitted within communities through both "diffuse" and "professional" learning and teaching practices. The diffuse method of learning oral genre (literature) occurs through what he calls "immersion". This is when children and adults observe, listen to, and imitate peers and elders. The professional method includes the long term training provided by griot masters to apprentices. Afolábí (2000: 8) defines oral literature as "one of the most effective means of expressing intellectual, the physical, and spiritual experiences of man in its most natural form". According to Hamlet (2011), oral traditions are stories, old sayings, songs, proverbs, and other cultural products which are not in written form. These forms of culture are kept alive by being passed on in oral form from one generation of people to the next generation. These characteristics are found in all cultures throughout the world. Before the emergence of writing, human beings have been narrating and projecting what is found fascinating in their culture. Hence, oral literature has been in existence before written culture.

According to Joshua (2011), writing is the physical manifestation of spoken language. Joshua continues by saying that it is thought that human beings first used painting as a form of writing in 35,000 BCE. The evidence of this was the cave paintings from the time of the Cro-Magnon Man¹ (c. 50,000-30,000 BCE). The paintings appeared to have expressed the daily activities of their life. Joshua argues that the painting represented their language, because in some expressions, they tend to narrate stories like hunting expeditions. Written language, according to Joshua, emerged as a result of its invention in the land of Sumer, Southern Mesopotamia. This occurred in c. 3500 -3000 BCE and this form of early writing was referred to as cuneiform. It entailed making specific or unique marks in wet clay with a reed tool. After the Mesopotamia writing style, according to Joshua (2011), was the Egyptians (c.3150 BCE), this was followed by the Greek and the Romans' writings which came into existence around the 8the Century BC. The ancient Chinese (1200 BC) writing style came after that of the Roman. Writing could be said to be more advanced during the documentation of the Bible more than two thousand years ago. In this current world, many languages of the world have been reduced to writing. Writing has gone far beyond written documents in contemporary times. It has included digital representation forms of writing. As writing develops, literature alongside develops simultaneously. As a result of development in writing styles across the world, many oral literary forms of the world have been documented in written and digital forms. This step has changed the form of many oral literary forms to the extent that their oralities are either totally or almost lost. It is indubitable that many oral literary works have metamorphosed into the written form. The truth, however, remains that every piece of literature in the world started from its oral form. There is a lot of evidence in this regard. The two prominent ancient kinds of literature which have been reduced into writing in the ancient period were Greek literature; the Iliad and Odyssey.

Dué (2003) opines that Homeric poems were not only a traditional genre of Ancient Greece but it was also oral in nature. According to Dué, this was discovered by Milman Parry and his assistant Albert Lord in the 1930's when they went to Yugoslavia

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¹ According to Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2018, these people are prehistoric humans, they are Homo Sapiens dating from the Upper Paleolithic Period (c. 40,000 to 10,000 years ago) in Europe.

to research the oral epic tradition that remained in existence there. This is to show that orality is the foundational form of Greek literature even though the literacy culture was long dated in the land. Modern philosophy is based on Greek and Roman philosophy. References are made to Greece and Rome when knowledge in the contemporary world becomes an issue. What can be deduced from this is that even the Greek and Roman literatures on which many other literary and philosophical thoughts are based are said to be orally dictated before their documentation.

Janko (2009) expatiates that Homeric poems are orally dictated to writers by the collector who has taken his time to collect the poems from literary custodians. In his argument, he mentions that the explanation he does on 3,000 verses of the *Iliad* strengthens his view on the proof that *Iliad* and *Odyssey* are texts verbally or orally composed in performance but which were later written down through dictation. He explains further by saying:

As Lord rightly argued, the impetus to recording in writing is unlikely to come from an oral-traditional singer, but rather from someone else, a collector or patron. There was a collector or patron: no long poem was ever taken down at a noisy public festival like that of Apollo on Delos, and Homer depicts his ideal audience in the court of Alcinous and Arete. One influence on the person responsible for the recording must have been knowledge of the existence of written literature, which means the written epics of the Levant. That person also knew the alphabet as adapted from Phoenician to Greek (12).

If the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* occurred verbally before they were documented, then they are nothing but oral poetry. Ogúndèjì (1991) observes that oral poetry might be transcribed in text, performed on television, radio and dubbed on some other modern audiovisual/digital appliances. It should be noted that recording oral poetry through any form of recording mode mentioned above does not remove its orality. The mode of its original production and performance determines its orality. Similarly, the nature and characteristics of the genre are very important when considering its orality. There is no doubting the fact that every literature of every culture of the world has its starting point from the orality version. Janko (2009) affirms this when he notes that written literature grows from oral literature, and the concept of literacy as literature as far as style and

structure are concerned is shaped by oral literature, especially Homeric epics². In other words, oral literature serves as the foundation from which written literature was developed.

Oral literature was long recognised in the Arab world. This was before the Islamic and Arab literacy periods. Al-Mahrooqi and Al-Jahwary (2011) explains that long before the Islamic era, Arabs were well known for their oral literature and eloquence. Arab poetry and prose, according to her, have gone far and wide throughout the Arabian Peninsula, and even beyond. The popular Arab poetry includes epics that reveal tribal heroism, generosity, courage, pride and love. Al-Mahrooqi and Al-Jahwary (2011) maintains that poetry dominated the pre-Islamic literary scene and was very much respected. Prose literary types were performed in form of narrated stories and rhetoric speeches for entertaining and didactic purposes. She further states that literature was not strange to the Arab world. Instead, it was in oral form from one generation to another.

Finnegan (1970) admits that African people have both written and unwritten literary traditions. The written tradition, according to her, are well known but the latter (unwritten), are far less widely known and appreciated. She posits that a lot remains to be published and publicised both on earlier Arab and African unwritten literature. Finnegan clears the doubt about whether the African and Arab worlds have literature or not in her explanation. She maintains that people of the continents have oral and written literature, but little of their oral traditions have been reduced to writing. However, Finnegan (1970) was a report of the research the scholar has carried out prior to the date of the publication. The collection of her data was noted to have started in 1961. As a result, many oral African literary forms which had not been documented at the time Finnegan was collecting her data would have been documented by now.

Hamlet (2011) reveals that the culture of transmitting oral values is present in both American and African cultures. He is of the view that African American oral traditions were utilised for cultural and coping strategies. In this regard, oral tradition according to Hamlet is a vehicle through which cultural heritage is preserved.

If *Iliad* and *Odyssey* grew from oracy, and the Zulu panegyric ode could be compared with the famous epics of Homer, or the great Central Asian epic of the *Manas* which could have up to 250,000 lines as Finnegan (1977) mentioned, then the perception

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² This according to Jewsbury, L. (1992) are two major epic literature in Western civilization apart from ancient Israel writing. They were put into written by Homer, who supposedly lived around 850 BC. or 750 BC.

that suggests African people did not have literature before the advent of colonial enterprise is baseless. Such an opinion came from a myopic and biased perspective. Those who might have expressed such views have little knowledge about what literature itself is, and they were ignorant of African oral life experiences. Mbube (2017) notes that, though literature has its etymology tied to the scripted, it extends beyond writing. He opines that there is an interesting and long term historical pieces of evidence showing that the concept of literature is deeply rooted in orature or verbal arts. It is, therefore, apparent that even if the idea of literature in the Western culture suggests the written, that does not necessarily imply the absence of oral literature before written literature in Europe.

2.1.2 Oral poetry in Yorùbá socio-cultural setting

Oral poetry in the Yorùbá socio-cultural setting is a very important aspect of the life of the Yorùbá people. The reason is that its relevance is not restricted to aesthetic entertainment but extended to another aspect of their life. This is a result of the fact that art according to Ògúndèjì (2000), in Africa is not only for art's sake but for life's sake. Oral poetry in Yorùbá can be broadly categorised into two if we employ religious and secular yardsticks for its taxonomy. These are religious poetry and secular poetry. We need to mention here that some oral poems fall between the first and the second category. These are poems that could be used in religious practices and also in secular activities like entertainment, festivals and merriments. Mbube (2017) mentions that pre-literate societies were enriched by their different forms of oral traditions. Yorùbá people have many oral poetic types. Oral poetry in the Yorùbá socio-cultural setting is multidimensional. There is no aspect of Yorùbá people's life in which one oral poetry or the other is not related. As already mentioned above, one prominent aspect of the life of the Yorùbá people is their religion. The Yorùbá practise Òrìṣà religion and the religion is very pronounced in their everyday life (Ìdòwú, 1962). It percolates even in secular life. Many oral poetic types are related to one religion or the other. One such example is ese Ifá (Ifá divination poetry). Òrúnmìlà, also known as Ifá, is considered a principal divinity in Yorùbá religio-cultural setting and belief system (Elébuibon, 2004). He is the major custodian of Yorùbá wisdom and knowledge. He is in this wise called Akéréfinúsogbón (the small but filled with wisdom) and Akónilóràn-bí-ìyekan-eni (He who counsels like one's sibling of the same maternal). The Ifá literary corpus, according to Abímbólá (2015), contains a total of 256 chapters known as *Odù* in Yorùbá. These, according to Abímbólá, are divided into two, the major category (ojú odù) and the minor category (omo odù, àpólà or àmúlù odù). Ojú odù are sixteen in number while àmúlù odù are two hundred and forty. Each of these 256 odù Ifá contains hundred of ese (verses) or poems. Among other Yorùbá oral poems, ese Ifá stands out because of the divination purpose it serves. It is in ese Ifá that the nature of the Ifá client's problem is identified and discussed. Similarly, it prescribes possible solution to the client's problem.

Another example of religious poetry is èsà egúngún (egúngún chants). Egúngún (masquerade) among the Yorùbá is employed to depict the Yorùbá ancestors who are venerated and worshipped like the $\hat{O}ris\hat{a}$. There is a thought that egúngún is not an $\hat{O}ris\hat{a}$ but an ancestor cult (Ìdòwú, 1962). Nevertheless, there is no notable difference between the level of veneration the Yorùbá people have for their ancestors and their gods. In this wise, egúngún is considered a god among Yorùbá. Èsà egúngún is a poetic form that the Yorùbá masquerades, known as egúngún aláré³ (Ògúndèi), 2000) chant. Èsà egúngún is also called iwì egúngún (Olájubù, 1972; Òpádòtun, 2002 and Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Ajùwòn, 2009). It is also called $\partial gb\acute{e}r\grave{e}^4$, and the name depends on the sub-region of Yorùbá the user comes from. Olájubù (1972) mentions that he adopts the name iwì because it is the popular name through which this poem is referred. Olájubù's claim about the nomenclature, iwì egúngún, is that it is no longer effective because hardly could many people of today call this poetry the name. They commonly call it èsà egúngún instead. What we should note about this is that some oral artists have produced recordings for public consumption in both audio and videotapes, and other recording modes which they call esà egúngún. Among such artists are Fóyèké Ajàngìlá, Ajóbíewé Àrèmú, Mùínàt Fénápa and Àbèké Òjè. The Yorùbá masquerade players are èsà egúngún performance specialities. They take this as a family business; their type of egúngún cult differentiates them from other egúngún. According to Babáyemí (1980), this type of egúngún cult has more opportunities than other egúngún cults. Babayemí avers that the Yorùbá masquerade players perform round the year and not only during festivals like many other egúngún. Ògúndèjì (2000) and some other scholars reveal that they are professionals who live primarily on the performance, touring the nooks and

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³ Egúngún aláré according to Ògúndèjì (2000.18) are "masquerade players or performing masquerades". According to him, the name is more appropriate than many other names the performers might have been called by many other scholars.

⁴ Olájubu, O. 1972. Àkójopò Ìwí Egúngún. Ìkejà: Longman Nigeria Ltd, pg. i.

crannies of the Yorùbáland and its neighbouring people to entertain them, unlike the other $eg\acute{u}ng\acute{u}n$ whose performance is annual. There is no doubt that this affords them to acquire skills and expertise in the art of performance in general and $\dot{e}s\dot{a}$ chant in particular.

Ìwí or èsà egúngún as we mentioned above is more peculiar to egúngún aláré than other types of masquerades. It is one of the characteristics that distinguish them from other oral poetry performers. Ògúndèjì (1992) notes that there is no divergence of opinion on the fact that egúngún aláré emanates from egúngún ritual festival. So, egúngún aláré could be said to be a deritualising drama (Ògúndèjì, 2000). It is not that other egúngún cult members who are not masquerading players (egúngún aláré) do not chant èsà egúngún, they do but not as egúngún aláré does.

Another popular Yorùbá religious oral poetic type is *ìjálá*. *Ìjálá* is hunters' poetry. According to Babalolá (1966), *ìjálá* was chanted first by Ògún's last son to praise his father during his lifetime while his other brothers could not. This style of chanting is used by Ògún worshippers to praise and worship him. One of the earlier works on *ìjálá*, is Yemitan (1963). Yemitan (1963) is a collection of *ìjálá* poems. Its contents include myths relating to Ògún religion, hunters' experience in the forest, Ògún and animal panegyrics. Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwòn (2009) assert that out of adherents of Ògún, it is the hunters, the warriors and the farmers that mainly make use of *ìjálá*. In addition to this, the blacksmiths called *alágbède/aláró* are also grounded in *ìjálá* chant.

Other Yorùbá oral poetry that are religious include *ìyệrệ ifá* (*Ifá* chant), *orin ifá* (*ifá* songs), *Ṣàngó pípè* (*Ṣàngó* chant), *Èṣù pípè* (*Èṣù* chant), *Qya pípè* (*Qya* chant), *Qbàtálá pípè* (*Qbàtálá* chant), orin *Orò* (*Orò* song), *orin olójó* (*Qlójó* song), songs of *Òkèèbadàn*, *Òṣun*, *Agemo* and *Ìbejì* (Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwòn, 2009). All these poems are used by the initiates of the *Òrìṣà* they are related to. Some cannot be performed by non-initiates. *Ìrèmòjé eré ìṣípà* ode (hunters' final passage rite chant), a specialised type of *ìjálá* as an example, is only performed by the hunters, not just an ordinary hunter but the Ògún initiates who specialise in it. Many of the religious poetic types are used to worship *òrìṣà*⁵. For instance, *orin Edì* (*Edì* song), *Òkèèbadàn*, *Òṣun*

⁵ Òriṣà according to Ìdòwú (1962.60) means "*Ori ṣè* (Head -Source)", what this compound word is pointing to is that the source of deities is Olódùmarè who is also called Orí. So, *Oriṣè* is another name for

Olódùmarè, where the word $\partial r i s \dot{a}$ (to mean deities) is derived. Òrisà could also be traced to Orisà (orí + sà). This in deep structure is "Awon tí Orí (Olórí pátápátá; Olódùmarè) $s \dot{a} j \rho$ " (Those who were specially selected by the Supreme Being: God). According to Dáramólá and Jéjé (1968), $\partial r i s \dot{a}$ are supernatural beings that descended from heaven, they serve as intermediary between Olódùmarè and people. They take people's plea to Olódùmarè because He has enriched them with supernatural power.

and Agemo songs are festival songs that are rendered during the festivals in honour of each of the deities to which they are associated respectively. This thus affirms the fact that poetry in the Yorùbá cultural setting is used not only for art's sake but also for religious purposes among other aspects of life. At this juncture, a question that may arise is do the practitioners of these aforementioned poems see themselves as poets? Yes, they do. During the presentation of *ìyèrè ifá*, for example, the performer at the beginning introduces himself and asks for the support of his listeners. He also clarifies that he has come to entertain, share knowledge, praise their course and is ready to take to correction supposed he is wrong. All these are nothing but attributes of oral poetry performance. Also, the style of presentation, the structure and pattern of sentences of the poem, the audience reception show that even when the presentation is religious-motivated, it has artistic/poetic values within. The fact that they call themselves aláré Ògún (performers of Ògún's chant, asùnyèrè (ìyèrè poet) and apèsà (èsà poet) shows beyond any doubt that they are recognised as specialist poets. Other members of the religion of the professional cult may also chant but those who are specialist chanters are known. There are standard for assessing excellent chanting and performance in general. Many of the professional religious specialist poets do meet the criteria for assessing the excellent performance of the poem they practise while the initiates who are not specialists in it may not.

Apart from the religious functions and purposes that religious oral poetry serves, many of them also discuss topical issues. This mostly occurs when religious poetry is used to satirise societal anomalies during traditional festivals and occasions. An example of such a poem is $g \approx \frac{2}{2} \frac{2$

Some of the Yorùbá religious poetry are used for medicinal purposes. Example of this is *ese ifá* and *ofò* (Yorùbá incantation) and *àyájó* (mythological incantation). As shown by their contents, many *ofò* are characterised by "references to the mythological event" (Olátúnjí, 1984:151) like *ese ifá*. Such an *ofò* is not but an excerpt of *ese ifá*. Without considering their relation to *ese ifá*, *ofò* and *àyájó* are used in Yorùbá religious rites. The Yorùbá communicate the *Òrìṣà* and other beings in the spiritual realm through *ofò* and *àyájó*. In this wise, *ofò* and *àyájó* are central to all Yorùbá religious sects. *Àyájó*

is used to cure different ailments like headaches, stomach pain, snake and dog bites and gun shot.

Many of the Yorùbá oral poetic types are not religious. Poetry of these kinds are based on one social occasion or the other. Although we are not much concerned with typology or categorisation here, such discussion will come in the next sub-topic; nevertheless, it should be examined for identification purposes. There are specific social functions these categories of Yorùbá poetry serve. Some are marriage/nuptial related. Examples of such poetry are *obitun* and *ekún ìyàwó* (nuptial poetry) (Òpàdòdun, 2002). Performers of both poetic types are women. While *obitun* song is a poetic performance performed around the town as a rite of marking the end of being in seclusion to undergo cultural education required of girls among Ondò Yorùbá as a criterion for marriage, ekún ìyàwó (nuptial poetry) among Òyó Yorùbá is performed by a bride to bid her family farewell on her wedding day. The social importance of *obitun* rite is that any girl that is not involved in the performance will be stigmatised. Basically, being a virgin is a major criterion that qualifies girls to participate in the rite. For a girl not to have qualified for the rite means such a person is a wayward person who has been involved in premarital sex. As a result, the person might find it difficult to get suitors in the olden days among Ondò Yorùbá. According to Fádípè (2012), on the wedding day in the Yorùbá sociocultural setting, the bride in preparing to go to her husband's house kneels in front of her father, mother and other elderly members of her family to receive their blessings. This blessing, as noted by Opádótun (2002), is usually requested in rárà chanting mode (a voice modulation that comes out as a result of soberness) and this is what is called ekún *ìyàwó* (nuptial poetry) in certain parts of Òyó Yorùbáland such as Odò Òtìn and Òsun (Ògúndèjì, 1991). This poem is also called rárà ìyàwó. Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwòn (2009) explain further that the Yorùbá people permit the bride to say what society has been restricting her to say during ekún ìyàwò performance. This is license common to all oral poets. So, she can say as much as she wants. It is also an avenue for the bride to pray for her parents, thank them, praise them and say goodbye to them. They also include that if the bride is creative, and has a good and sweet voice, she would realise a lot of money from this performance. She will not do this alone, her friends, who constitute what could be compared to the bridal train, will be in her accompany to give her moral support. The performance of ekún iyàwó is usually accompanied by the orin elégbé ìyàwó (bridal train songs) that usually punctuate the bridal chants as an interlude (Òpádòtún, Gbénró, and Omalàsóyè, 2005). A bride chanting ekún ìyàwó must be creative because of the many challenges she would be exposed to when going out on the performance. This is common during a mass wedding or *odún ìyàwó* (mass wedding ceremony) which could make her face a competition that will test how versed she is in the poetry. She would have been domestically groomed in the art of the poem by her members, mainly the housewives. Her parents will also take care of her, and equip her with charms and amulets against forgetfulness so that she would be able to cope with challenges from other brides (Ládélé and Fáníyì, 1979). Ekún ìyàwó is one of the fascinating aspects of the wedding ceremony in the Yorùbá socio-cultural milieu. It has many poetic qualities such as reflections on the emotional feelings of the bride, play on words, rhyme and irregular metres and differences in voice modulations (Fáníyì, 1975). Obitun and ekún ìyàwó are marriage-oriented poetic types and they are compulsory to perform by brides before proceeding to their husbands' houses.

There are Yorùbá oral poetic types which are used to praise the subject of the poetry. Varieties of Yorùbá oríkì (characterisation poetry/panegyric) belong to this category. Oríkì, according to Olátúnjí (1984), is an important Yorùbá oral poetry. Olátúnjí (1984) discusses the significance of *oríkì* among the Yorùbá. Yorùbá people have praise poetry for everything, whether living or non-living things. They have praise poetry for human beings, animals, places, rivers, rocks, food, cloth and hunger, etc. Oríkì reflects virtually in all other Yorùbá oral poetic types. Yorùbá oral poetry discusses Yorùbá peoples' antecedent, origin, lineage, life experiences and other socio-cultural activities. Ògúndèjì (1991) notes that praise poetry could occur in the house when a child kneels or prostrate himself to greet his/her parents. It could also be found in palaces when palace poets praise the king, high chiefs and visitors to oba (king). Similarly, it is used during many occasions like burial ceremonies, funeral activities, house warming, chieftaincy installation and coronation, graduation and traditional festivals. There are varieties of oríkì. According to Olátúnjí (1984), these varieties includes oríkì orílè (lineage oríkì), sókí (one-word oríkì), àmútòrunwá (name brought from heaven) and orikì inagije (pen name). All these examples of orikì are used to describe the poetic character which may result in the subject's panegyric.

What we want to draw attention to about Yorùbá *oríkì* is that the subject's defects, his/her abnormal behaviours, could make part of the contents of his/her o*ríkì*. This occurred in Anikúrá⁶ praise poetry analysed by Olátúnjí. As noted by Olátúnjí,

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⁶ Aníkúrá, according to Olátúnjí (1984.82) was a notorious Lagos robber in the 1940s. but who was praised by an oral artist for his baleful, smartness and influence.

praising a thief, like how Aníkúrá was praised in the poem goes against the culture of the Yorùbá people which always promotes good values. In Yorùbá oral poetry, the subject's weaknesses and bad characters can be used to praise them. This is not but to show the level at which such a person is powerful, and how he/she should be respected. Though at the place of performance, using one's bad character to praise one might bring honour and respect but after the performance, when deep meanings have been given to the portion at which the subject's bad behaviours are used to praise him/her, his or her bad status becomes more obvious. By this, the poem will not only be a praise of the subject but also an element of his/her satirical discussion. Thus, it is possible to interpret such as satire.

Children's poetry also plays a prominent role in child socialising among Yorùbá people. Ògúndèjí (1991) mentions that children's poetry includes lullabies (orin ìremo), children's play songs (orin Erémodé), which is sub-divided into two namely, active and passive type, and the folktale song (orin àló onítàn). These forms of children's poetry focus on children; they are to teach them socio-cultural values required in Yorùbá children's socialisation. According to Ògúndèjí (2008), orin ìremo is used to soothe infants when they are crying. This occurs mostly at the time mothers do not have time to carry them or play with them. Contents of orin iremo are persuasive oriented. Children's values are also discussed in this poetic type. Children to whom *orin ìremo* is sung may pick some of their first/early speeches from it. These children would not only pick words and sentences from the song but also pick some social values the songs are indirectly teaching. The same thing applicable to orin erémodé and orin àló onítàn. They are to teach social values, characters and knowledge of different types. Aló àpamò (riddle) is categorised by Ògúndèjì (1991) as one of the speech modes of Yorùbá oral poetry. Àló àpamò is used as an introduction to àló onítàn (folktale). Ògúndèjì (1991) says it prepares the listeners' minds for àló onítàn. Òpádòtun (1994) emphasises that àló àpamò is a poetry because of many poetry features it contains. Examples of poetic features evident in Opádotun's (1991) àló àpamo include the use of parallel sentences, tonal counterpoint, lexical matching, literary incongruity, metaphor, pun and structural/semantic repetition. Among the social importance of àló àpamô (Yorùbá riddle), according to Opádòtun (1994), are it teaches moral values, it helps children in building their minds of creativity, children learn how to compose songs in folktale, it is a method of creating a sense of brotherhood/sisterhood among children, it shows different forms of bad characters and their possible outcomes, it exposes children to features and characteristics of the things around them, children learn how to participate in public speaking, use of language and also help children to build courage for public address.

There are some forms of Yorùbá oral poetry that are used for commercial purposes. They are deployed to advertise products to buyers. The general name for this poetic type is ìpolówó ojà (advertisement). Examples of ìpolówó ojà are boil maize advertisement, groundnut advertisement, kolanut advertisement and walnut advertisement. It is not easy to attract buyers to one's goods. As a result, specially made poetic expressions that are entertaining and attractive are used for advertising products among Yorùbá traders. Every product in Yorùbá polity has its way of advertisement. This poetry's contents show how products being advertised are good for buyers' consumption.

There are many oral poetry in Yorùbá society. They are spread all over Yorùbá land. They are either serving religious or socio-cultural values. They have different features and discuss different topics based on the nature of the situation they are made for. They have verbs to describe them, these ways could either mean speech, chant or song mode of speaking. For example we discribe the ways these poems are either recited or chanted as *olele; mímu, ègè; dídá, ààrò; jíjá, iwì egúngún; kíké, oríkì kíkì* and so on. We shall discuss the typology of Yorùbá oral poetry in the next sub-topic. What we are emphasising here is that Yorùbá oral poetry has values and roles contributing to the religious and socio-cultural situations of the Yorùbá society. Thus, they are not only for aesthetic purposes.

2.1.3 Categorisation of Yorùbá oral poetry

Scholars have worked on categorisation of Yorùbá oral poetry. There are divergent opinions on these categories because of the multiple nature of the forms and contents of Yorùbá oral poetry. Beier and Gbàdàmósí (1959) make use of a group of performers as a criterion for classifying Yorùbá oral poetry. By this, each oral poetic genre is identified and named after the group of people that perform them. This effort has been debunked by Olátúnjí (1984), thus, Beier and Gbàdàmósí are aware of the fact that one Yorùbá oral poetic type can occur in another. Thus, using a group of performers as a criterion for the classification in this situation cannot work. Finnegan (1970 and 1977) does not categorise African oral poetry but adopts generic names used in the Western literary scholarship to describe and discuss different African oral poetry. The

forms she recognises are ballad, epic, panegyric odes, elegiac and lyric poetry. She also mentions religious and mantic poetry, special purpose poetry (war, hunting and work song) topical and political poetry, lyric and children's poetry as forms of oral poetry. These categorisations concentrate mainly on Western literature. For the poetic forms identified to account for some Yorùbá oral poetry because of their functional features, it would have been better if they are categorised by their modes of vocalisation. This is because one oral poetic form can be used to perform more than one function. Categorising Yorùbá oral poetic forms with the use of the mode of rendition will be less problematic than Finnegan's (1977) categorisations.

Olátúnjí (1984) recognises different modes through which Yorùbá oral poetry can be classified. The first one he recognises is the feature type. This category of Yorùbá oral poetry, according to him, occurs within the repertory of other oral poetry. Qlátúnjí (1984) posits that this type of oral poetry is no more than lyrics that fitted into the melodies of chanting modes and songs. The example of this type of oral poetry, according to Olátúnjí, are *oríkì* (praise poetry), *ese ifá* (ifá divination poetry), *òwe* (proverb), àló àpamò (riddle) and ofò or ògèdè (incantations). Another type he recognises is the chanting mode. The chanting mode, as he explains, is poetic forms that are recognised by the musical manner through which they are chanted. This type of poetry is based on the rhythm or the manner of utterance. Examples of poetry in this type that Olátúnjí recognises are *ìyèrè ifá (ifá* chant), *ìjálá* (hunters' chant) and *èsà* egúngún (masquerade chant). The third category Olátúnjí recognises is the song. He mentions that the chants and the songs are musical styles and manner of vocalisation. Examples of songs Olátúnjí (1984:8) lists are orin àgàsa, orin ìgogo, orin àjàgbó, orin àsìgbón, orin etíverí, orin àpàlà and orin àló (folklore song). Olátúnjí (1984) has tried to categorise oral poetry based on the manner of vocalisation but its typology does not totally solve the problem of categorisation of Yorùbá oral poetry. Olátúnjí (1984) opines that some of this oral poetry are feature type. He is right by saying this assertion, but almost all Yorùbá oral poetic types have different distinctive features and as a matter of fact, their poetic sentence structures occur in one another.

Ògúnjìnmí and Na'Allah (1994) discuss the typology of Yorùbá oral poetry under the following categories; religious poetry, incantatory poetry, salutation poetry, funeral poetry, occupational poetry, heroic poetry, topical, lullaby and occasional poetry. Shown by the poetic types Ògúnjìnmí and Na'Allah (1994) recognise, the yardstick for their categorisation is functional. Our observation about their typology of poetry is that

it is too broad and complex. One oral poetic type can, for example, be classified under more than one of the categories identified above. For instance, *ijálá* can be categorised under religious poetry and as well be categorised under occasional and occupational poetry. This also applies to *èṣà egúngún. Oríkì* (praise poetry) can be categorised under Ògúnjìnmí and Na'Allah's salutation poetry and as well as under their heroic poetry. Many Yorùbá religious poetic types also discuss topical issues and are used for similar occasions.

Furthermore, in their categorisation of Yorùbá oral poetry, Olátúnjí (1984) and Ògúndèjì (2000) recognise three major modes of Yorùbá oral poetic rendition. Ògúndèjì (2000) makes use of mode vocalisation to categorise Yorùbá oral poetry into three namely, speech or recitative mode, chanting mode and song mode. He further classifies speech mode into major and minor speech/recitative mode poetry. According to him, the major ones are ese ifá, orikì and ofò. The minor ones are òwe, àló àpamò and àrò. He makes use of content and the performers of the genres as criteria for his categorisation. Ògúndèjì subdivides the chanting mode of oral poetic types into religious and secular poetry. The examples of religious chants he gives are *ijálá*, *èṣà* and *iyèrè ifá* while of secular chant forms are rárà, alámò and àşamò. He sub-classifies songs into festival songs, children's songs, twins' mother songs, occasional songs and dance music songs. It is, however, observed that Ògúndèjì's (2000) categorisation is an adaptation of Olúkòjú (1978) and Olátúnjí (1984). What differentiates Ogúndèjì (2000) from Olátúnjí (1984) is that the class of oral poetry Olátúnjí calls feature type is identified as speech mode by Ògúndèjì (2000). Another thing we observe is that the class called children songs, twins mother songs can be categorised under a broad category which we shall call "children's poetry". The reason for this is that both songs are children-oriented. The arrangement of these modes of Yorùbá oral poetic rendition also differentiates Olúkòjú (1978) and Ògúndèjì (2000). Olúkòjú (1978) affirms that, considering their musical features, Yorùbá oral poetry is best arranged as $arángbó \Rightarrow isaré \Rightarrow orin$. That is to say manipulation and pitch control in the speech mode of oral poetry is less compared to how it operates in chant and song modes. However, voice manipulation and pitch control are more prominent in the song mode of oral poetic rendition. To Ògúndèjì (2000), since the speech mode of oral poetry can feature as contents of both chant and song modes; therefore, placing àrángbó in between both poetic modes is appropriate. To rearrange the order of placement of Yorùbá oral poetry as shown in Olùkòjú, Ògúndèjì suggests a new arrangement as in $i \circ ar\acute{a}r\acute{e} \Rightarrow ar\acute{a}ngb\acute{o} \Rightarrow orin$. This is to show that $ar\acute{a}ngb\acute{o}$ can feature both in $ar\acute{a}s\acute{a}r\acute{e}$ and $ar\acute{a}r\acute{e}$

Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwòn (2009) also categorise Yorùbá oral poetry into three. The first is the Yorùbá traditional religious poetry. Some of the examples Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwon (2009) enumerate are among the religious poetry discussed above. Those which are not mentioned include *olójó* songs and *Ifá* songs. The second category in Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwòn (2009) is ceremonial poetry. The ceremony in which these kinds of poetry could be performed, according to them are wedding, naming, installation/coronation and burial. The topmost Yorùbá oral poetry relevant under this typology, according to Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táiwò and Àjùwòn (2009) is rárà (a multipurpose Yorùbá oral poetry). Ekún ìyàwó (nuptial poetry), ègè, bòlòjò, èfè/gèlèdé song are also among. The last category is what Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwon (2009) name oral poetry which is neither religious nor ceremonial poetry. They are materials for other oral poetry. Ofo, ogèdè, àásán (all are forms of incantations), *ìwúre* (prayer poetry), *oríkì* (praise poetry) as noted by Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwòn (2009) are poetic types that belong to this category. This last type of oral poetry is what Olátúnjí (1984) refers to as feature type. This categorisation of Yorùbá oral poetry is equally problematic. The religious status of many Yorùbá oral poetry like $r\dot{a}r\dot{a}^7$ nowadays has changed to social status. Even the so-called religious poetic types are now also used as a mode of entertainment on different occasions that are not religious. For example, *ijálá* and *èsà/iwì egúngún* are the most used religious poetry in the current Yorùbá poetic world, and most places where they are used are secular occasions. They are used at wedding ceremonies, coronation and installation, naming ceremonies and other non-religious ceremonies. Though this does not remove the fact that they are religious poetry; it on many occasions, reduces the level of religious contents in these poetic types. So, using religion as a yardstick for categorisation may not help in generating a less problematic category of Yorùbá oral poetry.

The classifications of Yorùbá oral poetry considered more appropriate for this work with little modification among the above scholars are Olúkòjú (1978), Olátúnjí (1984) and Ògúndèjì (1991 and 2000). These scholars hold the belief that Yorùbá oral poetry is best classified by the use of their manner and mode of vocalisation. In other

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⁷ Òpádòtun (2002) claims that *rárà* from its inception is religious poetry of Èṣù worshippers. It gets to a stage where the worshippers of this deity do not want to be identified with it anymore, then *rárà* religious status transformed into social status.

words, the mode of oral poetic rendition is the most appropriate criterion for primary classification. Three modes of vocalising oral poetry are identified: speech mode, chant mode and song. This category satisfies and encompasses all Yorùbá oral poetry than other categorisation paradigms discussed above. Ògúndèjì (1991 and 2000) further classifies àrángbó (speech or recitative mode) into major and minor types. The minor type includes ese ifá (ifá divinatory poetry), oríkì (praise poetry) and ofò (incantation). The major type includes òwe (proverb), àló àpamò (riddle) and àrò (chain poetry). Ìṣàré is also divided into religious and secular. Orin (song) into festival songs; examples are Òkèèbadàn festival songs and Ighogho festival songs. Children's song is subclassified into three namely: lullabies, folktale songs and game songs. Others are twins' mothers' songs, occasional songs; examples of which are housewife rivalry songs and political songs, and the last; dance music songs. Examples of dance music songs are dùndún and ṣèkèrè songs, ṣàkàrá or agbè songs and àpàlà songs.

An issue on the classification of oral poetry is brought up by Sotunsa (2005). Sotunsa (2005), while reviewing Olátúnjí's classification, argues against the feature type, chant and the song mode as forms of Yorùbá oral poetry. She, however, adds drum poetry as an independent form of Yorùbá oral poetry. She claims that drum poetry is an independent oral poetic form because it has its peculiarity like the other modes. This makes her redefine oral poetry as a kind of poetry whose distribution, composition and performance are essentially by word of mouth or through an instrumental medium, which is capable of passing across aural understandable human language. Sotunsa's (2005) submission could have been more acceptable of all classifications discussed above if the typology she refers to as feature type is identified as speech mode. Besides, drum is not the only musical instrument used to make an aural decodable human language. Musical instruments like flutes and trumpets can also do the same, whereas they are not membranonophonic instruments; they are aerophones. There are different aerophonic musical instruments in Yorùbá music. Examples are ekùtù, tàlàkà and $t \partial r \partial m a g b \partial^8$. There also are many idiophonic musical instruments that can clearly produce aural decodable human language. So singling out drums among these instruments is inappropriate. This typology of oral poetic form can be best referred to as "musical instrument poetry".

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⁸ These are different flutes used by hunters and warriors among the Yorùbá people.

Having critically looked through the above classifications, using the mode of rendition as criterion of categorisation like Olúkòjú, Olátúnjí, Ògúndèjì, and Ṣotunsa Yorùbá oral poetry could be broadly categorised into four. These are àrángbó (speech/recitative mode poetry), iṣàré (chanting mode poetry), orin (song mode) and ohùn ohun èlò orin (musical instrumental mode).

2.1.4 Characteristic features of Yorùbá oral poetry performance

It has been mentioned above that Yorùbá oral poetic types are multimodal in nature. In other words, Yorùbá oral poetry has extensive characteristic features. To avoid unnecessary repetition, a generic approach is employed to discuss these features. The first and foremost feature of Yorùbá oral poetic types is that they are oral. This is extensively discussed by Finnegan (1977), Olúkòjú (1978), Olátúnjí (1984), Ògúndèjì (1991), Ògúnjìnmí and Na'Allah (1994), Ojaide (2012), Òpádòtun, Gbénró and Omólàsóyè (2005), Sotunsa (2005), Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwòn (2009) and Mbube (2017). To explain the oral nature of Yorùbá orature, Adéjùmò (2009) states that the orature of the Yorùbá people is basically oral. Adéjùmò continues to state that it is a creative text delivered orally and passed from one generation to another. To substantiate this, Yorùbá oral poets, including performers of *ìjálá*, *èṣà* and *rárà* indicate this in their performances. When *ijálá* or *èṣà* performers want to clarify that the poem they are performing is not their text but was orally passed on to them by their parents, masters and bosses, one of the statements they use in saying this is "orín mi kộ orín ògá mi ni" (the song is not mine, it is my boss' song). Yorùbá oral poets also show this when paying homage during their performances. For example in *ijálá*, the performer in the excerpt, "Ba á korin à júbà eni tó lorin ni" (If one wants to sing, one must pay homage to the owner of the song) (Ajùwon, 1981:18), clearly states that the song he wants to sing is not his own creation but someone taught him.

Another feature characteristic of Yorùbá oral poetry, according to Olúkòjú (1978), is that they can be categorised by their mode of vocalisation. Some are vocalised in speech mode, some in chant mode and others, in song mode. Another feature of Yorùbá oral poetry is that they are highly incorporable and their borders are porous (Barber, 1991). This suggests that a Yorùbá oral poetic type has the potential to be made used in the contents of another oral poetic type. Barber gives an example of $If\acute{a}$ divination poetry, $or\acute{a}k\grave{a}$ (praise poetry), $\grave{a}r\grave{o}$ (chain poetry) and $\grave{o}we$ (proverb) in which Yorùbá oral narratives can feature. Some Yorùbá oral poetry are generally performed across the

Yorùbáland while some are regional based (Olátúnjí, 1984, Ògúndèjì, 1991, Òpádòtun, Gbénró and Omalàsóyè, 2005 and Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwòn, 2009). The examples of Yorùbá oral poetic types that are performed across Yorùbáland are *òwe* (proverb), *eṣe Ifá* (*Ifá* divination poetry), *ìjálá* (hunters' chant) and *èṣà egúngún* (*egúngún* chant). Those that are regionally based are *ìgbálá* (funeral poetry among the people of Ègbá), *gèlèdé* (masqued satirical song among Ègbádò/Yewa), *igbá títí* (the song of queens of Òyó), *obitun* (girls initiation into womanhood poetry among the Yorùbá people of Òndó), *orin èyò* (Èyò masquerade song among Èkó people of Yorùbá), *orin Àjàgbó* (Bull roar deity (orò) song among Èkìtì people of Yorùbá), etc.

Another prominent feature of Yorùbá oral poetry is communal and collective authorship (Ògúndèjí, 1991). This implies that it is hard to claim the authorship of Yorùbá oral poetry. Taking proverbs as an example, it is hard to trace the origin of many Yorùbá proverbs let alone identifying who first used them. Proverbs are oral resources of society that everybody can make use of. It might be argued that if *ìjálá* or *èṣà* belongs to some religious sects, can the initiates of these poetic types not claim their authorship? The condition of having an authorship right of a literary work does not permit anybody to directly quote the work without referencing the creator. This cannot be applied to oral literature which anybody, even someone who is not a member of the religious group can make use of, so far the culture of the land permits him/her without a reference to the author.

Moreover, in oral literature performance, the period of production and the period of performance are the same. In other words, the period of production and the period of performance occur simultaneously. Ògúndèjì (1991) explains that an oral artist does not need to firstly compose his poetry like the written poets prior to his time of performance. This also indicates that Yorùbá oral poetic types are performative. What occurs during the time of performances forms their contents. This is another prominent feature of Yorùbá oral poetry.

In addition, each Yorùbá oral poetry has a way of discussing its mode of vocalisation and performance (Òpádòtun, Gbénró and Omalàsóyè, 2005 and Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwòn, 2009). The modes of their performances are portrayed by the verbs we use to describe them. *Ìjálá* mode vocalisation is described as sisun/kiké, èṣà chant is described as pipe, iwì chant is described as kikì, òṣàré mode of chanting is described as riré and so on. The adjectives used to qualify these modes of vocalisation are reduplicated versions of their root verbs as in ré + ré (chant + chant) = riré (chant).

The verb used to describe the way of vocalising each oral poetry whether the speech mode, chant mode or song are different, dialectal and regional oriented.

The use of musical instruments is among the features of Yorùbá oral poetry (Olúkòjú, 1978, Ògúndèjì, 1991, Òpádòtun, 2002, Òpádòtun, Gbénró and Omalàsóyè, 2005 and Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwòn, 2009). Some oral poetic types are even named after their musical instruments or the ways these musical instruments are being played. An example of such oral poetic type is igbá títí (the song of queens of Qyó). Igbá títí (a calabash tray beating) which is a musical instrument played to a poetic type of rárà (yùngbà), which the queens of Aláàfin of Òyó use to eulogise the king. They also deploy it as a means of communicating him. Because yùngbà is not only performed on this occasion, the type which is strictly performed by ayaba (queens) is then differentiated from others with its musical instrument. The Yorùbá oral poetic types which are named after their musical instruments include orin dùndún àti şèkèrè (dùndún and sèkèrè song), orin opa (opa song) and orin àpûrì (àpûrì song). This also included orin kete (calabash pot song) and orin agbè (gourd song) on which this study is based. The Yorùbá oral poetic types which their musical instruments are not named after are more than those named after their musical instruments. Examples of this are orin gèlèdé, *ìjálá*, *èṣà/iwì*, *Ṣàngó pípè* (Ṣàngó chant) and *rárà Ṣàngó*. The musical instruments played during the performances of these Yorùbá oral poetic types in order of their referencing are àpèsìn drum, àgèrè drum, bàtá drum and dùndún drum. There are also some Yorùbá oral poetic types that do not have any musical instruments in particular but which any available musical instruments could be played to during their performances. The major example of this is orin omodé i.e. orin àló onitàn (folktale song).

According to Vansina (1965), one prominent feature of oral poetry is the mnemonic devices deployed in them. This is also applicable to Yorùbá oral poetry. Mnemonic devices are materials that are used in remembering the verse of oral traditions. These are expressions that make understanding the verses, and identification of an oral genre become easier. For example, in the use of proverb, the statement "àwọn àgbà sọ pé..." (the elderly said...) which usually precedes proverbial sentences is an indication that the oral genre about to be cited is a proverb. The statement also shows communal ownership of òwe (proverb). Also in àló àpagbè/onítàn, the periodic song is not only used to sustain the plot of the tale but is used as a mnemonic device. Once listeners who are mainly children could remember the folktale song, they would

remember lesson taught in the storyline also. Likewise, periodic songs that occur during the performance of Yorùbá chant mode poetic types are mnemonic devices.

Another feature that is also observable in some Yorùbá oral poetry is its esoteric nature (Vansina, 1965). The esoteric nature of poetry, according to Vansina, is the transmission of oral poetry by certain people who are known to be members of a particular institution. In this, such oral poetic types are not to be performed by other people who are not among the particular group. Yorùbá poetic types of this class are mainly religious. Although some are not religious but just have a respected cultural element that backs it. Examples of esoteric Yorùbá oral poetry which are religiously motivated are *ìgbálá* (dirge among the Ègbá people) and *ìrèmòjé* (hunters' funeral passage rite). Esoteric Yorùbá oral poetry which is culturally motivated is *òwe* (proverb) and ekún ìyàwó. Proverbs in Yorùbá socio-cultural settings can only be used by the elders. They are the people who have the right to use proverbs without referring to another person. If a young person uses a proverb without taking permission from the elders by saying "tótó se bí òwè àgbà" to mean "respect/honour to the elders who are the users of this saying", such person is considered rude. Obitun is another example of Yorùbá poetry of this type. It is only performed by girls who are transcending from the childhood stage to the stage of puberty.

Audience participation is another generic feature of Yorùbá oral poetry. Ògúndèjì (1991) classifies the audience of Yorùbá oral performances into two. These are the audience with active participation and the audience without active participation. An active audience of Yorùbá oral poetry performances can participate in the performance by dancing, rewarding the performers and even intervening to correct the performer where necessary. For example in *ìyệrệ Ifá*, the elderly Ifá priests who are listening to a young priest performing *ìyèrè* can correct such a performer if he makes mistake. An audience without active participation is an audience that only listens or watches the performance without contributing actively in any way. Audience participation is also prominent in children's play songs. For example, in folktale songs, when the lead vocalist starts to make the calls of the song, the audience joins in singing the responses to the calls. The religious Yorùbá poetic audience could either be initiates or non-initiates. Audience participation in some religious poetry is limited. Example of Yorùbá religious poetic type is *ìgbálá* and *ìrèmójé*. In this poetic type, an audience who is not an initiate of the religious sect the genres belong cannot participate. In secular Yorùbá oral poetry like rárà/ękún ìyàwó, orin agbè, alámò and ègè, audience participation is more prominent and pronounced than in the religious poetry. Both the adult, children, male and female constitute an audience of many Yorùbá oral poetry. Examples of this Yorùbá poetic type are ègè, rárà, dadakúàdà, dùndún and ṣèkèrè and òsàré. Some religious oral poetry like ìjálà, ìyèrè Ifá, Ṣàngó pípè, and èṣà are other examples. On the other hand, children are the only audience for some oral poetry. The main, if not the only example of this poetic type, is orin omodé (Yorùbá children's song).

Using a linguistic perspective, Olátúnjí (1984) recognises some general features of Yorùbá oral poetry. The first we shall mention is that, in Yorùbá oral poetry, breath pause could be used to delimit the lines of the poetry. In performing some Yorùbá oral poetry, performers observe pauses to refresh and to start other lines. This, as explained by Olátúnjí could also be accompanied by lengthening the tone on the last or final syllable of the pre-pausal lexical. It could be observed by making an emphatic lengthening of the low tone of the last syllable of the word. These features are mostly realised in chant and song modes of Yorùbá oral poetry. In some instances, oral performers rush their utterances, this might create a problem of delimitation of poem lines. In such a case, Olátúnjí suggests lexico-structural and semantic considerations of the poem as additional and supplementary criteria to breath-pause.

Other general features of Yorùbá oral poetry explained by Olátúnjí are repetition, parallelism and tonal counterpoint. Forms of repetition that he identifies in Yorùbá oral poetry are lexical repetition, semantic repetition, partial lexico-structural and full lexicostructural repetition. Word-play, non-casual language and rhythm are other stylistic devices Olátúnjí explains as general features of Yorùbá oral poetry. The figurative language he considers general to Yorùbá oral poetry includes allusion, personification, metaphor, simile, hyperbole, irony and euphemism. He also discusses distinctive features of Yorùbá oral poetry like *oríkì* (Yorùbá praise poetry), *ese ifá* (Ifá divination poetry), ofò (Yorùbá incantations), òwe (Yorùbá proverbs) and àló àpamò (Yorùbá riddles). All these poetic forms have their specific features through which they could be identified. Oríkì according to Olátúnjí is characterised by nominalisations and nominal phrases, preponderance of kinship terminologies, multiple references to the subject of the orikì, multiplicity of oblique references (allusion) and fluidity of structures and contents. Similarly, ese Ifá is characterised by citation of the priest, presentation of the protagonist and his/her problem, prescription, the reaction of the protagonist, the result of protagonist reaction to Ifá prescription, the infrastructural recapitulation and the general comment which shows the greatness of Ifá. Because of the multimodal nature of Yorùbá poetry, it cannot be said that Olátúnjí (1984) has discussed everything about the features of Yorùbá oral poetry. It is however observed that his work focuses mainly on the speech mode of Yorùbá oral poetry and is silent about Yorùbá chant and song.

Going by Sotunsa's (2005) explanation of Yorùbá drum poetry, drum poetry also has some distinctive features. Among these are the rhythmic nature of its style and aesthetics, sound patterning styles, the musical nature, the pitch variation, breath pauses, clustering of vowel sounds, tonal gliding, the rhythmic elongation and the ambiguous nature of the poetic sentences (drum poetry). It also needs to be noted that each Yorùbá oral poetry, especially the chant mode and songs, has its specific musical instruments played into it. Many of these instruments are religiously related while some are not. Those that are religiously related are the ones played to religious poetry; those which are not played to social poetry. Drum is even considered a deity, $\dot{a}y\dot{a}n^9$, that is worshipped by drummers. The emphasis is that drum poetry is also oral poetry with its characterised features.

Due to the multimodal nature of Yorùbá oral poetry, it is not easy to discuss everything about its features. Yorùbá oral poetry is a world of knowledge on its own, its features will continue to be growing as language and culture grow. This is because Yorùbá oral poetic types are products of the Yorùbá language and culture. Culture is not static, it changes, develops and as well gets into extinction. So, features of Yorùbá oral poetry could also change, develop and die as a result of changes that occur in the cultural values of society. Some oral poetic types have died and they could not be traced. So, if an oral poetic type dies, its features also die along. This means we can only discuss features of those Yorùbá oral poetic types available at the point of our discussion.

2.1.5 Yorùbá oral poetry in the face of globalisation

Yorùbá oral poetry has gone far and wide and has gone across several cultural groups of the world. The Yorùbá oral poetry is no more restricted to the Yorùbá socio-cultural setting but has been recognised throughout the world. The foremost factor that spreads the Yorùbá culture and values across the western world was the Atlantic slave trade. According to Babáwálé (2008), the direct shipments of the people of Africa started

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⁹ According to Àjàyí (2004), àyàn is a Yorùbá drum deity. It is worshipped by drummers. An example of the time it could be worshipped is during the graduation ceremony of a drummer trainee. Among the sacrificial elements, the trainee would present for sacrifice to àyàn include, "otikà (millet wine), obì (kolanut), èkuru (food made of beans) and èko (cold pap) (586)."

in 1532. Many West African people during this time were sold into slavery and shipped like commodities to Brazil, Cuba, Guyana, Grenada, Jamaica, Barbados, Haiti, Trinidad and Tobago among others. During and after the slave trade, the Yorùbá people that were forcefully carried away to the diaspora did not forget their culture. They took every element of their culture seriously. Fálolá (2012) opines that there was a massive expansion of the Yorùbá in the four continents united by the Atlantic Ocean. The Yorùbá freed slaves after the abolition of slavery came back to many West African countries and the Atlantic world. Yorùbá people during the slavery did not abandon their orișà (Yorùbá deities) religion. Oral poetry is deployed during the worship of Yorùbá deities. In Yorùbá literary studies, they are regarded as religious poetry. This use of poetry was sustained in the diaspora. According to Fálolá (2012), in an attempt to syncretise Yorùbá religions with Christianity, Bible passages were chanted like ofô, ògèdè, and àyájó (mythological incantation). Fálolá (2014) states that in practising Yorùbá religion and culture in the diaspora, the Yorùbá people did not abandon *Òrìsà* music and dance since it reveals the power of their identity and nationalism. They reshape the practice of the foreign religion in accordance with their own and historical perspectives. This leads to the survival of their culture and also an exhibition of the syncretisation of the African world view and Western cultures. This factor, if not the first, was one of the major factors that made it easy for Yorùbá oral poetry to receive global attention.

Ojaide (2012) avers that literature in Africa is an artistic production in which its writers not only express the aspirations, frustrations, and other life experiences of the people in society but also showcase their culture. This did not originate with written literature. It had been so with oral literature before the rise of writing. Yorùbá socio-cultural setting is a typical African society. So, literature among Yorùbá people is not only for art's sake but for life's sake. In this wise, poetry among the Yorùbá people has utilitarian functions than only aesthetic values. Ògúndèjì (1991) states in respect of this that literature performs two major functions at the same time. These, according to him, are the educational and aesthetic functions. Though, literature performs other functions apart from these two when considering different contexts of Yorùbá orature performances. *Ofò*, for example, is used for different medicinal purposes.

Yorùbá oral poetry has always included issues relating to other neighbouring tribes before the colonisation of the West African people. The *egúngún aláré's* (Yorùbá masquerade theatre) troupe had for example, been staging playlets about *Òyìnbó* (whiteman), Tápà (the Nupe), *Ìdàhòmì* (the Dahomean-Republic of Benin) and *Gànbàrí*

(Hausa) (Ògúndèjì, 1992a). Apart from the whiteman (Òyìnbó) playlet stated above, other ones represent the cultures of other tribes around the Yorùbá people. The Hausa and Tápà are neighbours to Yorùbá people in the Middle Belt and the Dahomi people are neighbours to Yorùbá in the west. Both tribes have historical contact with the Yorùbá people. The whiteman playlet showcases the cultural contact of Yorùbá with the white people, precisely during the pre and post-colonial eras. These plays of Yorùbá masquerade theatre extensively make use of the poetic chants, èṣà egúngún. It is clear that the Yorùbá people and their oral poetic types had contact with not only the neighbouring tribes of the Yorùbá people but also with foreign people (white people).

Another factor that positively affected the spread and globalisation of Yorùbá oral poetry first during colonialism and much more after was the global performance of the plays in the Ogunde dramatic tradition ¹⁰ that portray and make use of Yorùbá poetry a lot. The Ogunde dramatic tradition and its practitioners contributed a lot in making Yorùbá oral poetry popular in the Western world. Hubert Ogunde and Dúró Ládiípò, among others, took Yorùbá drama to different countries of the world (Clark, 1979; Ògúndèjì, 1988 and Rájí-Òvèlàdé and Olórunyomí, 2008). Ogunde to be precise has taken Yorùbá drama to many "prestigious international festivals and places like the Llangollen international, Eisteddfod; Fairfield Hall, Croydon, Great Britain; and Apollo Theatre, Harlem, New York" (Clark, 2014:395). Ogunde and other Yorùbá theatre practitioners who took after him, according to Ògúndèjì (1992a), made use of oral poetry in composing the dialogue, especially Dúró Ládiípò who had oral poets like Làísì Gbébolájà in his theatre troupe and extensively use oral poetry in his plays like *Qba Kò* So, Morèmi, Osun and Ajagun Nlá etc. (Ògúndèjì 1988 and 1992a). The use of Yorùbá oral poetry in these plays had in one way or the other contributed to the globalisation of Yorùbá oral poetry during and after the performances of these plays in the Western world.

We must also mention the contribution of modern musicians in portraying Yorùbá oral poetry to the whole world using the Western world as a window. Some of these musicians re-create the oral poetic pieces. Among these musicians are *jùjú* practitioners. Examples of jùjú musicians are Túndé King, Òjògé Daniel, Benjamin

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¹⁰ As shown by Ògúndèjì (1992a), there is a controversy on whether this theatre should be named after Ogunde. Ògúndèjì explains that the fact that Ogunde was the first person to make this theatre a profession in Nigeria, the theatre could be named after him because many inventions were named after their inventors.

Adéróunmú popularly known as Kòkòrò, Moses Oláìyá, I.K. Dairo, Ebenezer Obey, Àyìndé Bákàrè, King Sunny Adé, Prince Adékúnlé, Şégun Adéwálé, Dayò Kujore, Káyòdé Fásolá, Délé Abíódún, Empror Pick Peters and Sir Shinna Peters. Highlife is another popular music through which Yorùbá oral poetry has been marketed across the world. Among highlife musicians are Bobby Benson, Fàtàì Rolling Dollar, Orlando Owoh, Túnjí Oyèlànà, Dípò Şodipò, Adé Wesco, Adéolú Akínsànyà, Felá Aníkúlápó-Kútì, Victor Oláìyá and Orlando Julius. Àpàlà musicians, including Yusuf Olátúnjí, Àrúnà Ìṣòlá and Àyìnlá Omowúrà, are also among Yorùbá musicians who have immensely contributed to popularising Yorùbá song across the Western and Asian worlds. Equally important to the globalisation of Yorùbá oral poetry are fújì musicians like Àyìndé Barister, Àyíndé Wàsíù, Adéwálé Àwúbà, Àyìné Àlàbí Pasuma, Saheed Òṣùpá, Sule Màláìkà among others. Many hip-hop artists also contribute to the globalisation of Yorùbá poetry. Musicians like Davido, 2face Idibia, 9nice, Eedris Abdulkareem, Wande Coal, Sunny Nneji, D'Banj, P Square, Styl Pluss and Weird MC use various types of Yorùbá oral poetry in an adaption manner (Babalolá, 2009).

The above Yorùbá musicians take Yorùbá philosophical perspectives which occur in Yorùbá oral traditions, i.e. poetry as the basis of their songs. Many of them even adapt one particular Yorùbá oral poetic type or the other. For example, Julius Orlando Ekemode, a popular Yorùbá highlife musician adapts the Yorùbá deities' invocations (òrìṣà pípè) and ìwúre (prayer) in the video clip of Ádára¹¹ as contained in the excerpt below:

(Performance of sacrifice offering as an intro to the lyric)

Osun Priest: Obì ìbọ tá a bọ rè é o

This is the kolanut of sacrifice that

we made

Adúrà re ó gbà o Your prayer shall be answered

Audience: *Àse* Amen

Priest: Á jú ọ sise ò You shall do it successfully

Audience: *Àse* Amen

Priest: Kò níi yí o lóó o It shall not be unsuccessful

Audience: Àse Amen

Priest: *Qlóhun ò núi jé o té o* God will guide you from falling

into disgrace

Audience: Aṣe Amen

Priest: Àwa náà ò níí té o We will also not fall into disgrace

Audience: Àse Amen

Someone: Osóogbó òòò Osóogbó òòò!

¹¹ The lyric was digitalised from VHS tape, compiled and uploaded on the internet by Zooka (Dean) in May 2008.

Audience: *Ooore Yèyé òòò* Good Yèyé (Mother)!

(Then the song begins)

Call: Olúwa, tiwá dowó ę ò God, our lives are in your hands

Oba, tiwá dowó e King, it is in your hands Odùduwà, jệ kó vẹ wá ò Odùduwà, let it be well with us Olórun, jé kó ye wá God, let it be well with us Òşun, jệ kó vẹ wá òòò Òsun, let it be well with us Báwa, sàgàn dolómo Provide child for the barren Òrúnmìlà, jệ kó yẹ wá o Òrúnmìlà, let it be well with us Olùgbàlà, jé kó ye wá The saviour, let it be well with us Obòkun, jé kó ve wá o Obòkun, let it be well with us Ògún, lànà rere kò wá Ògún, pave good path for us

Qbàtálá, jệ kó yệ wá òòò... Obàtálá let it be well with us

Response: Aseeee ò àse May it be so

Àṣẹẹẹ ò àṣẹ May it be so

Call: Ká kộlémộlé That we should be building many

houses

Response: \hat{A} see \hat{e} \hat{e} \hat{e} May it be so

Call: *Ká lówó lówó* That we should be rich

Response: Aseeee à ase May it be so

Call: *Ká bímọlémộ* That we should have many

children

Response: \hat{A} seeçe \hat{o} \hat{a} see May it be so

Call: Omo ni kó sin wá That our children should bury us

Response: \hat{A} seeçe \hat{o} \hat{a} se... May it be so Call: \hat{A} \hat{a} \hat{d} \hat{a} \hat{d} \hat{a} \hat{d} It shall be well It shall be well

Á dára fégbé wa ò It shall be well with our group

Á ye wá kalé It shall end well with us

Response: Á á dárá ò It shall be well

À à dárá o It shall be well

Á dára fégbé wa ò

It shall be well with our group

Á ye wá kalé

It shall be well with us till the end

The intro performance is a replica of supplication which is many times rendered as incantation ($of\hat{o}$), a Yorùbá oral poetic type) during sacrificial offering inYorùbá traditional religious services. In the sentences of this incantation, there are assertive sentence markers like "... δ ..., δ ...

Generally, the style of presentation of the above song and its philosophical base portrays the performative nature of Yorùbá oral poetic genres. Staging this kind of performance abroad like how Orlando Julius and many of the above artists did during and after Nigerian's independence is a way of promoting and making Yorùbá oral poetry to be known worldwide.

The academics and literary scholars also make a great contribution in globalising Yorùbá oral poetry. This had started even before the Christian missionaries came to the Western part of Africa. Before the advent of missionaries in West Africa, there had been an Islamic orthography of the Yorùbá language called *ajami* or *waka*¹². According to Sanni (2011), many *ajami* materials still in private holdings of some Islamic scholarly families. Topics which some of the available *ajami* materials treated, according to Sanni (2011 and 2017), include didacticism, historical accounts, medicinal and healing instructions, incantations and magical practices. Sanni (2017) expatiates that a notable Islamic scholar and poet who was widely known across West Africa with his style of song in *ajami* Yorùbá, and whose documentation was said to be the oldest *ajami* Yorùbá was Badamasi b. Musa Agbaji, his death was guessed to be around 1891.

Though available materials on *ajami* Yorùbá are not enough in order to determine the degree of its contribution in globalising Yorùbá oral poetry, the few pointed to in Sanni (2011 and 2017) are pieces of evidence to prove that *ajami* was once used in private documentation of some Yorùbá poetry in an attempt to making it readable for other West African people, who could read in the Arabic language.

Efforts of missionaries and expatriates, who came to Nigeria to spread Christianity and to reduce Yorùbá among other West African languages into writing was a landmark achievement in globalising Yorùbá oral poetry. As earlier discussed by Olábímtán (1974), Ògúndèjì (1992b) also notes that the first Yorùbá written poetry came on board in the year 1848 by Henry Townsend, an Anglican missionary. Ògúndèjì explains that after the period of translating English written poetry into Yorùbá, the transcription of Yorùbá oral poetry started. An example given by Ògúndèjì was the use of some Yorùbá proverbs and folktales in *Nígbà Tí Qwó Bá Dilè* (a Yorùbá newspaper started in 1914). Ògúndèjì, also notes that the compilation of Yorùbá proverbs reflected in the dictionary written by Bishop Àjàjí Crowther and the oral poetry of Aríbilóṣòó

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¹² According to Sanni (2011 and 2017), this is an Arabic version of orthography to which many local languages of Western African communities were reduced. Like other West African lands, the Muslim people of Yorùbáland also document some of their literature and poem in *ajami*.

which Líjàdù compiled and published in a book titled *Kékeré Ìwé Orin Aríbilóṣó*. Similarly, Obasá as revealed by Ògúndèjí did some compilation of Yorùbá oral poetry which helped him in writing his collection of poetry texts. The point being emphasised here is that all these attempts contributed to the rise and ultimate globalisation of Yorùbá oral poetry because the foreigners who came here to study both the Yorùbá literature and culture read them and even refer to them in their works.

Among the academics who are either Nigerians or non-Nigerians that have transcribed, analysed and documented Yorùbá oral poetry, published them in international books and journals include Gbàdàmósí and Beier's (1959) work on Yorùbá proverb, Abímbólá's (1968 and 1969) compilation of *Ifá* poetry, Babalolá's (1966) collection and analysis of the content and form of *ìjálá*, Bascom's (1969) compilation and analysis on *Ifá* poetry, Olájubú's (1972) compilation of *iwì egúngún*, Finnegan (1977) who worked on oral poetry in Africa in general, and Babalolá (2000) among many others.

Furthermore, the rise and development of the Yorùbá film industry have contributed to the globalisation of Yorùbá oral poetry. Àlàmú (2010) posits that in many Yorùbá films, there are copious instances of the use of oral poetry like of o (incantation), *ìwúre* (prayer to deities) and *ese ifá* poetry. *Ofò*, according to Àlàmú (2010), is deployed in Obúko Dúdú and Èkùró Olójà. Àlàmú's list of the Yorùbá films in which *ìwúre* is used includes Ówò Blow, Bàbá Àgbà, Èkúró Olójà and Ó Le Kú. The films in which ese ifá is employed, according to Àlàmú, are Èkùró Olójà, Ó Le Kú and Ti Olúwa Ni Ilè. Many Yorùbá films in this millennium are globally patronised. Mainframe Film and Television Productions produces Yorùbá home videos which are popularly watched in the Western world, North and South America and other West African countries. Using Yorùbá oral poetry in these films is a way of globalising the genre; through this, many foreigners who do not know about the genre are getting familiar with them. According to Ekwuasi (2014), Nollywood has not only totally taken over the domestic market but has also been rated as second-best among the filmmaking industries of the world. This means Yorùbá filmmakers who are notable collaborators in the Nigerian film industry called Nollywood have taken Yorùbá oral poetry into the global world.

The relevance of the internet in posting the recorded performance of Yorùbá oral poetry is an indisputable factor that has contributed immensely to globalising the genre. In this sense, Yorùbá oral poetry is being technologised. In other words, technology is deployed to aid the globalisation of Yorùbá oral poetry. This has not just started;

Adéjùmò (2009) states that it started in 1970. Researchers of Yorùbá oral poetry make use of celluloid to record the oral poetry. According to Adéjùmò (2009), this marked the beginning of visual recording. Adéjùmò (2009:5) historicises that by 1976, there was emergence of film industry with Olá Balógun production of Àjàní Ògún, between 1976 and 1980, "Aiyé, Jaíyésinmi, Àròpin N Tenia (Hubert Ogunde's), Kádàrá, Taxi Driver Parts I and II, Ìyá Ni Wúrà (Adéyemí Afoláyan), Òrún Móoru, Àare Àgbáyé and Moṣebólátán (Moses Oláìyá)". All these plays employ several types of Yorùbá oral poetry which globalise the poetic genres.

Internet in today's global world has turned the whole world into a village where it is very much easy to relate with people in very distant locations. With the internet, many oral poets have uploaded their poetry performances online. Students of Yorùbá oral poetry all over the world do upload oral poetry on the internet. Many traditional festivals in which oral poetry plays a prominent role have been uploaded. Example of such festivals are Òṣun Òṣogbo festival, Èyò festival, Ṣàngó festival, Edì festival, Egúngún festival, Gèlèdé festival and Ògún festival in Ondó. Thus, Yorùbá oral poetry is no more hidden; it has travelled far beyond its traditional local domain.

2.1.6 Historical and geographical description of Ìbàràpá and Òkè-Ògùn people of Òyó state

Ìbáràpá is a group of Yorùbá people which cover the geographical location of the Southwestern corner of Òyó State. The area was named after the pod of melon (*bàrà ègúsî*) which its seeds are commonly eaten in the area. According to Olárewájú, Fátókí and Ògúnsolá (2018) Ìbàràpá geographical area is located around the latitudes 70.15' N and 70.55' N and longitudes 30E and 30.30' E. The area is located nearly 100 km north of the Lagos coast and 95 km in the west of Ìbadàn respectively. The area is described by Olárewájú, Fátókí and Ògúnsolá (2018) to have been bordered by the Yorùbá people of Òkè Ògùn. This is in the northern area of Ìwájòwà, Kájolà and Ìṣéyìn Local Government Areas of Òyó State. The area is also spread to the eastern part of Ìdó Local Government. Ìbàràpá geographical area is also bordered by Yewa/Ègbádò in its western part and Abéòkútà to the south. As noted by Olárewájú, Fátókí, and Ògúnsolá, Ìbàràpá geographical area is approximately 2,496 km² in size. Ìbàràpá land is mostly covered with savannah; its long time ago natural vegetation was rainforest but has changed to derived savanna as a result of constant deforestation through bush burning. The land

structure of Ìbàràpá lies at elevations ranging between 120 and 200 meters above sea level, rocks in the area can measure 340 meters, this is approximately 1,115 feet, (Kólá, 2006 and Olárewájú, Fátókí and Ògúnsolá 2018). The area consists of seven major towns namely, Èrúwà, Lànlátè, Igbó-Orà, Ìdèrè, Ayétè, Tápà and Ìgàngàn. Farming is a business mostly practised in the area.

The people of Òkè Ògùn (Upper part of river Ògùn) are otherwise referred to as Ònkò. According to Obed, Adémólá and Ògúndáre (2011), Òkè Ògùn is situated in the north-western part of Oyo State, Nigeria. The area is marked by River Ògùn. As maintained by Obed, Adémólá and Ògúndáre, the geographical location of Òke-Ògùn is 038 35"-048 13"E and 0088 05"-0098 08"N. Obed, Adémólá and Ògúndáre include that the land of Òkè Ògùn is between 77 and 456 m above sea level. Òkè Ògùn is bordered by the Republic of Benin to the west, Ìbàràpá in the southwest and Kwara state in the north. According to Obed, Adémólá and Ògúndáre, the precambrian basement complex is made up of magnates, gneiss and schist. The rock unit of Okè Ogùn as mentioned by Obed, Adémólá and Ògúndáre is undifferentiated meta-sediments, also including granite, granite gneiss and porphyritic granite. Okè Ogun is endowed with mineral resources such as tantalite and marble. The temperature of the area is rated at 278C throughout the year by Obed, Adémólá and Ògúndáre with relative humidity rated at 60-80 % high. The total population of Òkè Ògùn as of 2011 is 1,616,980. Òkè Ògùn people were historically a part of the Old Qyo empire (Johnson, 1921). The Old Qyo National Park is located in the area. Other tourist sights like the hanging lake of Adó Àwáyè (Ìyàké Lake) and the Òkè-Adó Mountain are found in Òkè Ògùn (naijatreks.com, 2016 and itesiwaju.oy.gov.ng, 2016). The settlement pattern of the area is not different from the typical Yorùbá architectural pattern. This consists of a central market square and a royal palace around which other structures are built. Okè-Ògùn people are spread across ten Local Government areas of Òyó State. Traditional occupations of Òkè Ògùn people include the cultivation of food and cash crops such as yam, cassava, cocoa, timber, tobacco and plantain/banana. Other major indigenous occupations of the area include cloth weaving $(aso \ \partial k\dot{e})$, blacksmithing and production of pottery and cooking utensils from metal wire. Òkè Ògùn people are also versatile in cross-border trade, especially with neighbouring countries like the Federal Republic of Benin and the Federal Republic of Togo. The religions practised in Okè Ogùn like other Yorùbáland are Islam, Christianity and African Traditional Religion. Towns in Okè Ogùn include Sakí, Ìséyìn, Ìgbòho, Kìsí, Adó Àwáyè, Òtu, Şèpètèrí, Ìluà, Ìsemi-Ilé, Agúnrege, Ìwéré-Ilé, Ìtasá,

Ìpàpó, Ògbòòrò, Tedé, Baba-Ode, Igbójàyè, Ìgànná, Ìlerò, Igbópè, Ìràwò, Òjé-Owódé and Baàsí.

Ìbàràpá and Òkè Ògùn people of Òyó have a long history of relationship with Old Òyó and some other ancient cities like Ifè, Ìbàdàn, Abéòkútà and Ìlorin. Many of these settlements evolved after the collapse of the Old Òyó empire while some had been in existence before its collapse. This is evident in Johnson's (1921) account of Aláàfin Àjàká who succeeded Sàngó and beheaded one of his warlords (Eléńre) for disobeying his order as regards the continual execution of a particular war. Elénre's head fell off his neck, but instead of dropping to the ground got stuck to Ajùwon's hand and prevented him from eating. All herbalists in the kingdom were summoned to rescue the king from Eléńre's head but they could not salvage the situation. Asawo, the founder of Ayétè, one of the seven towns in Ìbàràpá, after which the kingship title of the town was named, arrived to try his best. He began to praise Eléńré instead of abusing him like the previously invited herbalists. As a result, Eléńre's head fell off the king's hand and the case was settled. The rationale behind this account is to prove that the incident occurred before the collapse of the Old Òyó Empire (Òyó Àjàká). Asàwo who was said to have helped Elénre out of the problem was the founder of Ayétè, one of the seven towns in Ìbàràpá. Aṣàwo was said to have been a baleful herbalist during his lifetime. For Ayétè to have been existing during the lifetime of Aláafin Ajaká, that means Ìbàrapá and Òkè-Ògún towns have been existing simultaneously with the Old Òyó Empire. Johnson (1921) chronicles that during the reign of Aláàfin Onígbógi, the king of Tapa (Nupe) besieged Óyó and completely got its control. Onígbógi fled to Gbere, an Ìbàrùbá town. When the situation in Gbere was also getting tense, Ìràwò, a Yorùbá town, was also raided by Ìbàrùbá armies; subsequently, Òfinràn (a young prince then) took Òyó people out of the land and set for Òyó. He assembled his people at Kusu where he finally died. Johnson (1921) further explains that Ofinran was succeeded by his son, Egungunojú, who proposed to take his father's corpse to Ìgbòho, a town to be founded. On their way, the cord with which the corpse was tied broke and another one was made. The place where this occurred was where Ṣakí palace was built. Egungunojú proceeded to build Ìgbòho where Òfinràn was buried. Ọrọnpọto, Ajíbóyèdé and Abíípa were the other three kings that reigned at Ìgbòho. Abíípa took Òyó people out of the town. Part of these accounts was also discussed in Adédèjì (1969) and Ògúndèjì (1992) in connection with the origin of *eégún aláré* (Yorùbá masquerade theatre).

Three Òkè Ògùn towns were mentioned in the history revealed above are Ìràwò, Ṣakí and Ìgbòho. We delve into these historical facts to show that Òkè Ògùn and Ìbàràpá people are Òyó Yorùbá and many towns in the area have strong historical connections with one another as with Òyó town herself. Another historical account that shows the long existence of towns in Òkè Ògùn was the expedition in which Àfònjá was sent to besiege Ìwéré by Aláàfin Aólè. Ìwéré-Ilé was Aláàfin Àjàgbó's mother home, and there was an ancient restriction that banned warlords from besieging the town. Realising that the king wanted him dead, Àfònjá revolted against him and insisted that he should commit suicide (Johnson 1921). The historical account of the war between Igbó-Orà and Àgìdì of Sàgan-ùn recorded by Johnson (1921) is another piece of evidence showing the long existence of towns and people of Ìbàràpá and Òkè-Ògún. Àgìdì fought Igbó-Orà in support of Kúrunmí of Ìjàyè while Igbó-Orà was in support of Ògúnmólá; in collaboration with Igbó-Orà and Ìbàdàn army, Kúrùnmí and his ally, Àgìdì were defeated at Igbó-Orà. To conclude this part, there also exists a popular Ifá verse on Eléko Ìdèrè's (the pap seller of Ìdèrè) ingratitude behaviour towards her benefactor (ifá priest):

Àdá kộ kò roko Cutlass refuses to weed

Àdá kộ kò yènà It as well refuses to construct a road

Adíá fún eléko Ìdèrè Ifá divination was made for the pap seller of Ìdèrè Ekún ajé ló ń sun Who was crying because her business was not

growing

Ebo lawo ní kó se Her priest told her to make a sacrifice

Now pap seller of Ìdèrè

O róṣọ dúdú

O róṣọ pupa

Now pap seller of Ìdèrè

You wear black cloth

Likewise you wear the red

O fàyìnrín gbàjá You tie a yellow cloth around your waist

O lé kenkà You stand right

O sì lo ò jèrè And you said your do not gain

Eléko Ìdèrè se bó o ló ò jèrè The pap seller of Ìdèrè, you said you do not gain

This *ese Ifá*¹³ (Ifá verse) narrates how the pap seller of Ìdèrè, popularly known as Eléko Ìdèrè showed ingratitude toward her priest. Eléko Ìdèrè in the narrative of the above *ese Ifá* from *Ìròsùn méjì* was ungrateful because she refused to compensate her *Ifá* priest, who divined for her on credit despite the fact that her business has blossomed with huge profit. The *Ifá* verse establishes that Ìdèrè, one of the seven Ìbàràpá towns, mentioned in the above *Ifá verse* has to be an ancient Yorùbá town for it to be mentioned in the *Ifá* literary corpus. To authenticate the claim of this *Ifá* verse, *èko* (pap) is among the

¹³ This *esę Ifá* was collected from Baba awo Awóṣọlá Táíwò Fátósìn of no. 14, Ḥyìtà pipe line, Ògìjo, Ògùn State.

lucrative business which women engage in, in this town up till today. This also lends credence to our claim as regards Ìbàràpá and Òkè Ògùn being ancient extracts of Ọ̈yó and that they have a long-dated history.

2.1.7 Extant works on orin kete and orin agbè

Ògúndèjì (1979) explores sàkàrá song. The research was carried out at Ìsemilé. Àlàbá (1985) also investigates the social and stylistic features of sàkàrá otherwise known as orin agbè. Towns from which Àlàbá collected data on şàkàrá include Akoyà, Igbó-Orà, Ìlota, Ìlorin, Ìluà, Ìdèrè and Ìgan Aládé. Ògúndèjì (1979) traces the history of the genre to Ilorin. Alábá (1985) moves a step further by being critical in tracing the origin of the song to Babáyemí Ìtíolú (Sàngó) and how it was later embraced by other Aláàfin, the warlords (i.e. Gbòńkáà) and generalissimo (i.e. Àfònjá) after Ìtíolú's demise. He concludes that the Ilorin popular poem dadakúadà emanated from orin agbè. Şàkàrá (orin agbè) has a long historical accounts than dadakúàdà. Òpádòtun's (2002) opinion is the same with Alabá's (1979) that orin agbè performance began during the reign of Aláafin Itíolú. Ópádótun (2002) avers that it is played to stimulate the king anytime he was going to war. He liked to listen to the song because he got more courage and power whenever he listened to it. Opádotun (2002) explains further that the song has spread to many parts of the Yorùbáland, including Òkè Ògùn and Ìbàràpá. Àlàbá (1985) mentions the set of oral poetry with which orin agbè could be compared; these include rárà, orin etíverí, orin àdàmò, orin ògbèlè, dadakúàdà and orin kete.

Ògúndèjì (1985) discusses the musical accompaniment of the genre. He explains how $agb\grave{e}$ is made with the use of a gourd enmeshed with the seed of $\grave{i}d\grave{o}$ (a seed used in playing $\grave{i}d\grave{o}$ game) which differ from $aj\acute{e}$ (cowries) used to enmesh $\rlap{s}\grave{e}k\grave{e}r\grave{e}$. He also categorises $agb\grave{e}$ under the family of ideophones. Ògúndèjì goes further to categorise the ensemble of $agb\grave{e}$ under three groups which are omele, $\grave{e}d\grave{a}$ and $\grave{i}y\acute{a}$ $agb\grave{e}$ (mother gourd). According to Ògúndèjì (1979), three sub-sets of gourds fall under omele; they are konko, kunku and $\grave{e}so$. He identifies two modes of playing $agb\grave{e}$. These are: by beating and by shaking. The author mentions that the rattle sound is more prominent when $agb\grave{e}$ is shaken than when it is beaten. Àlábá (1985) also gives a detailed discussion on $agb\grave{e}$ ensembles. The ensembles, according to him, consist of four $agb\grave{e}$ which are $agb\hat{e}$ (the mother gourd, and also the talking gourd), $ad\acute{e}m\acute{e}rãn$ (the advisers to the mother gourd), $agb\hat{e}ragain$ which is next to $ad\acute{e}m\acute{e}ragain$ and the last $agb\hat{e}ragain$ (the smallest and the foremost among the set). Àlábá (1985) states that in Igbó-Qrà and Ìgán Aládé, gong is

part of the ensembles. In Ìlorin, Ìdèrè and Akòyà, àgídigbò (a Yorùbá box-guitar) is added to the ensembles. Òpádòtun (2002) also affirms that gourds only made up the ensemble of the song in the olden days but now many musical instruments have been introduced into it.

In the categorisations of *agbè* ensembles above, both Ògúndèjì and Àlàbá recognise *omele/konko* as the foremost set of the gourd. Ògúndèjì classifies it into three mentioned above. *Èdà* is the second *agbè* musical instrument recognised by both researchers. Ògúndèjì (1979) and Àlàbá (1985) recognise *ìyá agbè* as the mother gourd and as well as the talking gourd. There are two main differences in the categorisations of the two scholars. First, Ògúndèjì's categorisation does not recognise *adámòràn* which Àlàbá says performs an advisory function to the mother gourd. The second difference is that Ògúndèjì subdivides *omele* into three. Out of the three subdivisions, *konko* is the only gourd that matches *konkolo*, otherwise called *omele* in Àlàbá's (1985) categorisation of *orin agbè* ensemble. The difference between Ògúndèjì (1979) and Àlàbá's (1985) categorisations of *agbè* ensembles can be illustrated with the **Table** 2. 1.

Table 2. 1 Tabular presentation of $agb\grave{e}$ ensemble according to Ògúndèjì (1979) and Àlàbá's (1985) categorisations

Scholars	1st Gourd	2nd Gourd	3rd Gourd	4th Gourd	5th	6th
Ògúndèjì (1979)	Omele i. Konko ii. Kunku iii. Èṣọ	Èdà		Ìyá agbè		
Àlàbá (1985)	Omele/ konkolo	Èdà	Adámộràn	Ìyá agbè	Agogo	Àgídì- gbo

We should be able to identify the reason behind the differences in the two categorisations. Àlàbá's (1985) categorisation does not have *kunku* and *èso* as recognised by Ògúndèjì (1985) but has *adámòràn* instead. According to Àlàbá, at Igbó-Orà and Ìgán Aládé, gong is part of the ensembles, and at Ìlorin, Ìdèrè and Akoyà, *àgídigbò* (a Yorùbá box-guitar) is added to the ensembles. This seems to be like *agbè* ensembles are different from one town to another. It can also be said that the inclusion of *adámòràn* into *agbè* ensembles might be among the new ideas introduced to the genre after the time of Ògúndèjì's research. Also, the reason for the reduction of three sets of *omele* as shown in Ògùndèjì (1979) into one by Àlàbá (1985) may be a result of the introduction of *adámòràn* which may be capable of performing the functions that the gourds removed can perform.

Ògúndèjì (1979) identifies types of performers in the *agbè* orchestra. According to him, they are the song leader/soloist (lead vocalist), chorus singers, *ìyàwó agbè* dancer (a man dressed as a woman) and acrobats. The *agbè* artistes that Àlàbá (1985) identifies are *olórin* (the songster(s)), *oníjó* (the dancer(s)) and *onílù/elégbè* (the instrumentalists, who are also the chorus). Both researchers identify the vocalist (both the lead vocalist and the chorus). They both show that the chorus is also the gourd players. They identify the dancer(s), among them is the *ìyàwó agbè* dancer. The only performers Àlàbá does not mention are the acrobats. The reason Àlàbá does not mention this performer of *orin agbè* is that he focuses more on the socio-stylistic aspect of the genre than its performative aspect.

Ògúndèjì elucidates the performance structure of the genre. This is discussed in three parts; introduction, homage and farewell song. Àlàbá structures the performance of *orin agbè* into four out of which three are the most important. These are; the overture, the entertaining and didactic utterances, the valedictory sayings and other sayings. Considering the most important part of the structure, Àlàbá identifies a tripartite structure in *orin agbè*. The part called homage by Ògúndèjì is inaccurate. Homage is one of the themes discussed in the performance of Yorùbá oral poetry. Most Yorùbá oral poetry performances have three major structures: the overture (the beginning), the plays (the middle) and the farewell/valedictory performance (the end) (Ògúndèjì, 1991 and 1992b).

Ògúndèjì (1979) does not use theory to analyse his findings on *orin agbè*. This is no doubt an obvious omission. Àlàbá (1985) deloys Marxist literary theory to analyse the poetic genre. He justifies the reason for adopting the Marxist literary theory that

"agbè artists are representatives of the masses", (19). It must, however, be mentioned that Ògúndèjì's (1979) work is a long essay. Though he does not claim to use any theoretical framework, however, his work is a literary structural descriptive analysis. Àlàbá who study is a Ph.D thesis makes use of Marxist literary theory, claiming that agbè artists are representatives of the masses. As a result, Àlábá views agbè performance from a socialist approach, using stylistics in analysing agbè performers' socio-political observations.

Ògúndèjì discusses the sociological importance of the song, among these are its use at several occasions like naming and funeral ceremonies and also its eulogistic function in praising the audience. The topics of discussion of the genre as expatiated by Ògúndèjì (1979) include panegyric, past performances, encouragement, boasting, incantation and social issues. Àlàbá (1985) also discusses the social functions of *orin agbè*. The social functions of the genre he discusses include the communicative functions with a member of the group and with an immediate audience, the theme of praise and identification, advisory role, comments on societal issues, entertainment, the dance styles, the theme of homage paying, the use of incantations and supplications.

Ògúndèjì, states that ṣàkàrá (orin agbè) falls under dance music used for recreational purposes, and, therefore, not religious related. Àlàbá (1985) has a contrary opinion. The ritual aspects of orin agbè are explained in Àlàbá (1985). He mentions that there are annual sacrificial rites in the worship of agbè. In this aspect of the genre, food items are offered as a sacrifice to agbè. Similarly, there are some taboos. According to Àlàbá, agbè player must not intentionally break the gourd and whenever the gourd breaks, some food items must be offered as a sacrifice. Also, noteworthy is the belief which Àlàbá mentions that is held by Ìdèrè àgbè artistes. He says they believe that the playing of the agbè in the blazing sunny afternoon attracts evil spirits which are malevolent to society.

Ògúndèjì analyses the language use in *orin agbè*. This is examined under the figure of speech namely; the figure of sound, stylistic features and traditional oral materials. The figurative expressions identified and analysed are metaphor, personification, simile and metonymy. The figures of sound explicated are onomatopoeia and ideophone. Structural, partial lexico-structural and lexical repetition, tonal counterpoint, tonal distortion and vowel lengthening are the stylistic features Ògúndèjì (1979) identifies in *orin agbè*. The traditional materials he draws attention to in the song are *orikì* (praise poetry) and folktales. He as well discusses the composition

of the song. Ògúndèjì explains that there are variables in the arrangement of words of the song. This, according to him, is based on the improvisation and creativity of performers. The vibration of voice and vowel lengthening, the lead singer joining the chorus, the member of the chorus joining the lead singer and the lead singer calling for the purse of the song are the styles and techniques adopted in *orin agbè*. He also examines the reflection of *ònkò* dialect of Yorùbá in *orin agbè*. His work to be fair to him is limited in scope covering only Ìṣemi and mainly a single artist group. The data were minimal. This is because he was doing first-degree long essay research. However, he was able to document many *agbè* songs of Ìṣemi *agbè* group. Ògúndèjì (1979) concludes that *orin agbè* in Ìṣemilé needs to be improved to conform with societal development.

Àlàbá (1985) also appraises the language and style of *orin agbè*. He gives a vivid explanation of the linguistic resources employed by *agbè* performers during the course of the performance. Among the resources analysed are the tonal features of the genre, which include the basic three-line stanza pattern and the poly-line stanza pattern. Also, the lexical characteristics of the genre. The lexical features of *orin agbè* discussed are the use of high frequency of near-synonyms, the metalanguage of the genre, the use of a dialectal variation of words, the derived nouns, and the use of ideophones and loanwords. The syntactic features of *orin agbè* explored are the use of simple noun phrases, and the use of different sentence types such as declarative, interrogative, negative, topicalised and imperative sentences. The semantic features of *orin agbè* are also examined. The devices analysed under these include ambiguity, the substitution of certain personal pronouns for agentive prefixes, use of certain peculiar words, use of variable word lengths and dialectical variation.

The styles of *orin agbè* are also extensively analysed. The styles Àlàbá (1985) expatiates are speech style which includes genre speech styles and situational speech styles. The genre speech style encompasses repetitive solo-refrain in singing interspersed with speech/recitation and the repetitive solo-refrain in singing interspersed with chanted utterances and spoken utterances. The second is the situational speech styles of *orin agbè*. The speech styles mentioned under it are *èle* (high tempo) and $w\acute{e}r\grave{o}$ (slow tempo). Other stylistic devices analysed are rhythmic devices which include syntactic parallelism, tonal patterning and line lengthening and the use of the balance of sense in the text. Figurative expressions identified and explained include simile, analogy, metaphor and wordplay. Àlábá (1985) concludes this part by drawing out the general

characteristic features of *orin agbè* which include "a preponderance of call-and-purpose-of-call rhythm-units, the use of a great number of tonal patterning, striking occurrences of seeming or apparent incongruities between the repeated refrains of some on-going songs with some chanted utterances incorporated into the performances by the songster(s), and the liveliness and relative straightforwardness of its language" (284-285).

It is expedient to note that one of the reasons that motivate this study is Àlàbá's submission that "Orin agbè is a rich Yorùbá oral poetry that is worthy of a painstaking research study" (229). What Àlàbá actually points out through this statement is that his research has not catered for everything about orin agbè; further studies need to focus on the genre. He finally discusses the future of the genre. He asserts that despite the challenges (western education, religious and rural-urban migration issues), orin agbè would survive. He mentions the impact of the cultural festival, and the influence of some elite, who love their culture as factors that will be working in favour of the modernisation of orin agbè.

Despite this remarkable study carried out by Ògúndèjì and Àlàbá, there still exists some aspects that are yet to be explored in the poetic genre of orin agbè. If performance is the main feature of oral African poetry as noted by Finnegan (1970 a & b), Olájubù (1981), Ogúndèji (2000), Laurea (2004) and Barber (2005) among others, therefore, there are some aspects of *orin agbè* that need further detailed analysis different from how Ògúndèjì and Àlàbá present them. These include different performance styles, types of settings, the styles of playing the musical instruments, further explanation of the functions of each gourd and the dancing styles. The coded meanings in the genre also need to be studied. This can only be done properly through the use of the theory of sign and signification (semiotics). Similarly, the role of women in some varieties of agbè groups like Igbó-Orà group is not elaborated. The family repertory nature of this genre is also yet to be fully discussed. Àlàbá (1985) draws attention to the fact that some oral poetic types are related to orin agbè. Among such oral poetic types is orin kete. Àlàbá (1985) only points to this fact but does not elaborate it. In the present study, attempt is made to fill this gap by comparing the performance of the two poetic types. Unlike the existing studies on orin agbè, this work focuses more on the performance aspects of the genre. The performance aspect is examined in detail in the present study because it is considered fundamental to the poetic genre.

Orin kete, on the other hand, is among the Yorùbá oral poetry that are not widespread. The reason is that we are yet to find serious research work on this oral genre. Similarly, many people are not familiar with the genre. Nevertheless, although they might not have discussed the genre extensively, some scholars have mentioned or alluded to this poetic genre in their works. Owólabí (1974)¹⁴ identifies Ajóbíewé, one of the warriors that went to Gbékúba as *kete* song artist. He also lists the song as one of the dance music used by the people of Igbódolá to welcome Kókóróayé and others from their expedition in searching of Aléranjálògbunòrun at Gbékúba Forest.

Ôkìkí ti kàn ká ìlú pé a ti dé.... Nígbà tí ó se, a rí iwájú tí ó kún fún àwọn ènìà bámúbámú tí gbogbo wọn mbò wá pàdé wa. Kò sí ijó tí kò pé síbè tán: bènbé, kete, gángan, aro, sèkèrè, kàkàkí, sákárà, gbèdu, bàtá, àgèrè, àti béè béè lọ. o.i 101

Information has reached the town that we have arrived... Later, we see a crowd in our front coming to meet us. There is no dance music they did not bring along to welcome us: bệnbé, kete, gángan, aro, ṣèkèrè, kàkàkí, sákárà, gbèdu, bàtá, àgèrè, and so on.

Orin kete in the excerpt is mentioned after $b\dot{e}nb\acute{e}$, this is to show how close both drums are. $B\dot{e}nb\acute{e}$ which orin kete is listed after is one of the full kete ensembles. Another thing to note here is that the genre is listed among the dance music performed at the social occasion as it used to welcome the soldiers who have fought for the progress of their country.

Àlàbá (1985) identifies *orin kete* as one of Yorùbá oral poetic genre when he says:

As it has been said in chapter one, *Orin agbè* is related to many other poetic genres in the language in one way or the other. Of course, it is much more related to certain types than to the others. The former are the types of Yorùbá oral poetry with which *orin agbè* shares the same social context. They belong to the category of genres of Yorùbá oral poetry which are associated with both religious institutions and secular

¹⁴ This is his novel titled *Orí Adé Kìí Sùnta*.

folkways although with emphasis on the latter. Examples of these are *Rárà*, *Orin Èfè*, *Orin Etíyerí*, *Orin Àdàmò*, *Orin Ògbèlè*, *Dadakúàdà* and *Orin kete* (pg.41).

Àlàbá (1985) goes further to describe *Orin kete* as a genre perculiar to Ègbá, Ègbádò and Ìbàràpá areas of Yorùbáland. Òpádòtun, Gbénró and Ọmólàsóyè (2005) explain that *orin kete* is found among Òyó people of Yorùbá. They state that *bènbé* and *àgbámólè¹* are musical instruments played to it. They also give short examples of *kete* lyrics. As said by Òpádòtun, Gbénró and Ọmólàsóyè, the genre is found among Òyó Yorùbá but they did not state the exact place where the genre is found among the Òyó people. The drum they refer to as *àgbámólè* is not really an *àgbámólè*. It is called *kete* which the genre was named after. Their data on *orin kete* are not rich enough to enable a scholarly observation of the distinctive features of the genre. Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwòn (2009) also mention that *kete* could be found in the Ìlorin area of Yorùbáland. It should be noted that *agbè* (gourd) can also be called *kèngbè*. During the course of our research, we get to know that there is an oral genre called *orin kèngbè* in Kwara State, popular among Fulani people. On the other hand, Ìlorin is well known as a place where *orin agbè* was practised. What we want to draw attention to here is that there are no detailed and extensive research works on *orin kete*.

2.2 Theoretical framework

This is the second subsection of this chapter. In carrying out this study, performance theory, comparative literary theory and semiotics are adopted as theoretical framework. How performance theory, comparative literary theory and semiotics are related to Yorùbá oral poetic genres is discussed. Intertextuality, and how it is related to the three theories mentioned above is also elucidated. Apart from general semiotics, other aspects of semiotics explored are semiotics of poetry and cultural semiotics.

2.2.1 Performance theory and Yorùbá oral poetry

According to Schechner (2004), the inception of performative theatre is traceable to the olden days when two or more groups of people met in a particular setting on a seasonal schedule, where an abundance of food and daily needs were available. The

¹⁵ A cylinderical membranophone musical instrument that is having one face covered.

groups met in a fixed period of a particular season to celebrate. The geographical locations where such performances occur include the marketplace, hillside, cave and waterhole sites. These kinds of performances are either ritual activities or entertainment. Mostly, ritual first with entertainment arising later as a derivation deterioration of ritual. An example of this kind of performance, according to Schechner, is the art in the caves of South-West Europe and also the arts of the Aborigines on different landmarks across the world. Schechner maintains that this is a means of transforming natural available spaces into cultural settings; also as a way of making theatres. This, according to Schechner, is illustrated below:

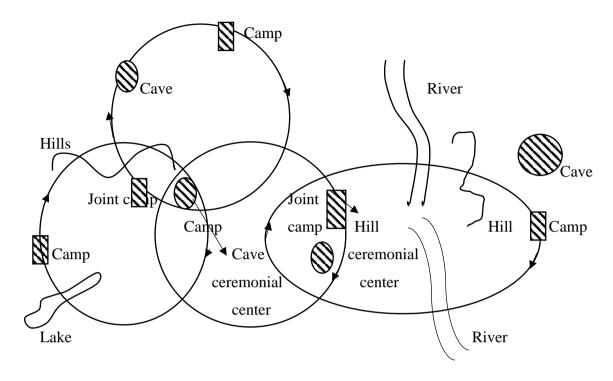


Fig. 2.1 Ceremonial Center (Schechner, 2004: 173)

Schechner adds that the place where seasonal/periodic programmes like hunting among the camps intersect at a landmark is where ceremonial centres occur. The diagram above is applicable to Yorùbá traditional festivals which stand as the base of Yorùbá theatre and performances. Different people of different villages, camps, families and towns meet at a specific place within a specific period firstly for ritual purposes and later for entertainment purposes. In Yorùbá ritual and ceremonial aspects of their festivals, performances of different types which combine oral poetry performance along with dramatic performance take place.

As a result, many scholars of oral poetry are of the opinion that oral poetry is best realised only when it is performed. Other means of its realisation are meant for its preservation. Performance theory is, therefore, necessary for a detailed analysis of oral poetic type. According to Sonnentag (2002:3), performance theory is a "multidimensional and dynamic concept". It is applicable in different disciplines and areas of study. Initially, when we think of performance, we think about theatre. At this juncture, there is a need to look at the relationship between performance and theatre. Similarly, there is a need to explain the importance of performance to the theatre. The position of both in the world of theory are explained.

According to Auslander (2008), theatre and performance are closely related fields but still have some significant differences. Theatre study, according to Auslander (2008), is believed to be an object-driven discipline while performance is a paradigmdriven discipline. This implies that performance has a wide discipline and is more eclectic than theatre. Theatre is operating a streamlined discipline, unlike performance which cuts across every discipline and body of knowledge. This is to say performance occurs mostly in every aspect of life. Considering the theoretical features of these two disciplines, theatre studies according to Auslander is older. According to Auslander, performance from its onset was largely based on a positivistic approach until the 1980s when different theories by different scholars were applied and shaped the nature of the theatrical analysis. On the other hand, performance studies as explained by Auslander started after theatre studies. It emerges as a merging of ideas from the humanistic and social sciences, including theatre, anthropology, literature and sociology. The theory tends to "focus on the idea of performance, understood to be broader and more inclusive than theatre, through the lenses provided by these and other disciplines" (Auslander, 2008: 3). With this, performance is broad in nature, it also contains theatre as a discipline because it is central to all disciplines.

Because of its broad nature, performance theory also accounts for Yorùbá oral poetry. This has been from the inception of each Yorùbá oral poetic type. It does not account for the Yorùbá oral poetic types only but all oral performances irrespective of their social and cultural backgrounds across the globe. The performance of oral traditions in the olden days included ritual, dance and music, play, sport, a trial like duels, ritual combats, courtroom trials and some other performances in everyday life (Schechner, 2004). Considering the forms the performances mentioned above can take, the performance settings of Yorùbá oral poetry could be religious and non-religious, ceremonial and non-ceremonial. Pairing these, Yorùbá oral poetic performance could be religious ceremonial and religious non-ceremonial. It could also be non-religious ceremonial and non-religious non-ceremonial. Religious ceremonial are oral poetry that are performed when observing religious ceremonies while religious non-ceremonial are those performed during religious activities that are not ceremonial. Non-religious ceremonial are secular poetry performed during different ceremonies. Non-religious non-ceremonial are types of Yorùbá oral poetry that are neither religious nor ceremonial. The religious ceremonial examples of Yorùbá oral poetic types are different traditional festival songs across the Yorùbáland like orin odún Òkè Ìbàdàn (Òkè Ìbàdàn festival song), orin odún Edì (Edì festival song), orin Orò (Orò festival song), orin odún Òsun Osògbo (Osun Osògbo festival song), orin kete, ijálá performance during Ogún festival and èsà performance during Egúngún festival among others. Examples of religious nonceremonial are ofò (incantation) and its various forms like àyájó, èpè, àásán and ògèdè. Ese Ifá (Ifá divination poetry) performed during a consultation that is not ceremonial also belongs to this sub-category. Ofò and its forms mentioned above are central to all Yorùbá religious groups. This does not only make them religious poetry but because the supernatural beings invoke in ofo are usually considered gods by Yorùbá people, so the text itself is religiously centred. Example of non-religious ceremonial Yorùbá oral poetic type is rárà ìyàwó. Rárà could not be ascribed to any religious group though some scholars like Opádotun (2002) claim that rárà evolves from Eşù religious worship but the general belief about rárà is that the genre is non-religious. Orin agbè, ègè, òṣàré and àdàmò are other examples of non-religious ceremonial poetry. The non-religious nonceremonial Yorùbá oral poetry are òwe (proverb), àkànlò-èdè (idiom), orin ìremo (lullaby), èébù (vituperation), oríkì (panegyric) among others.

The settings for many Yorùbá oral poetic types, especially those under religious ceremonial, non-religious ceremonial and non-religious non-ceremonial are open-ended

in nature. At times religious non-ceremonial Yorùbá oral poetic setting could also be open-ended but many a time, it is close-ended. An example of religious non-ceremonial Yorùbá oral poetic types in close-ended setting evident in ritual drama ¹⁶. Religious non-ceremonial Yorùbá oral poetic type in the open-ended setting could also be poetry used in the scenes where open sacrifices are made in Yorùbá traditional festivals. In the performance of many Yorùbá poetic types, especially those that belong to religious ceremonial, religious non-ceremonial and non-religious ceremonial mentioned, there exist performance processions. The procession of oral performance setting presented below as suggested by Schechner (2004) with little adjustment can account for religious ceremonial, religious non-ceremonial and non-religious ceremonial Yorùbá oral poetry.

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 $^{^{16}}$ According to Ògúndèjì (1992a and 2000), dialogue exists among initiates of $\dot{E}\dot{y}\dot{\phi}$ masquerade in the sacred groove before going out. This dialogue is to test whether a particular $\dot{E}\dot{y}\dot{\phi}$ masquerade is a bonafide member of the sect. For the fact that this dialogue is poetic in nature, we considered it an oral poetic form here.

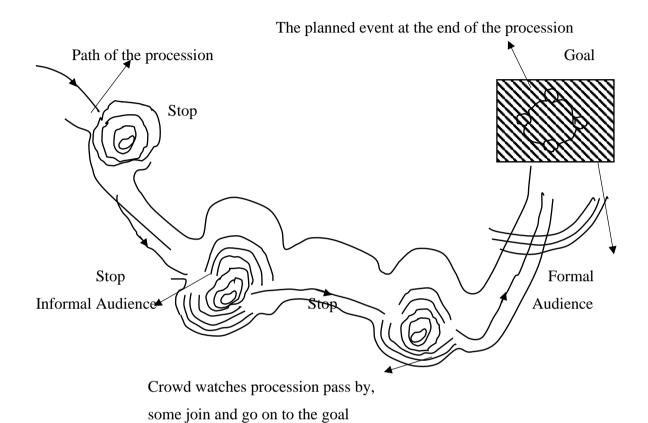


Fig. 2. 2 A Procession (Schechner, 2004:178)

In the case of Yorùbá oral performances, the procession can continue to where it starts. Example of this is in the performance of *egúngún aláré* (Yorùbá masquerade theatre). After their public performance at the designated place of performances which include palace square, market place and open spaces at the houses of the high chiefs (Ògúndèjì, 1992b), the song and dance continue to where it starts. In this type of performance, the procession continues and goes around back to where it starts. As a result of this, the procession must continue with little or no stop to the take-off point. The Fig. 2.3 adapted diagram better accommodates Yorùbá oral poetic performance.

Crowd watches procession pass by, some join and go on to the take-off point An accidental stop Take off point Planned even Goal **▶** Path of the procession Stop Path of the procession Stop Formal **Informal Audience** Audience

Fig. 2. 3 A procession to the place and from the place of Yorùbá oral performance (Researcher's source, 2019)

Yorùbá dramatic festival like *Qdún Edì* at Ifè and *Qdún Adímú* at Èkó (Ògúndèjì, 1992b) where scapegoats in symbolic ritual performances carry away peoples' calamities from the community, the main performer in such oral performance may not return with the procession. He/she is sacrificed at the formal setting of the performance.

According to Barber (2005), performance is carried out by the actors' repertoire of conventions, set pieces, gestures, quips, and gags constituting their verbal and gestural tradition. Barber (2005) submits that African oral genres have fluidity and improvisatory qualities which performance theory has so successfully made use of. According to Ògúndèjì (2000:1), "African oral literature, in general, is performative, including oral poetry and oral narratives". Olájubù (1981:72) earlier affirms this by saying, "without performance..., a Yorùbá oral poetry has no means of existence". Laurea (2004:19) also shares similar opinion, when saying, "Performance is the main feature of oral poetry since it is what distinguishes the oral from the written form". Besides, it is also said that documenting oral literature without its performance is tantamount to a deprivation of its oralness. By this, it means denying its very essence. This is why Olátúnjí (1979) posits that oral poetry could be best documented when the audio-visual features of the performance are documented. Another thing about the performance of Yorùbá oral poetry is that the poet, during the composition of oral lyrics, thinks simultaneously about how it would be performed. Composition and performance in most cases are inseparable. This implies that composition is carried out during the performance. Thus, Laurea (2004) says a performer is a poet, an oral poet, whose determination is to reach out to his audience and have direct contact with them. With their foremost aim of entertaining the audience (Olátúnjí, 1979), the Yorùbá oral poets create an emotional relationship between them. This can be said to be immensely contributive to the success of performance. This, according to Laurea (2004), makes performance to be free and unpredictable. Barber (2005) mentions some other features of performance including genre composition, improvisation of communication with the audience, the use of gesture, the tempo, the poetic rhythm and bodily expression. Reiterating the foregoing, Finnegan (1977) notes that participation of the audience forms a recognised aspect of the performance. According to Manieson and Mireku-Gyimah (2012:1), "The life and reality of oral performance are dependent on the performer and the audience". Laurea's (2004) opinion does not go contrary to this when he says oral literature might be actually delivered by word of mouth, but the words could not speak themselves, somebody must bear the responsibility, and the listeners must pay attention to the nonverbal parts of performance which occur simultaneously with the verbal aspects. The reason for this is that the success of the performance is judged by considering both the verbal and nonverbal aspects.

Different scholars of Yorùbá oral literature like Ògúnbà (1975), Finnegan (1977), Olúkòjú (1978), Olátúnjí (1979 and 1984), Olájubù (1981), Ògúndèjì (1991, 1992, 2000 and 2014), Afolábí (2000), Laurea (2004), Barber (2005) and Raji, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwòn (2009) have worked on Yorùbá oral poetry. These scholars observe that Yorùbá traditional poetry is quintessentially performative in nature because of its orality, its performance requires the collaborative efforts of both the performers and the audienc, some oral poetry are religious-based while some are not, the learning of the performance of some Yorùbá oral poetry takes a long duration, some oral poetic forms are family business, oral poetry is an intricate part of Yorubá people's life, Yorubá oral poetry it requires series of rehearsal which may not necessarily be an organised one, the reward for the performer's effort is immediately given during performance, a good Yorùbá oral poetic performance requires a good voice quality of the poet and the use of specific musical accompaniments, costumes and props. Audience participation in some oral poetry is active while it is passive in some others (Ògúndèjì, 1991). The audience of some oral poetry as earlier mentioned, that is, religious poetry, is limited (Olátúnjí, 1979). Yorùbá oral poetic performances as explained by Olátúnjí are functional oriented. This is because topical issues are discussed by performers in their poetic texts.

2.2.2 Comparative literary theory

Comparative literary theory is necessary for this work because two independent poetic genres are investigated. Buzarboruah (2014:54) defines comparative literature as "a holistic study of literature that defies boundaries of nation or language". Sahin (2016) explains that comparative literature is a study of the literary texts that are written in different languages to make meanings in linguistic, literary and cultural studies. This type of literary analysis, according to Buzarboruah looks at world literature in order to set the similarities, dissimilarities, historical relations and other useful features of their convergence and divergence. Totosy de Zepetnek (1998) states that, comparative literary theory studies literature in two ways:

In principle, the discipline of Comparative Literature is a method in the study of literature in, at least, two ways. First, Comparative Literature means the knowledge of more than one national language and literature, and/or it means the knowledge and application of other disciplines in and for the study of literature and second Comparative Literature has an ideology of inclusion of the other, be that marginal literature in its several meanings of marginality, a genre, various text types, etc. (13)

This, as indicated above shows that comparative literature has to do with literature of more than one nation. As explained by Gifford (1976), in doing comparative literature, the eye and the ear are important. The eye recognises what two or more works of literature and literary artists have in common; the ear, on the other hand, hears the echoes of one writer in another so as to identify convergence and divergence occurring in them. The function of the ear in comparative literature is more appropriate in comparing two or more genres. Sahin (2016) adds that several approaches to the study of comparative literature have been used right from the periods of Plato, Aristotle, Longinus, Horace, Virgil, Dante, Seneca, Descartes, Spencer, Milton, Marlowe, Shakespeare, Pope, Swift, Dryden, Johnson, Fielding, Coleridge, Wordsworth, Keats, Shelley, Richardson, Addison, Byron, Poe, Goethe and Arnold, Voltaire, Flaubert, Balzac, Lamartine, Diderot, Boileau and Taine. Sainte-Beuve was the one that extended the scope of comparative literature to include the study of different kinds of literature. This means he made it a cross-cultural study. Goethe also used the term to mean World literature in 1827 (Sahin, 2016).

Comparative literary theory did not start as a field of studying world literature. It started as a comparative study of literature within the scope of a mono-cultural context. It was later developed into multi-national literary and cultural comparison. This resulted in the influence of Eurocentric literary and cultural domination and marginalisation of Third World countries, which have been claimed to have no literature. Thus, world politics has influenced the inception and the theorising of this literary approach.

Sahin (2016) opines that in today's global world, comparative literature has included the cultural studies of more than one nation and comparing national kinds of literature has been considered out of the field. In application of the theory, Sahin (2016) notes that what we want to compare, why are we comparing them and how we are going to compare them are important questions comparative literature must answer.

Totosy de Zepetnek (1998 and 2003) initiates a new approach in the study of comparative literature called "New Comparative Literature". He is of the opinion that there should be a systemic and empirical approach to literature and cultural studies. He then suggests that comparative literature should be studied under ten general principles. The first principle discusses the pedagogy of literary study, emphasising that literature research should answer "how" question rather than "what" question. The second principle is the use of the theoretical framework as well as the methodology that would improve the dialogue between cultures, languages, literatures, and other disciplines. The third principle is the necessity for the person comparing literature to acquire in-depth knowledge in several languages and literatures, and also in other disciplines before indepth studying of theory and methodology. The fourth principle of comparative literature, according to Totosy de Zepetnek is the interest to study literature in relation to other forms of artistic expressions such as visual arts, music and film. The fifth principle is the parallel recognition and study of single languages and literature but with a special focus and concentration on English. This principle tends to favour some countries which were colonised by Britain but that adopt English as a formal language. Many of their literary works are written in English. So, comparing the literature of these countries with one another is still recognised in the field of comparative literature.

Totosy de Zepetnek's sixth general principle of comparative literature is its attention and concentration within the context of culture. With this form of comparative literature, cultural perspective is made to dominate the literary analysis. In other words, cultural analysis is given a preference in comparing literary texts of different sociocultural settings. The seventh principle is the inclusion of theoretical, methodological, ideological and political approaches in comparative literary studies. This tends to look at the impact of politics of marginalisation, inter-ethnicity, international issues and many others in literary studies. The general eighth principle is comparative literature insistence on interdisciplinary study. This is what Totosy de Zepetnek calls an umbrella term in which three main types of the study's methodologies are based. The first methodology is what he names intra-disciplinarity. Intra-disciplinarity is an analysis and research that is carried out within the disciplines in humanities. The second methodology is named multi-disciplinarity. This is research and analysis carried out by a scholar employing other disciplines. The third is pluri-disciplinarity. This is research based on teamwork, with participants from several disciplines and areas of study. The ninth general principle of comparative literature as mentioned by Totosy de Zepetnek is ideology against globalisation of literature in favour of its localisation. The tenth principle of comparative literature is the vocational commitment of its practitioners and their adherence to the study of literature and their adherence to acquire more knowledge of disciplines which could be useful in a comparative analysis.

However, in the present study, we need to pay attention to the fifth and ninth principles of comparative literature as stated above. The fifth principle indicates the parallel recognition and study of single languages and kinds of literature but with a special focus and concentration on English. This, no doubt, favours Eurocentric literary ideology. If English literature, even not within the same community, is considered and found permissible in comparative literary analysis, other genres of the same cultural setting or made of the same language should also be; different genres of Yorùbá literature and the literature of different countries across the world should also be permissible. This fifth principle is adopted in this work to account for the comparison of the performances of two comparable independent Yorùbá oral poetic genres in order to understand them more. The ninth principle also is in favour of localisation of performance theory against its globalisation. Obviously, this principle calls for national literary comparison rather than international literary comparison. This rule provides an opportunity to carry out comparative literature within a cultural setting. Therefore, the type of comparison proposed in the study of the two selected oral poetic genres within the cultural setting falls logically within the scope of comparative literature.

2.2.3 **Semiotics**

Two prominent scholars are believed to be pioneers of the theory of signs and significations. These scholars, according to Cobley and Jansz (1999), are Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913) and Charles Sanders Peirce (1839-1914). Sebeok (2001) maintains that Ferdinand de Saussure was a Swiss linguist while Charles Sanders Peirce was an American philosopher. Both scholars view sign and significations from their areas of studies (Ògúndèjì, 1988). Saussure names his theory of signs and significations semiology while Peirce refers to it as semiotics (Ògúndèjì, 1988). According to Danesi (2004), Ferdinand de Saussure defines semiology as a science that studies the life of signs within society (semiology). Saussure, as reported by Danesi categorises *semiology* as part of social psychology and later as general psychology. By this, Saussure examines what constitutes a system of signs and what laws governing them in order to provide signs meaning (Danesi, 2004). Cobley and Jansz (1999) posit that semiotics has

witnessed many premature approaches before the emergence of the two renowned pioneers of the theory. It was during their studies of semiotics that mature semiotic analysis and the study of semiotics as an autonomous field of study emerged. Their structuralist semiotics holds the belief in recurring patterns that characterise sign systems as a reflection of inborn structures in the sensory, emotional and intellectual composition of the human body and the human psyche. This justifies some forms of expressions that humans create and respond to instinctively which are so meaningful and easily understandable irrespective of cultural differences (Sebeok, 2001).

Eco (1976:7), in an attempt to define semiotics, submits that, "semiotics is concerned with everything that can be taken as sign". Danesi (2004) defines semiotics as the science that attempts to answer the question: What does X mean? This is to say X stands for something whose meaning is hidden and could only be understood through knowledge of signs and significations. Martin and Ringham's (2000) opinion does not differ from the definitions above as they define semiotics as a theory of signification that is of the generation or production of meaning. Hence, semiotics as shown above is a theory of signs and significations that is production and processing of signs meaning. Eco (1976) equally states that a sign is, "everything which can be taken as significantly substituting for something else". This something else, according to Eco, does not necessarily have to be present at a point in time a sign is standing for it. This means that semiotics has to do with something representing or standing in for another thing whether such other thing is obvious or not. Danesi (2004) defines a sign as anything which could be a colour, a gesture, a wink, an object or a mathematical equation, etc., which is capable of standing for something other than itself.

Saussure studies sign's meaning from the synchronic and diachronic perspectives (Cobley and Jansz, 1999). The synchronic study of a sign as explained by Saussure refers to the studying of signs at a given point in time, usually the present time. Diachronic, on the other hand, is the studying of how signs change in form and meaning over time. This is to say the former is concerned with immediate meaning while the latter is concerned with the meanings of a sign over time. In his teaching of semiology, Saussure divides the linguistic sign into two; the signifier and the signified. According to Cobley and Jansz, a signifier is the material component of a sign while the signified is what the signifier engenders. To make meaning out of this, Saussure postulates the inseparability of these two concepts; the signifier (the material aspect of sign) and the signified (the

mental concept of sign). The inseparability of these two concepts is best explained by the Fig. 2.4 below.

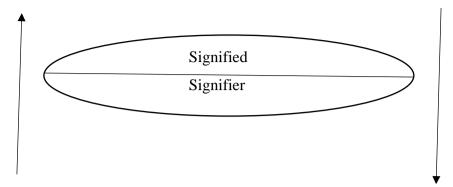


Fig. 2. 4 The inseparability of signifier and signified

(Cobley and Jansz, 1999:12)

The diagram above shows Saussure's assumption of the process of communication which requires both the signifier and the signified. With this, there must be a relationship that could lead to mutual intelligibility between the signifier and the signified. Without this, signification may not be possible.

Charles Peirce before his death has steadily constructed his theory of signs and significations. He was known to have spent significant part of his life on the triadic theory of sign. This contains the representamen, the object, and the interpretant. Representamen is defined as something that stands for somebody or something in some respect or capacity (Cobley and Jansz, 1999). According to Chandler (2007), representamen is the form that a sign takes but which may not necessarily be a material item. This according to Chandler, when it refers to non-material form, representamen is comparable to Saussure's concept of a signifier, but when referring to material form, it is referred to as a sign vehicle by some scholars of semiotics. Eco (1976) expatiates that representamen is what represents the validity of an interpretant in a sign system. To Cobley (2005), representamen is something that has a relationship with its object. Eco (1976) defines an object as a sign that stands for something with the impression which such a thing produces or modifies. Object, as expatiates by Chandler (2007), is the term used by Peirce to describe the referent of sign, what sign stands for. Chandler indicates that it is worth noting that unlike Saussure's abstract concept of signified, a referent is an object in the world, but which does not exclude signs of abstract and fictional entities. It includes both the abstractive and the physical objects. In Peirce's model of semiotics, places are allocated for the physical object but Saussure's model does not.

According to Eco (1976), an interpretant is not an interpreter but what guarantees the validity of a sign even in the absence of the interpreter. Cobley (2005) is of the view that interpretant is close to what we usually take as the meaning of a sign. Chandler (2007) also clarifies the fact that an interpretant is not an interpreter but the sense made of a sign. Besides, Cobley (2005) submits that interpretant can bring about another representamen which can further generate several representamen. These can eventually result in continuous and uninterrupted significations. When this occurs, signification has resulted in an unlimited semiosis (Eco, 1976). The three concepts are otherwise known as "trichotomy of Pierce theory" (Hermawan, 2010:23).

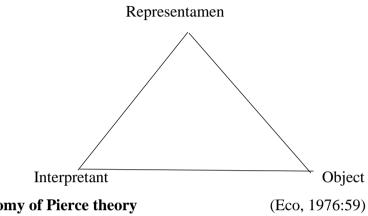


Fig. 2.5 Trichotomy of Pierce theory

According to Hermawan (2010), semiosis operates on a triadic relationship. The relationship, according to Cobley (2005), is simultaneous and inseparable. Thus, each unit of the trichotomy functions in relation to one another at the same time.

Ògúndèjì (1988) further explains this triadic relationship in a simple manner. He compares this Piercian triadic with Saussure's concept of signifier and signified. Ògúndèjì labels what could be taken as an object as 'A', what could be taken as representamen as 'B' and what could be considered interpretant as 'C'. He then argues that 'A' and 'C' are comparable to signifier and signified and the intermediate concept (B) is what makes the relationship between 'A' and 'C' possible. The concept "B" in this regard could also be considered as the law that "creates other two dyadic basic relations" (26). According to Ògúndèjì, 'B' is capable of being read as a sign. Though different scholars have studied Saussure's concepts of signifier and signified and the Percian triadic of signs relation using different perspectives (Ògúndèjì), the fact remains that before any sense could be read out of a sign, there must be a sign (signifier), a code (which could either be a law, a sense, a belief, a thought, a perspective, etc. that makes sign's meaning derivation possible) and a signified (an actual meaning of a sign). With this, the diagram below, not quite different from the above but makes the concepts in Percian triadic of signs relationship easier.

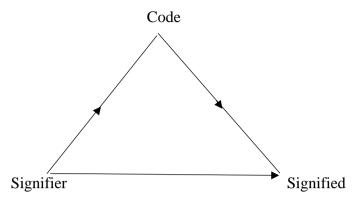


Fig. 2.6 Signs relation in triadic form (Adapted from Ògúndèjì, 1988: pg. 25)

Signifier stands for object, code stands for representamen and signified stands for interpretant. The arrow between the triadic elements represents the direction of the system through which the meaning derivation operates.

Signs are divisible by three trichotomies (Cobley and Jansz, 1999 and Hermawan, 2010). A table is presented by Cobley and Jansz (1999) to represent the trichotomy of Pierce's theory of semiotics.

Table 2. 2 Pierce's table of sign's trichotomy (Cobley and Jansz, 1999:31)

	Quality	Brute Facts	Law
	Firstness	Secondness	Thirdness
Representamen Firstness	Qualisign	Sinsign	Legisign
Object Secondness	Icon	Index	Symbol
Interpretant Thirdness	Rheme	Dicent	Argument

Qualisign, according to Cobley and Jansz (1999), is a representamen made up of quality. It is a quality which is a sign (Hermawan, 2010). Sinsign, on the other hand, is a representamen of physical reality, the existence of a thing or event which is a sign. Legisign is a representamen that is made up of law, a law existing in sign form (Cobley and Jansz 1999 and Hermawan, 2010). O"Neill (2008) defines icon as a sign that represents its object through direct likeness or similarity. Photographs, pictures, and paintings are the best examples of this item of sign. Martion and Ringhams (2000), Hermawan (2010), Eco (1976), and Cobley and Jansz (1999) share this opinion. Ògúndèjì (1988) also share this opinion but with a little moderation in order to differentiate the oral form of icon from concrete form. Ògúndèjìs (1988) considers literary and linguistic icons (oral icon) as a secondary form of iconisation.

Index is defined by Peirce as a sign that is linked to or affected by its object in terms of causation (Cobley and Jansz). The sign's link or relationship with its object may be causal or sequential (Martin and Ringham, 2000). Peirce's example of such a sign is a knock on the door indicating the presence of someone at the door; also a high body temperature may be an index of illness. Another example is the existence of smoke which could indicate fire at its source. Ògúndèjì (1988) makes a reference to *òpá oba*, the regal staff, which may suggest the blessing of the king. To Pierce, as identified by Martin and Ringham (2000), symbol as a sign is derived from an arbitrary or conventional relationship between the signifier and the signified. It is a sign by virtue of law, general ideas, beliefs, thoughts and ideology of a particular set of belief systems (Hermawan, 2010). Ògúndèjì (1988) posits that both Saussure and Peirce agree that linguistic signs are good examples of symbolic significations. The reason being that most of its significations are not based upon apparent similarity between the signifier and the signified. The third trichotomy includes rheme. According to Cobley and Jansz (1999), rheme occurs where a signifier is represented as a possibility of its signified. Dicent, on the other hand, exists where a signifier represents the signified as a fact. The last one is argument; this is a sign existing where signifier represents its interpretant through reason. In other words, argument is a sign of reason.

In Yorùbá oral poetry, there are signifiers of quality (qualisin) and those of physical reality/actual existence (signsign). Some signifiers are also made up of law in Yorùbá oral poetry. The signified of these kinds of signifiers are only possible through either societal or religious law interpretation. Icon, index and symbol are not new in Yorùbá literary scholarship. Ògúndèjì (1988) offers a detailed analysis of these semiotic

elements in relation to Yorùbá literature. The signifier of the possibility of occurrence (rheme), the signifier of fact (dicent) and the signifier of reason (argument) for their signified are also realisable in Yorùbá oral poetic types. This is because all the semiotic terms discussed are based on various aspects of human life which are mainly represented in Yorùbá oral poetry. Discussion of life in Yorùbá oral literature is apparent because literature, i.e. oral poetry, of these people could not be separated from their daily life activities.

2.2.3.1 Semiotics of culture

An aspect of semiotics that should not be neglected as a result of its relevance to this study is the semiotics of culture. In the introductory part of the translated version of A Semiotic of Culture written by Yuri M. Lotman in 1990. Mbato Eco discusses the basis of the semiotics of culture proposed by Lotman in the year 1922. According to Eco in his foreward, Lotman applied his mind to a wide range of disciplines which include aesthetics, poetics, semiotic theory, the history of culture, mythology, and cinema to analyse the principal themes of the history of Russian literature at the University of Tartu in Estonia. Lotman's work deals with the analysis of cultural occurrences and notes on demonology through readings of poetic texts and contemplation of the problems of interpretation, including references to mathematics and biology. Eco mentions that in the sixties, semiotics (or semiology) and structuralism are two disturbing terms in language and literary analysis in Paris and all other European countries to include North and Latin American universities. During this time, the Formalists are said to tend to forget their teachings that work of art are semiotic devices that can be analysed as a set of rules, inventions and intentional adjustments of socialised codes. But as a matter of fact, they were incapable to free themselves absolutely from the aesthetics of cultural images occurring in the work of arts. The new Russian semioticians were able to rediscover this; they discovered the impact of religious systems and world views in literary texts. This gave rise to structural semiotics. Semiotics in this wise aims at studying the entire range of sign systems in which emphasis is laid on the verbal language and elements of communication. Structuralism, on the other hand, shows the extreme features of linguistic systems as in the work of Roman Jakobson.

It is on the above explanations that the work of Lotman is based. Lotman, according to Eco in Lotman (1990), realises that viewing a text as a linguistic code is different from viewing it as a cultural code. This is because Lotman is aware of the fact

that cultural code is more complex than language code. Lotman assumes that there is a multiplicity of codes in a given culture. This is what gives rise to dialectal differences and hybrids, or creolisations. According to Lotman, a symbol, as it is commonly understood, has to do with the idea of content which, in turn, serves as an indication for another content, and content has a rule highly valued in the culture that governs it. Lotman distinguishes a symbol from a reminiscence or quotation. To Lotman, the outer level of content-expression in reminiscence is not independent; it is rather a kind of index-sign, indicating a larger text with which the sign has a metonymic relationship. Symbol, to Lotman, both in expression level and as well in content level is always an independent text. Symbol has a self-contained and independent meaning value. It has an obviously delineated boundary which makes it possible to separate it from the immediate semiotic context. A broom, for example, may culturally signify unity among the Yorùbá cleanliness, when it is read from functional perspective. It is a symbol of power and strength and victory when the proverbial concept of igba eşinşin kì í dènà dowò (two hundred flies cannot fight a broom) is brought into play. These examples show how a symbol can have independent meanings based on the context in use.

Lotman (1990) adds that a symbol always has something archaic in the culture that produces it. Similarly, symbols are the most stable elements of the cultural continuum. It is also a vital mechanism of cultural memory. Symbol can effectively transfer texts, plot outlines and other semiotic formations from one level of cultural memory to another. Symbols, according to Lotman, are so much important that they largely determine the national and area boundaries of cultures. Another vital observation Lotman makes about symbol is that symbols, with elementary expression levels, have more superior cultural and semantic capacity than symbols that are more complex (with different cultural backgrounds). So, when doing a symbolising reading, what this requires according to Lotman, is to read symbolic texts as they are perceived in a given text not as they are perceived in their natural context. What a de-symbolising reading does is to turn symbols into simple messages or meanings. Lastly, on symbol and culture, Lotman distinguishes a symbol from a conventional sign because of the manifestation of an iconic element in it. He concludes that a symbol is the determinant of all the principles of sign-ness. Symbol as well mediates among different ranges of semiosis.

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¹⁷ This is seeing a broom as a collection of single items to make a whole which could not be easily destroyed by the enemy because of its power made up of the items' collectiveness.

Symbol determines the relationship between the synchrony of a text and the cultural memory. Lotman submits that generally, the structure of symbols of a particular culture shape an individual's understanding of signs and significations in a particular cultural context.

Furthermore, Lotman discusses the importance of space in understanding signs and significations. Lotman states that an addresser, addressee and the channel that links them together can never be a complete working communication system if we put behind the semiotic space. He then maintains the fact that all participants in the communicative performance must have a communicative experience of being familiar with meaning-making within a cultural setting. And that this experience (semiotic experience) precedes the semiotic performance. The space in which semiosis is possible is what Lotman calls a semiosphere. Semiosphere, according Lotman is the semiotic space essential for the presence and operation of languages. It is not necessarily the total number of different languages existing in the space but their constant interaction. Lotman insists that outside the semiosphere, both language and communication cannot exist. Lotman also states that in the universal culture of humanity, signs exist as conventional and as pictorial (signs that are to some degree conventional and representational). As a result, there is a possibility of semiotic dualism as a minimal form of organisation in every working semiotic system.

Two principles Lotman mentions as laws binding on any real semiotic system are binarism and asymmetrism. Binarisim has to do with the dual (or plural) possible meaning of every single sign. The multi-meaning possibility of a sign, according to Lotman, is realisable because the semiosphere in which signs are produced is itself heterogeneous. The asymmetrical nature of the semiosphere has to do with divergences, differences and irregularities that exist within a semiosphere considered in semiotic systems. Existence in a given semiosphere as the mechanism of delineation is what Lotman (1990) calls boundary. This is structural self-description and self-delineation from the centre of culture within a semiotic space. In a simple sentence, having different units of cultural people within a given semiosphere. The implication of this is that each unit of culture contributes meaning to the semiosphere in different ways. Thus, cultural difference is among the mechanism of generating meaning in a semiotic system. Another mechanism through which meanings are generated in a semiosphere as explained by Lotman is dialogue which is the basic mechanism of translating messages. Dialogue

without a semiotic difference as noted by Lotman is pointless, and when the difference is obvious, dialogue within a semiosphere becomes impossible.

Lotman also points to the fact that some geographical spaces are symbolic. In Lotman's explanation of symbolic spaces, the earth is perceived as a place of earthly life and consequently acquired a religious and moral significance. In this view, some lands are regarded as the holy land and others are sinful land. In support of Lotman's view on geographical spaces, religious and social factors of people have made them term some land holy/sacred while some are considered devilish. All these have an impact on meaning-making in the realm of cultural semiotics. According to Lotman, historical facts and laws, if cleverly read, are important in meaning-making in semiotic realms. So far, Lotman's explanation on cultural semiotics in which many mechanisms actualise the realisation of signification in cultural context can be represented in the Fig. 2.7 suggested below.

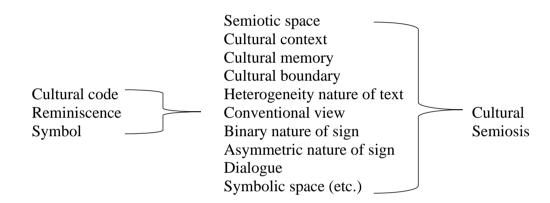


Fig. 2.7 Mechanisms of cultural semiosis

The foregoing implies that deriving meanings of signs in a cultural setting requires taking into consideration the impacts of the items mentioned above. So, any serious meaning generation for signs in a given cultural setting must respect some factors mentioned in the semiosphere of the cultural signs.

Different places within the Yorùbá socio-cultural settings are the semiosphere of Yorùbá oral poetry. These are the places where performances of Yorùbá oral poetry take place. Among the geographical places where performances of Yorùbá oral poetry take place include market arena, hillside, cave, waterhole site, sacred groove, roadside, palace square and traditional court hall (Finnegan, 1977a and b, Schechner, 1998 and Ògúndèjì, 1991). At the settings of the performances of many religious Yorùbá oral poetry, there are a lot of religious and cultural symbolic items like iconic elements of the deity to which a particular oral poetic performance is ascribed. At the setting of Ṣàngó pípè performance (a shrine of Ṣàngó) for example, there present an axe and a thunderstone. These are believed to be religiously related to Ṣàngó deity.

It must also be mentioned that the Yorùbá people's proper names are usually symbolic. It is established in the Yorùbá saying, "Ilé ni à á wò, kí á tó somo lórúko" (It is the situations at the child's home that are considered before naming a child". In others words, the Yorùbá people give indexical and symbolic names to their children (Adéoyè, 1982 and Odùşínà, 2000). There is an aspect of semiotics that deals with name analysis. According to Alvarez-Altaman (1981), literary onomastic is a literary criticism that is concerned with name significations in literary work; that is, the analysis of what names signify in the literary work; the referent meanings which names could generate in literary study. Smith (2017) states that apart from proper names that are indexical, some names are also symbolic. In analysing names, proper names, Blanar (2014) discusses the imporance of linguistics. Though the root verbs and other classes of words involve in the formation of proper names need to be closely read, there is a need for crucial consideraion of the socio-cultural circumstances which surround the use of the Yorùbá proper names. In this socio-cultural circumstances lies the signified of the both indexical and symbolic significations of Yorùbá names. As a result, cultural semiotics is required in this study for analysing religio-cultural semiotic features in the performances of orin kete and orin agbè.

2.2.3.2 Semiotics of poetry

As revealed by Eco (1976) and buttressed by Ògúndèjì (1988), literary text is a network of codes. Signs and significations are constant in the language of literature. Above other literary genres, poetry employs high use of signification. Riffaterre (1978) asserts that the language use in poetry differs from ordinary linguistic usage. Words that are excluded from common usage are used in poetry. Besides, poetry has its special grammar. It is also noted that poetry requires a special finite context to understand. Riffaterre recognises three possible ways through which semantic indirection is possible in poetry; these are: displacing, distorting and creating meaning. Explaining the importance of unity in poetry, Riffaterre opines that from the standpoint of meaning, poetic text is a string of successive information units but considering poetic significance, a poetic text is a single semantic unit, so other signs within the poetic text are, therefore, relevant to the poetic quality and making of meaning in the poetry. Riffaterre also discusses the heuristic and retroactive readings of poetry. According to him, the reader of poetry must develop competence in heuristic and retroactive reading skills before he/she could understand the semiotic nature of poetry. Heuristic reading is the first and linguistic interpretation that takes place in poetry while retroactive reading is the second and the hermeneutic reading that is derived at the point of critical studying of a text.

Furthermore, Riffaterre opines that "poetry results from transformation of matrix, a minimal and literal sentence, into a long, complex and nonliteral periphrasis" (19). Alongside Riffaterre's concept of matrix is hypogram. Hypogram is a system of signs comprising at least a prediction to which meaning could be attributed. Hypogrammatic derivation is a system of poeticising a word or phrase to refer to a pre-existence word group. The root to which hypogram could be predicted or attributed is called "semes" (Riffaterre, 1978: 23). Semes is the nucleus unit of a poetic sign which can be distorted, or manipulated to create variants that would result in hypogram. Another poetic sign of this category identified by Riffaterre is cliché. Cliché is a hypogram, which is a ready-made example, a well-tested image, an agreeable statement uttered a long time ago that always contains tropes, also a long preserved stylistic device.

There are two ways Riffaterre (1978) expatiates that sign in poetry can be produced. These are through the process of expansion and conversion. Expansion is the process of transforming matrix, the initial statement from which a poem is formed, into a complex form. It is the main process in the formation of textual signs. It is also the principal generator of poetic signification. Expansion can be presented in repetitive

sequences which can generate an equal or simultaneous source of rhythm in poetry. An example of expansion, according to Riffaterre, is the change that occurs in the grammatical nature of the sentence constituents. He avers that it is possible to convert a pronoun into a noun, a noun into an adjective, an adjective into relative clauses and so on. These sentence constituents can be expanded from their simple forms into complex forms. Expansion, as a method of generating text, according to Riffaterre (1978), can transform abstract language form, more especially the grammatical connectives into images. So, expansion can make a poetic expression mean more than its arbitrary meaning.

Conversion is the second method of poetic sign production discussed by Riffaterre (1978). This is the most conspicuous when studying the morphological and phonological attributes of a word. The method is used in making paronomasia and anaphora attributes of poetry. By the way, conversion transforms the constituent of the matrix sentence by modifying them all with the same factor. Hence, if the reader must understand converted constituents, he/she must make a mental comparison between the sequence of converted constituents and the hypogram which the text imagined in its pretransformation state. Riffaterre (1978: 65) also opines that "the literariness of the of the converted sentence lies in its double nature, which compels the reader to interpret it as a function of its form rather than as content". Another thing about conversion is that it could be a descriptive system that is more than a phrasal or sentential level. Also, it could be expanded to the whole literary text, from the beginning to the end. Lastly on conversion, Riffaterre postulates that conversion can be combined with expansion to generate a textual sign and vice versa. With this, expansion can be realised through the process of conversion while conversion as well can sometimes be possible through the process of expansion.

Moreover, Riffaterre explains the significance of interpretant in the semiotics of poetry. He explains interpretant as any equivalent meaning established by retroactive reading. The reason is that such a reading results in a deep reading competence. A form of interpretant, according to Riffaterre is textual interpretant. These are mediating texts either quoted in poems or alluded to. This form of interpretant contains the model of equivalences and transfers from one poetic code to the other. Another form of interpretant identified is lexematic interpretant. These are the signs Riffaterre (1978) calls dual signs because they are capable of generating two texts simultaneously. The text in which they are used must be understood in two different ways. A dual sign,

according to Riffaterre (1978: 86), is an "equivocal word situated at the point where two sequences of semantic or formal associations intersect". Dual sign can also be a mediating word that is able to generate two meanings simultaneously. An example of a dual sign as given by Riffaterre is pun. The reason is that pun is a poetic device which may be firstly understood as ungrammatical but which, on the other hand, may be considered grammatical in another text. Apart from the text-generated dual sign, there are other dual signs which hypogram could also generate. Hypogram-generating dual signs are signs which are not part of the text but generated by the reader in another example to explain the context of a given poetry. Dual sign could also result in the title of a literary text. In this sense, the title of a poem may have a connection with another text outside it or the title is misleading by not having a relationship with the content of the text. Another type of dual sign mentioned in Riffaterre's work is "dual title referring to as a code" (105). This is a situation whereby dual title, instead of referring to another external sign, stands as a repository of lexicon or grammatical use without any additional semantic implication.

In addition, Riffaterre's semiotic theory of poetry is the mechanism of various reader-perception modes that seem typical of poetry. These are the factors that he opines may hold the attention of a reader, solicit his ingenuity, and bring to him /her pleasure or irritation as he/she reads the poem. Humour is an example listed of such a mechanism. Riffaterre submits that humour could be either in linguistic codes or ungrammatical elements of poetry, employed intentionally to create laughter and amusement. The author adds that it depends on the reader to rationalise humour as a method of satire, produce of author's comic relief or as an expression of the author's attitudes towards life. It is very much important to mention Riffaterre's concept of nonsense as a code in poetry. He identifies nonsense as a poetic mechanism that may not completely be opaque but which is always irrational or improper as a language to be used in communication. It is used in poetry not because it is semantically relevant to the text but because once the reader recognises them, the central idea and the interpretation of the poem under study become easy.

Obscurity is the last poetic mechanism discussed by Riffaterre. Obscurity to Riffaterre shows literariness in a manner contrary to nonsense. It is a sign of literariness by symbolising the reader's participation in activities set aside for them. It is also the perception of the generic interpretant. However, according to Riffaterre, it is an explicit knowledge of poetic signs, but culture contributes a lot in determining signs' meaning.

Many poetic signs discussed by Riffaterre might not be relevant to the African poetic realm, more importantly, the Yorùbá world of poetry. Nevertheless, some will be relevant. This is to show that some signs' forms existing in the Yorùbá oral poetic world may not be mentioned in Riffaterre (1978). This is due to the performative nature of oral African poetry. To account for such signs, it may require the expansion, conversion or indigenisation of some signs' form recognised by Riffaterre (1978).

In this work, because we are analysing oral poetry, semiotics of poetry is the major and most used theory in our analysis. This, as a result, poetry has its style of language and is described by scholars mentioned above as a network of code. This suggests that signs and significations existing in poetry can only be properly understood through the knowledge of semiotics.

However, Riffaterre (1978) does not mean oral texts as shown by its literary analysis of semiotics of poetry. Riffaterre's semiotics of poetry is targeted at the written text, not oral text. Whether written or oral, the most important thing worth to be noted is the concept of text. Text in another sense means "message" (Ògúndèjì, 1988:13). If text is otherwise known as message, Ògúndèjì then argues that text in a semiotic sense "is not limited to either the written or oral text" (13). Though Riffattere means written when proposing its theory, so far his theory focuses on literary work which could either be written or oral, i.e. African oral literature, then semiotics of poetry as it is applicable to written poetry; it is also applicable to oral poetry. This is because oral poetry is equally capable of generating text (message) like the written poetry. This is expatiated by Ògúndèjì (1988) that "every work of arts has a potentially communicative function that this function is complicated in the representational arts (10). Besides, in semiotics, anything can be read as text since such a thing has a capability of being codified which could only be explained through a referent or external means. Thus, semiotics of poetry is essential to this study.

2.2.4 Intertextuality in relation to the theory of performace, comparative literary theory and semiotics

Haberer (2007) and Zengin (2016) maintain that intertextuality is a poststructural approach and postmodernism used in print for the first time by Julia Kristeva while reviewing the work of Mikhail Bakhtin on dialogue in 1967. Bakhitin, according to Haberer (2007), emphasises polyphony or *heteroglossia*, which is the co-occurrence and interaction of different types of discourse showing social dialects, generations and age groups of society. Zengin (2016) also clarifies that it is a formation of theories of Ferdinand de Saussure, Mikhail Bakhtin and Roland Barthes. These theorists, according to Zengin, have mentioned concepts related to intertextuality in their studies. This was around the 1960s when several scientific theories were applied to analyse literature (Haberer, 2007).

Zengin avers that intertextuality is when a text is read in the light of the text(s) which can be associated with the given text. Zengin (2016) adds that intertextuality is not limited to a literary text, it includes other cultural and artistic domains which could be employed in a literary text. This indicates that there is always a textual link in between a given text and other texts connected to it. Zengin's opinion tallies with that of Leitch (1983) that a text is an intertext of other texts. Zengin (2016) mentions that T.S Eliot's work of 1919 shows that no literature nor any work of art has its complete meaning independently. Zengin argues that T.S Eliot's work of 1919 and Ferdinand de Saussure's structuralism and semiotics are the background theories from which intertextuality emanated. From Zengin's submission, the relationship between Saussure's components of sign (signifier and signified) could only be possible through intertextual reading. So also is Saussure's concepts of langue and parole. Similarly, Saussure's concepts of the syntagmatic axis which represents the arrangement of the linguistic elements together, and the paradigmatic axis which stands for the selection of elements from possible choices indicate intertextuality since different texts are involved in the process.

Zengin adds that writers, before writing their texts, have read texts written before them and those texts they have read in one way or the other reflect in their works. So, to understand a given text, other texts employed in the making of the text become necessary for its analysis. Olofinsao (2017) lends credence to the discourse by stating any text could only derive its full meaning and importance through intertextuality. He posits that African oral tradition from inception is based on a shared phenomenal world. Intertextuality as shown by the works referenced above is possible in a literary text through reference, allusion, quotation, plagiarism, translation, conversion, paraphrasing, imitation, parody, among others.

Going by Ferdinand de Saussure's concepts of signifier and signified, it is through the employment of other texts that the signifier's meaning is derived or read. Thus, text according to Eco (1976), is a representation of the result of co-occurrence of codes. Besides, aesthetic text as elaborated by Eco is a compendium of all facets of sign functions. One can then conclude that intertextuality itself is an intratext of semiotics,

an integral part of semiotics through which a sign's meaning is derived. Without considering other text (extratext) which signifier might be attributed to, derivation of sign's meaning may not possible.

If a text is capable of featuring within another text, such a sign must, in one way or the other, possess some features which make its featuring in the particular text possible. Those features must have also agreed with the host text to some degree and extent. The features that make it possible for a text to be a component (intratext) of another text are worthy of comparison between the host text and the component text. With this, one can say that an attempt of reading the relatedness of a signifier and signified requires comparative analysis. This is because different texts are compared and related in making meaning. Based on this, the comparative literary approach is an attempt of comparing two independent literary texts to analyse what operates in them. The attempt of comparing literature will expose many intertextual features shared by texts under comparison.

According to Ògúndèjì (1988), the semiotic text is not restricted to either the written or oral texts. Text could be either plastic, musical, mimetic or architectural. Yorùbá oral poetry as discussed earlier is performative. This implies that different performative texts are made up of Yorùbá oral poetry. Among the texts that are interlocked in oral poetry include chants, songs, rituals, dance, musical instruments and costumes.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHOD

3.1 **Sample survey**

In carrying out the study, ethnographic research design was employed. Data were collected from Igbó-Orà in Ìbàràpá Central Local Government, Ìmia and Ilùà in Kájolà Local Government of Òkè-Ògùn, Òyó State. Five performances of *orin kete* from Igbó-Orà and five performances of *orin agbè* from Igbó-Orà (three), Ìmia (one) and Ilùà (one) were collected. The availability of data in these communities informed the choice. Some lyrics of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* apart from the main data collected but which were found useful were also considered for the work. Examples of these were audio-visual records produced by the performers of the genres before the period of this study and some lyrics of the genres sung during the course of interrelationship between the researcher and the performers.

3.2 Method of data collection

The performances of the poetic genres under study were watched and audio-visual data were recorded. An informal interview was conducted with four respondents, purposively selected for being leaders in their performance groups of orin *kete* and *orin agbè*. A thirty-item questionnaire was distributed to 100 respondents, 51 members and 49 non-members of the performance groups of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. Library and archival materials, internet facilities and some oral materials found related to the study were used. The audio and the audio-visual data collected, the informal interview and the research questionnaire were considered as primary data in this study. Library, archival and online materials used are considered the secondary data.

Finnegan (1977) lists some theories which are essentially used in analysing oral literature. These include romantic and evolutionist theories, historical-geographical approach, sociological approaches, psychoanalysis, semiology and structuralism. Despite the fact that these theories among others have been used in analysing oral literature, Finnegan insists that there still exist some features of oral literature that are commonly unrecognised by the theories mentioned above, in interpreting oral literature. Dunde (1980) suggests that the critique of oral arts should be based on linguistic, literary

and anthropological perspectives. Likewise, Okpewho (1990) argues that functionalist, performance and sociological approaches (which have been mentioned earlier by Finnegan) are necessary for oral literary analysis.

Muleka (2014) posits that choosing a theory in the study of African oral literature is problematic as many Western-oriented theories have failed. He further states that choosing theory for African oral performance should be performative. As a result, he suggests a "performer-centric approach" (91) as the most appropriate approach to analysing African oral arts. Mbube (2017) is also of the opinion that 20th-century literary theories with Western world literary and cultural ideologies are not enough to capture Nigerian oral literary performances because of their multimodel forms. He then suggests oratural eclecticism as a laudable approach to use in analysing and meaning-making in Nigerian literature. This suggests that a theory is not enough for Nigerian oral arts. This is because Nigerian oral arts are based on oral performances.

However, oral literature, i.e. a Yorùbá oral poetic genre is multimodel in nature. A single literary approach may not account for every feature existing in it. Since performance is central to approaches suggested above in oral literary analysis, coupled with other theories, performance theory should be useful in exploring many features Finnegan (1977) notes that earlier theories cannot account for. As a result, this study deploys performance as a base of comparative analysis of semiotic features in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. In this regard, three theoretical perspectives are used in the study. These are performance theory, semiotics and comparative literary theory; though intertextuality is linked and considered as intratext to this theories.

3.3 **Research instruments**

The main research instruments used in data collection and analyses are the questionnaire, audio-visual recording devices and Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). A thirty items questionnaire is used to retrieve information from the respondents. The first section contains ten questions based on the respondents' demographic information. The second section is based on the experience of respondents on *orin kete/orin agbè*. This section contains twelve different questions on the experience and sustainability of the genres under study. The last section which is based on the relevance of *orin kete/orin agbè* in their host communities contains eight questions. Audio-visual recording devices like cameras, tape recorders, video players, compact discs, flash drives, and computers, among others, are used to collect, store,

observe and analyse data. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) is employed to analyse the data collected with the use of questionnaire.

3.4 Method of data analysis

Data collected were subjected to critical literary and quantitative analyses. Schechener's performance theory, Totosy de Zepetnek's comparative literary theory and Lotman's cultural semiotics are adapted as a framework for analysing the audio-visual data of performances and interviews conducted on *orin kete/orin agbè*. Intertextuality as a means through which signs and significations are related is also made use of. This is used as a complementary theoretical framework and as a means of uniting three main theories together. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) is employed to analyse the data collected with the use questionnaire. Other relevant oral and written literary materials are also consulted to support and buttress the discourse on *orin kete* and *orin agbè*.

CHAPTER FOUR

A COMPARATIVE PERFORMANCE SEMIOTICS OF ORIN KETE AND ORIN AGBÈ

4.1 A historical survey of orin kete and orin agbè

It is very difficult to trace the historical accounts of most Yorùbá oral poetry because there are always contradictions in the oral accounts of informants which could be attributed to a wide interval between the period of occurrence of these oral traditions and the present time and also because there is usually no written record. When trying to trace the oral history of orin kete, Pa Olálérè Iléyemí, a reputable orin kete performer in Ìbàràpá and Yewa (Òkè Òyán: the upper part of Òyán ríver) environs stated that it was his great grandfather that started the song. According to him, Iléyemí Àkànó's (Pa Olálérè's great grandfather) wife was barren for many years. Ifá divination was consulted on his behalf and he was told to make a membrane drum on a calabash pot and create a spot where a sacred pot of Obàtálá (ìkòkò àṣè) would be placed. He was also told to cook food that children liked and sacrifice a goat to this sacred pot. Iléyemí Åkànó did as he was told. On the sacrifice day, when the merriment was going on, Iléyemí Àkànó and his people danced round the pot to different songs relating to children and the drum (*ìlù kete*) was played to the song. After his prayer was answered, barren people started going to him for consultation. He became a herbalist who solicited children for people from Obàtálá through the use of ìkòkò àsè and orin kete. Pa Olálérè said whenever his grandfather was invited to perform *orin kete* ritual for any of his clients and other ritual or secular performance, he usually refers to the beginning of the genre as reflected in the excerpt below:

Lílé: Ijó ojóò nì bó sí gbangba Call: That day's dance has come to the limelight

Ègbè: Òrò ojóò nì bó sí kedere Response: That day issue has come to the

limelight

This suggests that the issue that is in concealment at the beginning, which only a few people knew about, is now made popular. Pa Olálérè Iléyemí explained further that his father inherited *orin kete* from his grandfather as he too inherited it from his father. He

said he had also introduced it to his children and his apprentices. That is how the genre continues to progress to date.

From the above account, it is shown that the origin of *orin kete* has something to do with Obàtálá. Obàtálá is a most respected arch deity among the Yorùbá (Daramola, and Jéjé, 1967). Fertility is attributed to Obàtálá. This is usually reflected in his praise names and songs presented thus:

1.	Obàtálá Bàtóòṣà Mọrímọrí tí í mọrí ọmọtuntun	Obàtá, a respected deity The sculptor who moulds the head of a new baby	
2.	Eni tó mọrí Òrìṣà ni maa sìn Eni tó ṣapá Òrìṣà ni maa sìn	He who moulded the head It is you I will worship He who moulded the hand It is you I will worship	
3.	Bộbàtálá bá fún mi lộmộ o Ìlasa òwèré ni n ó maa sè o	If Obàtálá should bless me with offspring It is a fresh okra leaf I will be cooking (either to make as sacrifice to him or as	

soup for the baby)

Undoubtedly, the above excerpts above reveal that Obatala is a deity that has to do with fertility. This shows that Pa Olálérè Iléyemí's narration about the fertility status of orin kete is valid since it is related to Obàtálá. Another area that needs to be critically considered is Pa Olálérè Iléyemí's claim that it was his great grandfather that first made drum from kete (calabash pot). This is very doubtful as Ifá is not silent about making drums from calabash-like materials, especially from a gourd (agbè) as done by Pa Àkànó Iléyemí but was related in a different form. Although Àlàbá (1985) and Rájí, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwòn (2009) account for *orin kete* in their works, however, they do not discuss its origin. During the interview section held with the members of Omolèrè Alárá-Igbó's group at Èrunwòn, Aké, Abéòkúta, Ògún State, Chief Mr Egbéyemí Àtàndá (Baba Egbé) and Chief Mrs Egbéfúnnké Bólánlé (Ìyá Egbé) stated that they were not aware that kete is played during the performance of Alárá-Igbó song; that bệnbé is strictly the religious ensemble of the genre. This further emphasises that Pa Iléyemí Àkànó is the initiator of *kete* ensemble in Alárá-Igbó's song performance. The inclusion of kete in Alárá-Igbó song overrides bệnbé to the extent that the song is named after it among the Ìbàràpá people. However, since we do not have access to variant narrations about the origin of the genre, the available accounts are considered valid until we have another account that can be proven more reliable than this.

Orin agbè, otherwise known as sàkàrá is reported by Ògúndèjì (1979) that Àdìó Aníhunlóyé was the person that brought the genre from Ìlorin to Ìmia from where it spread to other parts of Okè Ogùn like Ìsemi and Ìlùà. Àlàbá (1985) opines that orin agbè has a long history dating to the reign of Babayemí Ìtíolú who was nicknamed Sàngó during his lifetime. Orin agbè, according to Àlàbá (1985), was used by Gbòn-ńkáà to accompany him and boost his power on the battlefield. Gbon-nkáa was said to have made a sacrifice to agbè (gourd) as his magical power before going to war. Through the sacrifice, he solicited the help of agbè spirit that whenever he was getting tired and the drum was beaten, his power should be renewed afresh. Àlàbá (1985) affirms the continuation of agbè genre after the demise of Gbòn-ńkáà. He says Àfònjá, a generalissimo of the Old Òyó Kingdom, who lived in Ìlorin was also fond of using the agbè. Thus, agbè was founded by a warrior (Gbón-ńkáà) who was believed to be very powerful in his time. The genre was first recognised with warlords even before the kings. So the reason why the song got to Ilorin which happened to be one of Old Oyo Kingdom territories should not be elusive. Àlàbá narrates the accounts of Aláàfin Ládìgbòlù (1911-1944), who was believed to have his own agbè group in his palace. Using agbè music, he satirised one of his wives who went to her father's house for a sacrifice without his consent. This shows that orin agbè is not restricted to warlords but is also used as part of the king's entertainment genre. Aside, its entertaining function, the poetic genre is also deployed to condemn and satirise social vices.

Narrating the history of *orin agbè/ṣàkàrá*, Pa John Adégòkè, the Bàbá Qba (King's Father) of Ìmia, said *ṣàkàrá* was brought from Ilé-Ifè to Òyó by the first king that founded Ìmia, the late king Ìṣòlá Olú Olùwá. He said Ìṣòlá Olú Olùwá first settled at Òyó after leaving Ilé-Ifè and introduced the genre to Òyó people. He joined Òyó people to migrate to Òyó-Ilé and later left by crossing to the upper side of Ògùn River (Òkè Ògùn) to found a new town called Ìmia. Bàbá Ọba of Imia added that Ìṣòlá Olú Olùwá was the first person to migrate to Òkè Ògùn to found a town. However, the most relevant part of the historical account has to do with the introduction of *ṣàkàrá* by Ìṣòlá Olú Olùwá to Òyó people. Ògúndèjì (1979) investigates *ṣàkàrá* at Ìmia a stone's throw from Iṣṣmi-Ilé, the hometown of Bàbá Qba John Adégòkè. Ògúndèjì's (1979) historical account, that the people of Ìmia learnt the performance of *agbè* song in Ìlorin, is different from to the one narrated by Chief John Adégòkè. According to Ògúndèjì (1979), the history was revealed to him by Mr Àdìó Aníhunlóyé Akínyemí, the oldest *ṣàkàrá* artist

in Ìmia during the period of his research. Considering the period of narration as a factor to determine the validity of the variant accounts on the origin of the genre, it appears that Ògúndèjì's account is more dependable than that of Pa John Adégòké since the *agbè* performers' group in Ìmia from its time of inception is not more than one and the person claimed by Ògúndèjì (1979) to have narrated the account close to the time of inception of the genre than Pa John Adégòké. This is to prove the validity of Ògúndèjì's account about the origin of the genre. Secondly, Ògúndèjì's account tallies with Alàbá's (1985) report that ṣàkàrá started in Òyó but was made popular in Ìlorin where Ìṣòlá Olú Olùwá probably copied it to Ìmia. During our interview session with Pa Tìámíyù Òjó, the Baálé of Gbòn-ńkáà compound, Òkè-Ìṣṣrin, Igbó-Ọrà, it was made known that the song was started by their forefathers at Gbòn-ńkáà compound, Òyó-Òrò where they hailed. This agrees with Ògúndèjì (1979), Àlàbá (1985) and Òpádòtun (2002). We can conclude that *orin agbè* started in the Old Òyó Kingdom during the reign of Ṣàngó by either him (Aláàfin Babáyemí Ìtíolú) or his baleful warlord Gbòńkáà Ebìrì who later dethroned him.

Going by its historical accounts, orin agbè also known as sàkàrá emanated from warfare; this made it a social sign of stimulation during the war. War happens to be the initial setting of the genre. The poetic genre was used as panygeric for Aláàfin and warlords. Gbònnkáà and Àfònjá were notable warlords that adapted this style for their own use. They must have adapted the style from Oyo. Using the song later outside the warfare context could not be said to be signifying warfare anymore but the connection with the king of Qyo, an Qyo warlord or a prominent Qyo chief. It may, in this regard, be seen as a sign of the connection with a royal, a noble personnel or a warlord. The reason kings are included in the genre is the fact that many Oyó kings were reported to have kept sàkàrá groups in their palaces. An example of such kings was King Ládìgbòlù who used sàkàrá or agbè song to satirise one of his wives (Àlàbá, 1985) and Sàngó, whom some scholars suggest was the originator of the song (Òpádòtun, 2002). Orin agbè is attributed to the king and agbè performers identify themselves as king's entertainers. Pa John Adégòkè, Bàbá Oba of Ìmia, mentioned this. He said that he and his group are Onímia's agbè group. It is even reflected in the song of Ilùà performance that they are the king's entertainers.

Call: Aróbayò aléré oba

Response: Aróbayò aléré oba làwa

Someone that is happy when seing the king, king's entertainers
Someone that is happy when seing the king, king's entertainers we are

So, to this extent, *orin agbè* is an index of royalty and supremacy of Qyó Kingdom. On the other hand, *orin kete* at its stage of inception signifies a plea for fertility and a manner of worship. It is a religious sign attributed to Qbàtálá whose shrine has *ìkòkò àsè* (a pot that contains medicinal water to cure barrenness). It is also attributed to Alárá-Igbò, a deity which could be compared with Qṣun, common among Yewa, Egbá and Ìjébú people of Yorùbá. Alárá-Igbò is also believed to be connected with fertility just like Qbàtálá and Qṣun.

Comparing the historical accounts of the two genres, one (*orin kete*) has a religious beginning and the other (*orin agbè*) has a warfare beginning. One is attributed to royalty and the other is attributed to deities. One is geared towards solving peoples' problems through appeasement and the other one (*orin agbè*) is geared towards solving peoples' problems by the use of force. Relating this to semiotics, if Ṣàngó or Gbọn-ńkáà who are believed to be founders of the *agbè* were able to submerge their enemies in their various warfare, then the song they used as stimulus must also have, in one way or the other, contributed to their success. The presence of the *orin agbè* in warfare could then be seen as signifying victory and successful warfare while the presence of *orin kete* in a religious context signifies fertility.

4.2 Semiotics of ritual status of the performance of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*

In our discussion in chapter two, we mentioned that scholars like Babalolá (1966), Finnegan (1970), Olátúnjí (1984), Ògúndèjì (1991), Òpádòtun (2002), Raji, Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò and Àjùwòn (2009), among others, are of the opinion that some Yorùbá oral poetic forms are related to Yorùbá traditional religion while some are not. *Orin kete* and *orin agbè* belong to these types of oral poetry. During an interview session held with Pa Olálérè Iléyemí, it was stated that right from its inception, *orin kete* relates to Alárá-Igbó deity and also, to the Obàtálá because the àṣệ pot (a pot painted white with a white cloth to cover it) which the founder of the genre was told to make is among the signs of Obàtálá; the deity who is always identified with white elements. At the initial stage of the performance of *orin kete*, homages are paid not just to a deity but mostly to all Yorùbá deities, most especially those that have to do with women and children issues. Among other deities apart from those mentioned above are Òṣun, Òrìṣà Ìbejì, Yemoja and Kórì. The relationship between *orin kete* and Kórì, for example, is affirmed in the following song by *orin kete* artists:

Call: Kórìkóto, ma pàyáà mi lékún o Kórìkóto, do not make my

mother cry

Response: Òriṣà èwe, má pàyáà mi lékun Children's goddess, do not

make my mother cry

Kórìkóto is believed to be a children's deity in the Yorùbá religious system. So, appease to her, food items are offered as a sacrifice with which she is celebrated together with drum and dance. Likewise Ìbejì, Ìbèjì¹¹² is Yorùbá name for twins. The Yorùbá hold the belief that Ìbejì are deities. As a result, they are worshipped like other deities. *Orin kete* and *kete* ensemble are played when sacrifice is being made to Ìbejì. An example of *orin kete* sung during such a performance is as follow:

Lílé: Táyé o, Kéyìn; Call: Táyé and Kéhìndé;

Omo gidi méjì Two good children

N ò lè bímọ méjì I can't have a set of twins

Kí n dákan pè ò And call on only one

Ègbè : Táyé o, kéyìn; Response: Táyé and Kéhìndé;

Omo gidi méjì

Two good children

N ò lè bímọ méjì I can't have a set of twins

 $Ki \ n \ dákan \ pe \ \hat{o}$ And call on only one

Orin kete is primarily a religious song. It is, however, not restricted to religious purpose only. It can also be performed at different social events and occasions. There is no restriction to places where *orin kete* can be sung. But as one must have expected, the contents of the song are different in religious and secular settings. We can then postulate that *orin kete* has two varieties; the religious type (primary form) and the secular type (secondary form). To show the religious status of *orin kete*, *kete* (a calabash pot), after which the genre is named, reflected in Ìbejì song below:

Kéhìndé rodòKéhìndé went to the riverKéhìndé fó koto/keteKéhìndé broke the calabash pot

Òrìṣà ló bun Kệhìndé lómi mu It was Òrìṣà that gave Kệhìndé water to

drink

In the content of the song, Kéhìndé is reported to have gone to the river and broken calabash pot but Òrìṣà helps him/her by giving him/her water. Òrìṣà which is alluded above refers to Òrìṣà-Òkè. In line with our discussion about *orin kete* that it used to worship deities which are women and children related, Òrìṣà-Òkè is one of these deities.

18 Ìbejì is a Yorùbá common name for twins. The first child of the twins is called Táyé while the second

is called Kéhindé. They were regarded as a deity, so they worship them with food items like boiled beans, and palm oil, among others.

This further emphasise that *orin kete* is a religious song because some of its lyrics have the contents of Alárá-Igbó, Ìbèjì, Qbàtálá and Òrìṣà-Òkè.

Ògúndèjì (1979) does not clarify sàkàrá/orin agbè as religious poetry, rather he categorises it as dance music. Ògúndèjì (2014), in his categorisation of African traditional drama, categorises *Ìyàwó Agbè* (*Agbè* Bride) as a deritualised type of Yorùbá performance which he reports could be found in a very far rural area of Òyó north. This is to confirm that Ògúndèjí does not recognise orin agbè as religious poetry. Àlàbá's (1985) examinations on the other hand, shows that orin agbè has both the secular and the ritual aspects. He states that sacrifice is offered to agbè spirit like how it is being offered to Àyàngalú (the Yorùbá drum deity). On a closer examination, one realises that the ritual aspect of orin kete is obviously different from that of orin agbè. Orin kete, as revealed in our investigation has to do with the worship of deities. Obàtálá, Aláráagbó and Òrìsà Ìbejì are prominent, among those deities the song is rendered for. We are also told by Mr Olálérè Iléyemí that orin kete is sung during the worship of Òrò Ìrókò (a spirit living in Ìrókò tree (*Milicia excelsa*). Contrary to this, it is revealed that *orin agbè* is neither used in the worship of any deity nor ascribed to a deity. The fact that sacrifice is offered to agbè as noted by Àlàbá (1979) is not enough evidence to prove that the genre is religious. The primary function of a musical instrument is a major factor to determine its status (either religious or secular) and what actually determines religious status in Yorùbáland requires a connection with an identified deity. In this view, orin agbè cannot, therefore, be considered religious poetry like orin kete. It can, however, be performed at religious occasions such as traditional festivals and different African Traditional Religious feasts as a non-ritual aspect of traditional festivals. Its secular functions allow for this.

4.3 Semiotics of space and time of performances of orin kete and orin agbè

Since it has both religious and secular status, the space of performance of *orin kete* can be divided into two. These are religious and secular spaces of performance. The religious space of performance can also be divided into two; the close and open space of performance (Ògúndèjì, 2000). The number of performers and the audience is considered a criterion for categorisation of these religious spaces of performance. In the close space of performance of *orin kete*, mostly, it occurs at a shrine which might be located somewhere that does not have enough space to accommodate many people who also would have participated. If *orin kete* is to be performed at a religious service (i.e. a

worship), the space of performance is where the deities related to the genre are located. For example, Alárá-Igbó shrine is usually located at a place like a corner in the house of worshippers or the backyard of the worshipper's house where ojú egbé (a centre of the meeting of Alárá-Igbó's worshippers and an external shrine of Alárá-Igbó) is sited. Other spaces of performance of the religious type of orin kete are ojú-ìrèmi/Ìbejì (twins' shrine), *ìdí ìkòkò àsè* (a place where *àsè* pot is located) or at the Ìrókò spirit shrine. Many times, these spaces are not necessarily restricted to members of the audience (initiates and non-initiates) but because there are not enough spaces to accommodate high number of people who might also want to participate, the turnout of the audience at these kinds of places of performance becomes close-ended. The major religious activities that take place in this kind of space of performance include divination by the use of kolanut, orin kete praise and worship songs of the deity, request, and animal and food sacrifice. At this particular space of performance, not all the ensemble of *kete* need to be present, only iyá ilù kete or bènbé (mother drum) and omele (the foremost-played drum) are mostly found in worshipping performance of the genre. Examples of *orin kete* sung in religious space of performance include the following:

1.	Ìràwé mò ń gbá lójú-ęgbę	It was dry leaves I was sweeping at the shrine
	Lọmọ fò mộmi láṣọ	Suddenly a child stuck to my cloth
	Ìràwé mò ń gbá lójú-ęgbę	It was dry leaves I was sweeping at the shrine
	Lọmọ fò mộmi lásọ	Suddenly a child stuck to my cloth
2.	Mo fabèbè mi bèyá o	I used the fan in pleading with mother
	Mo fabèbè òòò	I used the fan
	Àní kộtện kộtện	That it should quickly finish, that it should quickly finish
	Kộtện lájá ń lámi	Is the way dog licks water
	Mo fabèbè mi bèyá o	I used the fan in pleading with mother
3.	Músò o! E bá mi dá musò fAráagbóo	Hurray! (O, you people! or attention!) Join me in shouting hurray for Ará-Igbó

The above three songs are sung at the shrines of the deities mentioned in the contents and *kete* ensemble is played to accompany them. *Ìràwé* could be directly translated as dry leaves. The performer in the performance space of the song where *ìràwé* is used narrates how a child sticks to her dress (to mean she become pregnant) when she is sweeping *ìràwé* at *ojú ęgbé*. *Ojú ęgbé* is usually surrounded by *agbo ògèdè* (banana trees). As a result, dry banana three and fallen leaves of some other trees around are

The semiotic space of the performance of the second song is a graveside, closely located beside ojú egbé. The sentence "Mo fi abèbè mi bèyá" is a pun. The monosyllabic word that is played on is 'bè'. "Bè" in an ordinary sense means to plead, especially for succour. Though the syllable 'be' in abebe in a direct sense does not mean the same as the one in bèyá (bẹ ìyá; beg the mother), if we look at the function which the item abèbè performs (abèbè, a local woven fan, used to blow pleasant air which brings relief during heat period), one might conclude through the sense deriving from the function of abèbè that the word is close to the meaning of $b\dot{e}$. This is more evident when the performer says she uses her fan in pleading with the mother. It should be noted that it is not the direct meaning that bothers the performer at this point but the deep meaning rooted in the usage. As a result, the performer considers the function performed by abèbè (as an item that brings relief) as the same as pleading (for relief), so she uses this scenario to make a plea to the dead mother. The plea she makes is rooted in the sentence that follows "Àní kó tán kó tán, kó tán lajá lámi". This sentence has a characteristic feature of ofò (Yorùbá incantation). The marker "ni" in the deep structure "ni ajá" that turns to "lajá" after the phonological process (deletion of the vowel sound /i/) occurs is a positive assertive sentence marker that is found in Yorùbá incantation (Olátúnjí, 1984 and Ògúndèjì, 1991). The sense of the way the dog licks water that the performer alludes represents her interest and obviously shows that the performer in this semiosphere seeks her mother's mercy towards solving her problem quickly and permanently like how dogs lick water. Abèbè in this semiosphere could be read as a dual sign because it is capable of generating more than one meaning. It is also a religious sign of a plea. Ajá (a dog) could also be read as signifying victory in the context of water licking while the water itself in the same context signifies human problems.



Plate 4.1i. Worshippers offering sacrifice at a graveside in a close-ended performance setting of *orin kete* at Arísányán compound, Ìdòfin, Igbó-Ọrà, on the 18th of August, 2018.

The picture taken by the researcher at Arísányán compound, Ìdòfin, Igbó-Ọrà on 18/8/2018.

Plate 4.1i. above shows the worshippers offering sacrifice to the departed priestess of Alárá-Igbó. The woman in white is the celebrant on behalf of whom the sacrifice is being made in honour of her mother, the departed priestess. The other man who bends down in the picture is a priest guiding her. As already noted, this performance space is for both the initiate and non-initiate of Alárá-Igbó but because there is no enough space to accommodate everybody to witness the occasion, many worshippers stepped aside and gave chance to many people who were not initiates. Similarly, when *orin kete* is being sung as reflected in the Plate 4.1ii. below, non-initiates are allowed to join in dancing round the grave of the object of celebration.



Plate 4. 1ii. The worshippers dancing round the grave

The picture was taken by the researcher at Arísányán compound, Ìdòfin, Igbó-Ọrà
on 18/8/2018.

Kete ensemble in this kind of performance space is an icon of Àyàngalú, the deity of Yorùbá drum, whose voice is summoned in making plea to the dead parent of the worshipper through the deity of Alára-Igbó. This is the reason why the mother drum (*ìyá ìlù*), who talks clearer than other drums of kete is left to perform the role. The verbal text of the song represents the plea which is communicated in the language believed by worshippers to be understood virtually by relating to orin kete and ancestral spirits. The second category of the religious setting of orin kete is an open-ended performance space. In this type of performance space, everybody has the opportunity to sit or remain standing to participate or to watch the genre. This usually takes place in an open space in front of the host's house. This is after the ritual aspect has taken place. The major aspects of orin kete that take place in this kind of performance space include the praise song of the deity being celebrated, individual different dance performances and group dance performances.

The second type of place of performance of *orin kete* is what we call secular space of performance. This occurs in a situation whereby performers of *orin kete* do not serve ritualistic religious purpose but as social entertainers. This type of performance space accommodates naming ceremony, coronation, house warming, burial ceremony, birthday ceremony, anniversary, political occasions and many more. In the olden days, this kind of performance took place only in open spaces, but now it may be in event centres, cinema houses and cultural centres.

As far as performance time is concerned, *orin kete* is mainly performed in the evening when people would have returned from their different workplaces. All the data collected on the genre were got in the evening. The performance can continue until the next day, depending on how broad the ceremony is. *Orin kete* can be performed overnight. Some celebrants may invite performers of *orin kete* in the night of the eve of their ceremony. They will want them to entertain those whom they hire to cook for the next day's occasion so that they will not sleep while cooking. In this kind of performance, many bachelors and spinsters are in attendance because of the different sexual discussions that make this overnight performance lively. The time of performance of *orin kete* is a sinsign of the Yorùbá belief in a period of time within a day. Among the Yorùbá, time of the day has different meanings attached to them. The Yorùbá commence many of their religious activities early in the morning or in the evening. They rarely begin ceremonies that involve drumming or playing musical instruments at noon when the sun is hot. They often initiate such ceremonies either in the morning, in the evening

or at night. Though some of the performances are done also in the heat of the sun, these kinds of performances would have been started before noon. It is, however, rare to commence performance of *orin kete* when the sun is hot. The religious aspects of *orin kete*, usually hold in the evening when the sun is about to set. This may be seen as signifying $\dot{e}r\dot{\phi}$ (antidote, easiness, softness) which worshippers of the deities related to the genre seeking.

Orin agbè, on the other hand, has different places of performance. Among the spatial setting of performance of the genre as mentioned by Ògúndèjì (1979) and Àlàbá (1985) are naming ceremony, wedding, funeral, a celebration of a festival, oral poetry competition, anniversary, thanksgiving, send-off, reception of guests, chieftaincy celebration, house warming and during the national festival. Historically, the first place of performance of *orin* agbè is the battlefield and second, the king's and war chiefs' palaces. There are a lot of questions the performance spaces of *orin agbè* can generate. For instance, one may ask, does the performance of orin agbè at the social events mentioned above have the same semiotic significance as the performance of the genre at its initial performance space (battlefield)? The answer to this is no. The performance of orin agbè at the battlefield signifies a stimulus that causes the increase of power, ability and courage to face enemies in the performer (i.e. Babayemí Ítíolú or Gbòn-ńkáà). Another question that can come to mind is whether such a war performance is held at night? The answer to this is also no. The reason is that the wisdom behind the use of war songs/drums is to stimulate and cause fear and distress in the mind of the opposition. The harshness of the sound of agbè is a sign, a signification of the possibility (rheme) of the defeat of the enemy on the battleground. Such a possibility can be achieved when fear is generated in the minds of the enemies and they, as a result, flee. Wars are fought at night but no brave warrior will make any sound that can wake his enemies; he has all the opportunities to conquer and plunder at night. In this wise, orin agbè is rarely played at night, even up till today that those types of battles are no more.

Considering war as its first performance place, we can categorise the space of performance in *orin agbè* into the battlefield and ceremonial/occasional performance places. It is noteworthy that space in the performance of oral poetry goes a long way to determine the types of performance, the use of language and the types of audience in the performance. It is used to determine the contents and the structure of the whole performance. Comparing the space of performance in both oral poetic genres, the structure and the position of both the performers and the audience of *orin kete* and *orin*

agbè are similar to some extent. The performance spaces of secular type of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* can be represented by the Fig. 4.1i. below.

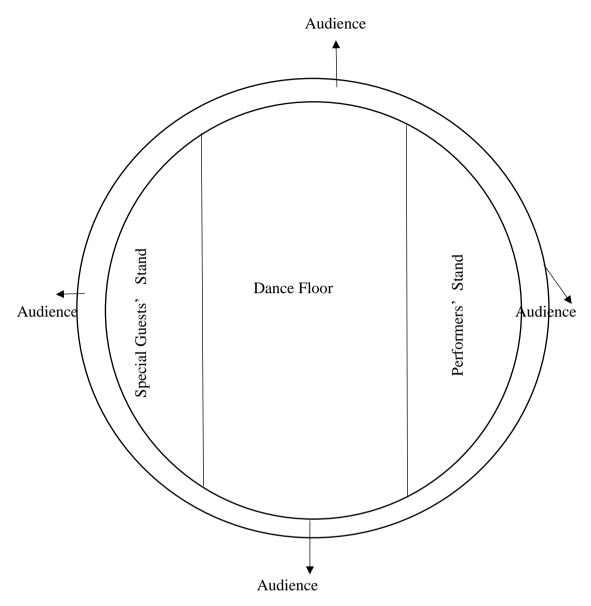


Fig. 4.1i. Generic arena performance place design of orin kete and orin agbè

In the Fig. 4.1i. performance space, the performers are in the opposite direction to the special guests' stand, in between them is the dance floor. We call it dance floor because dance is peculiar to both genres. However, other forms of performances like magical and acrobatic displays in *orin agbè* can also feature on the dance floor. The inner circular line is a demarcation voluntarily made to put the irregular movements of the audience in order. The outer line represents the circular form made by the audience while watching the performance. They make the circular form round the performance activities. Throughout the performance of *orin kete*, the drummers maintain a stagnant position designed for them, they sit next to the circular line that serves as a demarcation between them and the audience. The *orin agbè* instrumentalists, on the other hand, do not maintain a stagnant position throughout their performances. They may sit down in the early part of the performance, but when the performance is getting tense, the situation, including the stage changes. The instrumentalists, mostly the player of *iyá agbè* move as dancers move and other instrumentalists follow them. In this kind of performance, both the dancer and the instrumentalists remain standing.

Another place of performance of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* occurs in a procession performance. This is when the performance is on move. This occurs in *orin kete* when the performers are moving from their house to the space of performance. They must have dressed in their various costumes, moving to the performance space. As part of the announcement, notification and awareness about their performance, they sing, play *kete* ensemble and dance as they move to the performance place. The same thing is observed in *orin agbè*. Because procession performance is more conversant in *orin agbè*, *agbè* performers often turn a stable space of performance into a procession type by moving in a straight line from one edge of the performance space to the other. This occurs mostly in the forward and backward style of dance of *orin agbè*. The Fig. 4.1ii. below represents the procession performance space in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* respectively.

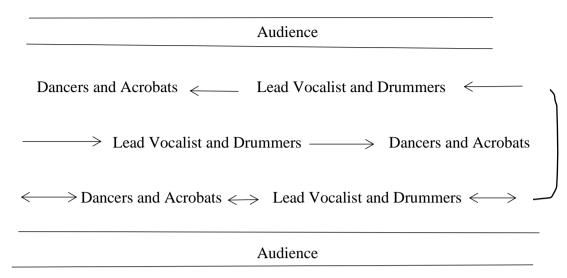


Fig. 4. 1ii. Procession performance space design of orin kete and orin agbè

The space between the double lines at both edges represents the roadsides where the audience stands to see the performance going on the road which is represented by the space between the two edges. Performers of both genres can move in direction of the arrow in the first and second directions indicated by arrows from the top above while only the performers of *orin agbè* made use of the third direction. As mentioned earlier, we dwell much on this when discussing dance styles.

Apart from these two spaces of performance, there is another space of performance in *orin kete* which is basically a religious setting. *Orin agbè*, as a result of its secular status, does not have this. This is represented in the Fig. 4. 1iii. below:

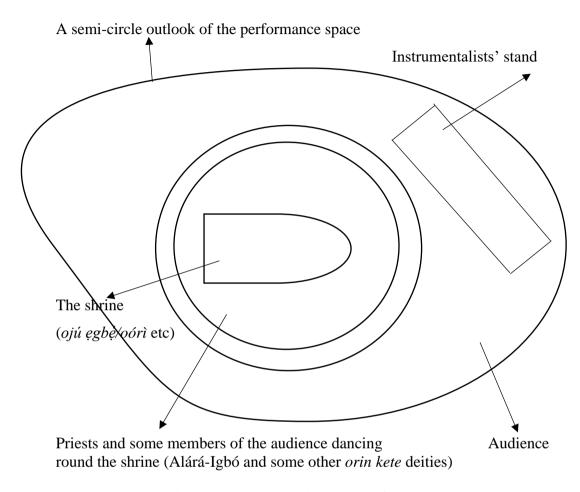


Fig. 4. 1iii. Religious performance space design in orin kete

In the Fig. 4.1iii. space of performance, the performers are the Alárá-Igbó priests, priestesses and *kete* instrumentalists (the players of *ìyá ìlù kete* or *bệnbé* and the players of *omele kete* or *bệnbé*). Because the location of the shrine which determines the space of performance is not quite spacious enough to contain other members of the religious group and the other members of the audience, the circular form which the space should have becomes a semi-circle.

It is, however, expedient to note that the performance spaces in orin kete and orin agbè explained above are not rigid, they are adaptable to change based on the physical structure of the space available for the performance. Similarly, what brings about the performance of orin kete and orin agbè could determine the appearance of these genres' space of performance. It must also be mentioned that performance spaces identified signify different things in the presentation and performance of both genres. The first space identified signifies social interrelationship in the performance of both genres. Nevertheless, this may also be a signifier of worship in *orin kete* when the space of performance in religious activities of Alárá-Igbó is wide enough and easy for the audience to make a circular formation. The second performance space in orin kete and orin agbè is capable of signifying a procession to the performance space and as well from the performance space. This in this sense is a sign of reason. Procession performance is conversant in *orin agbè*. This place of performance does not only signify procession to the performance space or from the performance space. It is a type of dance movement style in the genre. The performers of orin agbè can successfully do a backward movement like that of the forward movement. So, the second space of performance as a sinsign in orin agbè is a signifier, a replica of disorganisation and disarrangement of the scene of the war which happened to be the first setting or space of performance of orin agbè. In the third space, which is the religious space of orin kete based on the performances that occur there is also a physical signifier, a sinsign of sobriety and respect for the deities related to the genre.

4.4 Semiotics of performance structures in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*

Ògúndèjì (1979) outlines three basic structures of *orin agbè* namely, introduction, homage and farewell. He explains, that all other songs fall within the outlined structure. These other songs logically constitute the body of the performance. Therefore, a completed outline of Ògúndèjì's structure of *orin agbè* has following:

introduction/homage, body and farewell. In the introductory part, Ògúndèjì says the artists introduce themselves. After the introduction, they pay homage to supernatural beings and the oldest Ṣàkàrá artist alive in the locality. In the body of the performance of *orin agbè*, songs on different topics ranging from panegyric to past performance, encouragement and boast, incantation and social events are said to be rendered. Then lastly, they sing a farewell song to announce their departure.

According to Àlàbá (1985), the structure of *orin agbè* is an internal distribution of its elements. The structure of *orin agbè*, according to Àlàbá (1985), contains the overture, entertainment and didactic utterances, valedictory and other sayings. The overture consists of three steps which are *ìbà* (homage), *ìwúre ìbèrè* (opening supplication) and *ìfira-eni-hàn ìbèrè* (initial self-introduction). In entertainment and didactic utterances, the artists are reported to discuss their primary and subsidiary concerns, issues ongoing in the society, and advice to the people of society among others. The valedictory sayings are sayings that end the performance. The fourth part which Àlàbá (1985) calls other sayings, is merely a dialogue of various forms that occur among the people involved in *orin agbè*, i.e from one performer to another, and the audience. It is, however, important to note that this last segment of *orin agbè* discussed by Àlàbá is not part of the structure but a style used by the performers of *orin agbè*. It is then more appropriate to discuss it under the communication style in the genre than to discuss it under the structure. This is because dialogue can occur at any point in the performance of the genre.

The structure of *orin agbè* suggested above by Ògúndèjì and Àlàbá can be modified to capture the outlook of the performance of the genre encountered during our fieldwork. The introductory part of the *orin agbè* performance called the overture by Àlàbá may be alternatively termed the prelude. This is made up of *ìsèlù* (instrumental preparation of the performance), *ìbà* (homage), *ìwúre ìbèrè* (opening supplication) and *ìfira-eni-hàn-ìbèrè* (initial self-introduction). The second is the body called entertainment and didactic utterances by Àlàbá. The activities in this main part of the performance can be grouped into two: the verbal and the non-verbal. The verbal performances include praising the poetic subject, entertainment and didactic utterances, dialogue of different types and jokes. The non-verbal performances include different styles of instrumentation, dance styles, acrobatic and magical displays. However, performances in the prelude and farewell/valedictory part of *orin àgbè* can also be grouped into verbal and non-verbal. The last is the farewell (Ògúndèjì, 1979) or

valedictory saying (Àlàbá, 1985). These are the statements used by the performers to bid their audience bye and to suspend the day's performance.

In orin kete, the performance also starts with the prelude. The $is\grave{e}l\grave{u}$ is not in orin kete like orin $agb\grave{e}$; many times, the verbal text runs before the instruments, unlike orin $agb\grave{e}$ where the rhythm of the drums is realised before the verbal text. Other elements of prelude like $ib\grave{a}$ (homage), $iw\acute{u}re$ $ib\grave{e}r\grave{e}$ (opening supplication) and $ifira-eni-h\grave{a}n-ib\grave{e}r\grave{e}$ (initial self-introduction) are also present in orin kete. Like in orin $agb\grave{e}$, the second is the body of the performance. We can as well group the performance activities in this part into two; the verbal and the non-verbal performances. The verbal performances in orin kete like orin $agb\grave{e}$ comprise praising the poetic subject, entertainment and didactic utterances, dialogue of different types and jokes. The non-verbal performances include style of instrumentation and dance styles. The acrobatic and magical displays are not common in orin kete. It focuses much on dances of different types. The last stage of performance in orin kete is also farewell or valedictory sayings. Many a time, repetition of the homage paid to deities related to orin kete is said. This is sung in $w\acute{o}r\grave{o}$ (slow singing tempo).

With all that we have discussed briefly above on the structures of both genres, the Table 4.1 below represents the structures of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*.

Table 4.1 Table of performance structure of orin kete and orin agbè

Genre	Prelude	Body	Farewell/Valedictory
			Sayings
Orin kete	1	1. The verbal	Verbal and non-
	2. Ìbà	performances:	verbal performances
	3. Ìwúre ìbèrè	Praising of the	to show the
	4. Ìfira-ẹni-hàn-	poetic subject,	_
	ìbèrè	entertainment and	performance
		didactic utterances,	
	(These are either	0	
	performed in	different types,	
	verbal or non-	jokes, etc.	
	verbal manners)	2. The non-verbal	
		performances:	
		Different styles of	
		instrumentation and	
		dance styles.	
Orin agbè	1. Ìsèlù	1. The verbal	Verbal and non-
	2. Ìbà	performances:	verbal performances
	3. Ìwúre ìbèrè	Praising the poetic	to show the
	4. Ìfira-eni-hàn-	subject,	suspension of
	ìbệrệ	entertainment and	performance
	(70)	didactic utterances,	
	(These are either	C	
	performed in a	different types,	
	verbal or non-	jokes etc.	
	verbal manner)	2. The non-verbal	
		performances:	
		Different style of	
		playing instrumentation,	
		dance styles, magical and	

4.4.1 Prelude

Modifying Àlàbá (1985) as done above, we come up by adding *ìsèlù* as the first element of the prelude, and that it is unique to *orin agbè*. *Ìsèlù* is then followed by *ìbà*, *ìwúre ìbèrè* and lastly the *ìfira-eni-hàn-ìbèrè*. Apart from *ìsèlù*, there is no rigidity in the order of other subsections of prelude in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. Their states of requirement in the Yorùbá social and cultural setting are considered in arriving at this order of arrangement. Sometimes, performers of *orin agbè* follow this order and they do not follow it sometimes. Similarly, in *orin kete* which does not have *ìsèlù*, *ìbà* may come before *ìwúre* and *ìfira-eni-hàn-ìbèrè*. They may as well not come in the above order sometimes. However, these elements (except *ìsèlù* which is not in *orin kete*) are all compulsory in a good introductory part of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*.

4.4.1.1 *Ìsèlù* (Instrumental preparation of the performance)

In orin agbè performance, the prelude starts with isèlù. At this stage of the performance in *orin agbè*, the performers select the *agbè* each of them will play, they test how each selected agbè sounds to ensure its proper function. After the testing, the gong player opens the performance with the constant beating of the instrument. Then the players of *omele agbè* follow, other *agbè* instruments also follow one after the other and *ìyá agbè* comes last. We shall explain how *agbè* musical instruments are played and the different styles of playing them. Immediately the satisfactory melody of the agbè is realised, the lead singer introduces the lyrics of either *ibà* (homage), *ìwúre ìbèrè* (opening supplication) or *ìfira-eni-hàn-ìbèrè* (initial self-introduction). *Ìsèlù* signifies the test of the quality of sound of agbè instruments which will go a long way in determining the quality of their performance. In this regard, *ìsèlù* is a qualisign because it is used as a test of the quality of a good agbè melody. Ìsèlù features prominently in the performance of Igbó-Orà group of agbè. This is because the agbè instruments of this group were not enmeshed like those of Ìmia and Ilùà. Instead of enmeshing the gourd with seeds, the seeds were put inside it. So to realise the full sound each gourd produced, it took time. As a result, the process of realising the melody of this type of $agb\grave{e}$ is called isèlù (instrumental preparation/sound realisation for performance). The Plate 4.2i. to Plate 4.2v. show how *isèlù* is realised in the performance of *orin agbè* group of Igbó-Orà.





Plate 4.2i. One of the female performers Plate 4.2ii. A performer brings out the brings out $agb\grave{e}$ (gourds) sack. $agb\grave{e}$ for each of them to select.



Plate 4.2iii. The selection and choice making continues.

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Òkè-Ìṣṭrin Igbó-Ọrà on 22/07/2018.



Plate 4.2iv. As selection continues, the gong player kicks off the *isèlù* performance.



Plate 4.2v. The *ìsèlù* has properly started

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Òkè-Ìṣẹrin Igbó-Ọrà on 22/07/2018.

In Plate 4.2v. above, the $agb\grave{e}$ players are making the rhythm, the housewives (\grave{Awon} Olóbìnrin-ilé) stay at their back, expecting the realisation of balance in the rhythm before they start the song. Because it takes a long time in realising this balance, the dancer who is eager to dance (Plate 4.2vi.) makes a critical comment.



Plate 4.2vi. The dancer stretches his hand criticising the instrumentation.

The picture was taken by the researcher at Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Òkè-Ìṣẹrin Igbó-Ọrà on 22/07/2018.

Dancer: Îlù è tí ì daà! This drum is not yet perfect
An instrumentalist: Ó kù díè bàbá... Just a little time more, father.

He was answered by one of the instrumentalists that he should be calm and that it remained a little more time to realise the accurate rhythm. The quality of $agb\dot{e}$ performance depends on the good realisation of its rhythm, that is why $is\dot{e}l\dot{u}$ is quite important in $agb\dot{e}$ or $s\dot{a}k\dot{a}r\dot{a}$ performance.

4. 4.1.2 *Ìbà* (homage)

Ògúndèjì (1991) and (1992a) emphasise the importance of *ìbà* in oral performance. This is because the Yorùbá believe that *àdáṣe níi hun ọmọ, ìbà ò gbudò hun ọmọ* ¹⁹ (Pride leads to failure, paying homage does not) and *bekòló bá júbà ilè, ilè á lánu*²⁰ (When the earthworm pays homage to the earth, the earth opens). The performers of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* pay homage to spiritual beings and elders. Ògúndèjì (1979) mentions this when he states that, homage is paid in *orin agbè* to supernatural beings and most importantly to the witches who are called *olóde* (the owner of the day) and to the oldest *ṣàkàrá* artist alive in the locality (Ìṣṣmi). Àlàbá (1985) also draws attention to the importance and the place of homage in the oral genre. "Ìbà is culturally the most important theme in the introductory part of any traditional social performance among the Yorùbá. It concerns saluting the powers that rule the Yorùbá cosmos in general and the powers that rule any venture which the Yorùbá wish to undertake" (102-103). It is revealed in this study that, the content of *ìbà* can be combined with opening supplication and the initial self-introduction. This is not limited to *orin agbè*, the performers of *orin kete* also do the same. Below are examples from the two genres.

In the performance of *orin kete* at Olúrìn compound, Ìsàlè-Qba, Igbó-Qrà, the performance was held on their $Qj\phi$ $\dot{Q}s\dot{e}$ (the day for worshipping Qbàtálá) which falls on a Sunday. The lead singer started the performance with homage.

Lílé: Rírán la rán mi wá I was sent here Èmi kí mo ránra mi I did not send myself

1

¹⁹ Àdáṣe nií hun omo, ìbà ò gbudò hun omo means a child ends well when he pays homage but ends otherwise when he does not. Yorùbá believe that whatever one aims to do in life, some people have done it before. Once the person pays homage to them, the aláṣekù (spirits/dead beings/elders) will come to his aid and the person will succeed in the mission. If the person does not pay homage, he will be left alone and he would not succeed.

²⁰ Bekòló bá júbà ilè, ilè á lánu as well portrays the importance of ìbà. The sentence means if the earthworm pays homage to the land, the land will open for it. As fragile as earthworm is, Yorùbá believe that it is easy for it to break through and enter into the soil because it pays homage to the land. This is also to emphasise the importance of homage paying in getting things done.

Àse dowó eni tó rán mi wá

Ègbè: Rírán la rán mi wá Èmi kí mo ránra mi

Àṣẹ dọwợ ẹni tó rán mi wá

Homage is due to the one that sent

me

I was sent here I did not send myself

Homage is due to the one that sent

me

The performer made it known in the song that he was just a messenger acting under the authority, to whom honour is due. The Yorùbá believe that Olódùmarè (God) is the Supreme Authority that sent everybody to earth and everybody is accountable to Him. The Ultimate Being the performer referred to as the person that sent him in the above poetic lines is Olódùmarè (The Supreme Being). It must be observed here that iba song is usually rendered in $\dot{e}g\dot{\phi}/\dot{e}fa$ (slow) tempo. The reason for being rendered in $\dot{e}g\dot{\phi}$ is because it is indexically signifying honour to Olódùmarè. In this wise, $\dot{e}g\dot{\phi}$ in iba semiosphere of performance of *orin kete* is an index, signifying respect and honour to Olódùmarè. He must be totally respected because He is the source of everything. So, one among the ways of showing respect to Him is by respectfully lowering one's voice as shown above.

An example of homage that concludes with a line of supplication is presented in the excerpt that follows. The performance was held at Arúnńlè compound after the meeting of the performers hosted by Mr Sunday Elébùrú (The Secretary of the group) on the 17th of June, 2018.

Ìṣàré: Éè, e dákun sùúrù ni e șe

Onílòkó, omo Ìlókùn eşin

Ìbà ni n ó fọjó òní jú

Qmọ ò níi rẹni júbà kíbà họnmọ

Ìbà Ìkó, omo Ìlókùn esin...

Omo Joládé

Mo wá ribà kíbà se

Àdáse níi honmo

Ìbà ò gbódò họnmọ

Ààrinolá

Chant: Please people, be

patient

Onílòkó, offspring of Ìlókùn eşin It is only homage I

will pay today

A child will not pay homage and end up being unsuccessful

I pay homage to Ìkó, offspring of

Ìlókùn eşin Offspring of

Joláadé

Let the homage paid be accepted

Pride leads to

failure

Paying homage

does not Ààrinolá Mo wá ribà kíbà se I pay homage, let

homage the

accepted

Òwòtóbí Àlàbí Òwòtóbí Àlàbí Kíbà ó má honmo ò May the child's

homage make him

succeed

Òwòtóbí Àlàbí Òwòtóbí Àlàbí Kíbà ó má họnni ò May my paid

homage make me

succeed

Orin: Àgbààgbà Song: You elders

> Mo forí balè fun yín ò I bow to you Èyìn àgbààgbà You, the elders Mo forí balè fun yín ò I bow to you Qmọdé ìlú ò

Young people of

the town Mo foríbàlè I bow to you

Kí n má sorin ko Let me not sing

wrongly

Ègbè: Àgbààgbà Response: You elders

Mo forí balè I bow down

Kí n má sorin kọ Let me not sing

wrongly

In this foregoing, the performer paid homage to the elders mentioned in the lines of the poem. He also clearly stated in the benedictory line that the reason for his paying homage is that he will not make mistakes during his performance. *Ìbà*, generally, in *orin kete* is a religio-cultural code that signifies respect for the elders, divinities and other spiritual beings. It also signifies a connecting factor between the dead and the living.

This is also the position of *ìbà* in *orin sàkàrá*. Homage is paid to the ancestors, the elders and others present at the performance. In the performance of orin agbè at the backyard of Mr Mátíù Òjéèlú (Atakóró), on the 9th of September, 2018 at Ilùà, the performers paid homage to the landlord that hosted them.

Àwá dé o Lílé: Call: We have arrived

Omore o The good people E woléere Look for a good house E tò wá sí o And lodge us there

Ègbè: Àwá dé o Response: We have arrived Omore o The good people

Look for a good house E wolée re E tò wá sí o... And lodge us there

Lílé: Àwa la dé Call: We are the one that arrived

> Àjèjì ò wòlú konílè má mò o A stranger cannot enter a town without the landlord's consent

Ègbè: Àwa la dé Response: We are the one that arrived

Lílé: Àjèjì ò wòlú konílè má mò o Call: A stranger cannot enter a town

without landlord's consent

Ègbè: Àwa la dé Response: We are the one that arrived

The performers in the above lines announced their arrival. They called themselves good people (*omore*) and as a result, wanted their host lodge them in a good house. They continued that they were the ones that had arrived and that a stranger cannot enter a town without the landlord's consent. $\grave{A}j\grave{e}j\grave{i}$ (a stranger), as it is used in " $\grave{A}j\grave{e}j\grave{i}$ o $\grave{w}ol\acute{u}$ konîl \grave{e} má $m\grave{o}$ o" above is a signifier. It is the performers that are signified as " $\grave{a}j\grave{e}j\grave{i}$ " in this context while the host is signified as " $onîl\grave{e}$ " (landlord). This song is a homage paid by the performers to their host. It is a signification of high respect to the host. His role in accommodating them is openly acknowledged. This is also an index of the fact that the consent had been sought from the host and permission granted; a pre-performance due process was followed. In the performance of *orin agbè* by the Igbó-Orà group, homage was paid to the landlord who might have invited them. It may, however, be that the performers were just passing by his house.

Lílé: Onílé șe wá pèlé Call: Be kind to us, oh landlord

Ègbè: Pèlé ojú tó mọni Response: With kindness, the familiar eyes

Lílé: Kínikíni Call: Those that greet one another Ègbè: Kò le póun ò moni mó Response: Can never deny one another

Lílé: Ojú tó mọni Call: The familiar eyes

Ègbè: Kò póun ò mọni mó Response: Can never deny one another

In the above song, onilé was told to be kind to them by the performers. As treated under the preceding data, onilé like onilè (landlord) is used to signify the host. While persuading onilé to be kind to them, the performers refer to a proverb that emphasises being kind to someone one is familiar with "...ojú tó mọni, kò le póun ò mọni mộ" (... the familiar eyes can never deny one another). The familiar eyes as it is used in this context is a synecdochical representation of both the host and the performers. As a result, "..ojú tó mọni..." is a signifier with dual signified. When they refer to both the performers and the host, this is signifying the fact that both cannot deny knowing each other. Also, the word "kinikini" (ones who greet one another), can refer to both the host and the performers. It should be observed that "kinikini" is used to substitute "...ojú tó mọni..." in the lines of this song. The reason for this is because the word "kinikini" makes the underline message of the song directed to onilé more explanatory. "Kinikini" and "...ojú tó mọni..." could also be read as an index of familiarity which has been existing between

the performers and the host before the time of performance. They are as well representamen of reason (argument); the reason that validates the possibility of the performance at *ontlé*'s performance space. If we consider the fact that the performer has mentioned it clearly that they were directing the message of the song to their host in the first line of the excerpt, we can then conclude that both "*ojú tó mọni*" and "*kínikíni*" are referring to *ontlé* who happened to be the host of the performance. *Ontlé* was told by the performers to be kind to them (...se wá pèlé). This may in another context of use mean a demand to be greeted or acknowledged, but, here, the song signifies a request for permission from the host to allow the performers to perform in his domain.

4.4.1.3 *Ìwúre ìbệrệ* (opening supplication)

Opening supplication is at times joined with homage. It may even be seen as part and parcel of homage because the beings to whom homage is paid are the same as the ones to whom supplication of the invocation is made in this part of the performance. So, paying homage to a being or spirit considered as having superior power to one is closely connected with a supplicatory request from him. The purpose of homage is to present a request for the smooth running of the performance. A clear cut distinction cannot be neatly set between the two as both will continue to relate to each other. Let us examine the following examples of invocatory prayer made by the performers of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* and explicate signs that need critical explanation. Example of opening prayer is the song (*orin kete*) below:

Ìsàré: Mo dáyẹn dúró ná E jệ n máa rétí inú gbộ

E dákun e má mú tèmi gbó

Ó kù díệ gín-ín-gín... Wéré nikán ń mọlé Bítàkùn ò bá já Owó ò le bòkéré

Orin: Èèwò ò

Èèwò fún wa lóde èèwò

Omo Láșelé ò Èèwò ò

Èèwò fún wa lóde ò èèwò

Qkộ ò ní bebè é rojộ

Chant: I stop that for now

Let me hear with my inner

ear

Please do not plan against

me

It remains just a little

Termite eats a house slowly

If the rope is intact

The squirrel can never be

caught

Song: It is abomination

Never will it happen in our

outing

The offspring of Láșelé

Song: It is abomination

Never will it happen in our

outing

The hoe will never argue

with the ridge

Ègbè: Èèwò òò Response: Never

Èèwò fún wa lóde èèwòòòò Never will it happen in our

outing

Lílé: Okó ò ní bebè é rojó Call: The hoe will never argue

with the ridge

Ègbè: Èèwò òò Response: Never

Èèwò fún wa lóde èèwòòòò Never will it happen in our

outing

We can divide this song into two parts. The first part begins from line one to line seven. The second is from line eight to the end, line fifteen. The first part is a chant and the second is a song. The first part can also be subdivided into two. The first subdivision of the first part of the excerpt is from line one to four while the second subdivision is from line five to seven. The reason for this subdivision is the structure of the sentences in the second subdivision. The sentences in this subdivision conform to sentence structures of the positive and conditional assertive sentences in the Yorùbá incantation (Olátúnjí, 1985 and Ògúndèjì, 1991). Unlike the first subdivision whose sentences within indicate an attempt made by the lead singer to communicate with some of his band members who offered him information on the next thing to do. The lead singer in this first subdivision of the song stated that he stopped what he was discussing before, people disturbing him should let him concentrate, they should not conspire against him and that he would grant their requests in a few time. He then started to make incantations, alluding to how termites destroy houses slowly and gradually, and that if the rope is intact, a squirrel can never be caught. Though the sentence "Bítàkùn ò bá já, owó ò le tòkéré" is proverbial, as used above, it functions as an incantation. Whether it is used as an incantation or a proverb, the symbolic representation of *ìtàkùn* means the path or the way of success through which òkéré takes to escape from predators and hunters. In this wise, the lead singer in the semiosphere of the song regarded his band as *ìtàkùn* that leads him while seeing himself as *òkéré*. Thus, he believed that if his band members were still intact, he could not fail and his performance would be successful. Both *ìtàkùn* and *òkéré* as used here are also sinsigns whose meanings depend on each other.

The second part of the excerpt which is a song is a complement to the second subdivision of the first part. The word " $\grave{e}\grave{e}w\grave{o}$ " means 'never will it happen' which makes the refrain lines of the song is an elliptical statement of " \acute{O} di $\grave{e}\grave{e}w\grave{o}$ fún wa lóde" to mean "Never will it happen to us in our outing". This is repeated in the second, fourth and fifth lines of the call of the song but with a deleted subject " \acute{O} " (a third person singular

pronoun) and the main verb "di" (to mean become). The lead singer intentionally deleted these parts of the sentence because he wanted to economise words for attaining a good melody. There also exist symbolic signifiers in the line of the call. These are $ok\phi$ (the hoe) and $eb\dot{e}$ (the ridge). The hoe is said does not argue with the ridge. Firstly, hoe and ridge are not human characters; hence they cannot engage in argument with each other. This is to show both items are symbols representing something else. In the cultural background of the Yorùbá people, $ok\phi$ is used to make the ridge. $ok\phi$, which the singer said would never argue with okdeta is a symbolic representation of the band members, who are directing the lead singer on what next to do in their performance. okdeta on the other hand, symbolically represents the lead singer. What the lead singer in the song implies is that, as the hoe makes the ridge, it is not possible that it would argue with it. And as it is not possible for the hoe to argue with the ridge, the member of his band cannot have misunderstanding.

Supplications are also made at the beginning in *orin agbè* for protection against evils of the day. In the example below, the performers prayed against the evil that could affect them from making gains in their performance.

Lílé: Òbe má be wá lesè Call: Knife should not cut our feet

Jé á kóre délé It should let us return home with

gains

Ègbè: Òbe má be wá lesè Response: Knife should not cut our feet

Jé á kóre délé It should let us return home with

gains

The sentences of the call of the above song are fully repeated in the response. This is a type of call and response in *orin agbè*. There are two independent but linked sentences in the call. The first is " $\dot{Q}be$ má be wá lésè" and "Jé á kóre délé". The second sentence "Jé á kóre délé" is a surface structure of the deep structure of the sentence. The word " $\dot{Q}be$ " (knife) which is in the deep structure is deleted. The deep structure is " $\dot{Q}be$ jé á kóre délé" (Knife, let return home with gain). To maintain the melodic tune of the song, the subject ($\dot{Q}be$) is deleted. Both sentences of the call are minimal sentences with literal meanings. They mean as translated above. When reading these sentences retroactively, they suggest more than their literal meanings. There are three words whose meanings are embedded in one another in both sentences. These are $\dot{Q}be$ (knife), be (to peel or cut) and ese (foot). $\dot{Q}be$ and ese as used in the above excerpt result in a symbolic wordplay (Olátúnjí, 1985). $\dot{Q}be$ at the subject position in the usage is interposed with the main verb "ese" to show things both words have in common. The first is an object and the second is the action performed by the object. Both words have a syllable in common.

This is the syllable /bɛ/ with /b/ and /ɛ/ sounds. The former $(\dot{\rho}be)$ is derived from the latter (be) through the prefixation: $\dot{\rho} + be = \dot{\rho}be$, this is to mean something that peels or cuts. So, the object is identified and named after the function it performs. With regard to its retroactive meaning, the hypogram $(\dot{\rho}be)$ could only be best explained when considering be as a seme (a root) through which the matrix that generates the hypogram could be identified. Then $\dot{\rho}be$ meaning as shown above is an object that is capable of cutting. Because $\dot{\rho}be$ is capable of cutting the performer's leg, then $\dot{\rho}be$, as it is used here, does not ordinarily signify knife in the real sense but all forms of dangers that are capable of hampering the performers' success in their outing. Thus, $\dot{\rho}be$ is a sinsign, indexically signifying dangers.

However, "be" could also mean "to live" in a cultural semiosphere of greeting among the Yorùbá people; hence, "be" is a dual sign. But "be" as used in the benedictory part of the *orin agbè* excerpt above cannot mean "to live" but "to cut or peel". Esè is synecdochically used to represent the performers, who were imploring obe not to cut their legs. One can raise a question on why esè is specifically mentioned in the prayer and not other parts of the performers' bodies. This is because agbè performers are itinerant, they sometimes travel from one place to another by leg. Constant movement is the main feature of performance which is pointed to in the excerpt cited above. Thus, the metaphoric reference to leg implies the performers' desire to have unhindered movement from one location to another.

4.4.1.4 *Ìfira-eni-hàn-ìbèrè* (initial self-introduction)

Initial self-introduction is another important part of overture in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. Members of the performing group must introduce themselves to members of the audience, who might be unfamiliar with their performance. In this part of the performance, the lead performer introduces himself and his team, touching on their experiences, their knowledge of the genre and the respect they deserve. In the religious type of *orin kete* performed at the Obokoto Compound on the 14 of April, 2018, the performers introduced themselves thus:

Orin: Onílé níí bomi fálejò Chorus: It is the host that serves

water to the visitor Àwa dé òòò We have come

Onílé níí bomi fálejò It is the host that serves

water to the visitor Àwa dé òòò We have come Olórìsà a dé The idol worshippers, we

have come

We have come again with A tún gbéré wa dé

our performance

The idol worshippers, we Olórisà a dé

have come

A tún gbéré wa dé o We have come again with

our performance

Onílé níí bomi fálejò It is the landlord that serves

water to the visitor

Àwa dé o We have come

In the above excerpt, the performers introduced themselves as ólórisà (idolworshippers). They also introduced themselves as performers when they sang "A tún gbéré wa dé" (We have come again with our performance). They similarly pleaded with their host (onilé) to treat them with the utmost kindness. This is the signification of the positive assertion "onílé níí bomi fáléjo" (It is the host that serves water to the visitor) with which the song is opened and repeated twice. The word water in this context suggests more than the surface referent. Water in this regard is generated through the process of expansion, that is extending the meaning of the word water to signify different hospitality activities rendered to visitors in the Yorùbá socio-cultural setting. Hospitality actually begins with water offering among the Yorùbá but it does not end there. The request for a hospitable reception, which is represented by the water offering, is the signified focus of the opening statement. Giving required hospitable treatment to visitors apart from water include other hospitality activities which will make the stying of àlejò (visitor) at the onîlé's (host) premises more comfortable. It is these activities the expanded meaning of water in the context of the performance signifies.

Another example in *orin kete* is found in the performance of Mr Iyìolá Olálérè Kete group of performers. At the beginning of the performance, the first lead performer, Mr Iyìolá Olálérè a.k.a Akójá, introduced himself and praised his family lineage:

Chant: Homage to the penis that Ìṣàré: Ìbà okó tó doríkodò tí ò ṣoje sags without dropping fluid

Ìbà èlè tó doríkodò tí ò sèjè Homage to the vagina that faces downward without

bleeding

I will make homage today

A child will not pay

homage and end up being

unsuccessful

Rat lice does not hut rat

Ìbà ni ón fọjó òní jú

Omo ò níí réni júbà kíbà honmo...

Iná ewú è é jéwú lówó

Orinládé, isé baba omo ò gbódò honmo... Orinládé, father's business does not affect a child

Onílòkó omo Ìlókùn eşin Onílòkó, the offspring of

Ìlókùn eşin

Akéekúyá, omo iyán pupa Akéekúyá, the offspring of

the red pounded yam He whose belly is robust

Yòkòtò nikùn ajìfà He whose belly is Omo Arílégbinlá The offspring of

Arílégbinlá Who is also

Aréyìnkùlégbìlasa Who is also Aréyìnkùlégbìlasa

Ò-foko-àkùrò-gbin gbòòrò He who plants sprouts of

the pumpkin on a waterlogged land

The offspring of bu

*Omo elegédé inú ìgbé*The offspring of bush

pumpkin

Òkan ṣoṣo ní máá so... Which bears only one fruit

In the foregoing, the performer introduced himself by making his listeners know that in his profession, he has a father to pay homage to. This means that his father was also a performer of *orin kete*. He also described himself as Orinladé, the offspring of Onílokó. Thus, he hails from Ilokó lineage. It is be noted that the initial self-introduction shown above is indirectly derived from the homage. This is evidence to show that sometimes the content of an aspect of the overture in the performances of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* could be found in one another and they are interrelated.

Performers of *orin agbè* also introduce themselves in their performance. As a family tradition, $\dot{s}akara$ performers group of Ajóṣakara compund do not take the initial self-introduction with levity. They believe that a bonafide child of the house will like to be identified with the song ($\dot{s}akara$). So, by feeling proud of being identified with the song, they quickly go into introduction at the early stage of the performance. The prominent among the songs used as initial self-introduction is the one below.

Lílé: A gbé tilé wa dé Call: We have come with our family tradition

Ègbè: Tilée wa Response: Our family tradition

Lílé: A gbé tilé wa dé Call: We have come with our family

tradition

Ègbè: Tilée wa Response: Our family tradition

Lílé: Àkókó kosùn ó kerí Call: Woodpecker applies camwood to

paint its head

Ègbè: Tilée wa Response: Our family tradition

Lílé: Àdàbà kosùn ó kàyà Call: Dove applies camwood to paint its

chest

Ègbè: Tilée wa Response: Our family tradition

Lílé: Olóbùró kosùn ó kộfọn Call: Olóbùró²¹ applies camwood to

paint its neck

Ègbè: Tilée wa Response: Our house tradition

Lílé: A gbé tilé wa dé Call: We have come with our house

tradition

Ègbè: Tilée wa Response: Our house tradition

Many significations are embedded in the above hypogram. Despite the characteristic repetitive nature of the excerpt especially in the response lines, parallelism is also deployed. It is through these parallel sentences that the parts of the body of the birds mentioned in the song are painted with different colours. The parallel sentences make it easy for some words to co-occur and as well make lexical interposition possible. Àkókó co-occurs with àdàbà and olóbùró while osùn (camwood) is common to the three sentences. The third set of words that co-occur are ori (head), àyà (chest) and òfin (throat). The first set of lexically match words belong to types of birds that are having one feature in common. What they are having in common is the reddish colour osùn of the different parts of their bodies. Attention needs to be paid to the part of the body on which these birds were said to rub their camwood. Àkókó rubs its osùn on its head, àdàbà rubs it on its chest while *olóbùró* rubs its own on his neck. Considering the level of the place at which these parts are located, the head is the most elevated part of the body and is considered the most important part of the body; it is there the eyes are located. The head is used to signify the most exalted person or thing. This is reflected in the saying; "Orí ò níí pada dìdí láé", this is to mean the head/leader will never turn to the tail/followers ever. In this wise, connecting àkókó with orí (the head) suggests or signifies the leadership position of àkókó in camwood painting over the other two mentioned birds. Similarly, or is more obvious compared to the other two parts of the body mentioned above. This is to say àkókó 's camwood make-up is more obvious than that of the other two birds which applied theirs on the chest and throat respectively. What this signifies is that Ajósàkàrá group of agbè performers considered themselves the master of other groups that might claim to be performers of orin agbè. There also is a proverb that says "Àkókó loba gbédógbédó". This means woodpecker is the king mortar

-

carver. Since $\grave{a}k\acute{o}k\acute{o}$ is referred to as a king in this proverb, referring to it as mentioned in the above analysis thus foregrounds its kingly status. Next to $\grave{a}k\acute{o}k\acute{o}$, if we follow the parts of the body painted is $ol\acute{o}b\grave{u}r\acute{o}$ which has its camwood painted on the neck. And lastly is $\grave{a}d\grave{a}b\grave{a}$, which shows its skill in camwood painting by painting the chest.

There are several examples of initial self-introduction in *orin agbè*. In the ṣàkàrá performance of Ìmia and Ìlùà *agbè/ṣàkàrá* performance group, there is a space for initial self-introduction in their performance. During our interview with Chief John Adégòkè, the Bàbá-Qba of Ìmia, he told us that at the initial stage of their performance, they introduced themselves and where they come from. One of the songs used in performing this is the one below.

Lílé: Ará Ìmia lawá We are people of Ìmia Call: We are people of Isemi Ègbè: Èrò Ìsemí lawá Response: Lílé: Ará Ìmíá lawá We are people of Ìmia Call: Ègbè: Èrò Ìsémí lawá Response: We are people of Isemi Lílé: Àlóba ò pé a má ṣa... Call: King does not say... Ègbè: Qba ò pé a má sàré King does not say we Response: should not perform

In the above lyric, two different towns are mentioned. The towns are neighbours to each other. Ògúndèjì (1979) maintains that the people of Ìmia joined Ìṣṇmi following their migration from Ahoro-Ìmia, their former domicile. Among their intangible cultural artefacts brought to Ìṣṇmi is *orin agbè* which Ìmia people received and imbibed. Chief John Adégòkè, during the course of our interview with him, also affirmed this. He said

Ìmia people were the ones that taught the people of Ìṣṇmi the performance of agbè song. They have the same agbè group, to maintain the balance when they are having performance, they identify themselves with both towns. He said the way of singing the song before it was corrected as quoted or whenever they wanted to discriminate against the people of Ìṣṇmi is:

Lílé:Omọ Ìmia lawáCall:We are children of ÌmiaÈgbè:Èrò Ìṣẹmi lệyinResponse:You are people of ÌṣẹmiLílé:Omọ Ìmiá lawáCall:We are children of ÌmiaÈgbè:Èrò Ìṣẹmi lệyinResponse:You are people of Ìṣẹmi

Chief John Adégòké stated that employing the term $\grave{e}r\grave{o}$ (people) to identify the people of Ìṣṇmi in their group in the context in which omo (child) is used to identify people of Ìmia in the group is derogatory. As a result, $ar\acute{a}$, a synonymous word for $\grave{e}r\grave{o}$ is adopted. So, $ar\acute{a}$ and $\grave{e}r\grave{o}$ in this regard are conventional signifiers, signifying consanguineous relationship, unity and co-operation between the people of Ìmia and Ìṣṇmi at the performance space of $orin\ agb\grave{e}$.

In the performance of *orin agbè* of the people of Ìlùà, the performers introduced themselves with a different song. The one that exactly identifies them as people of Ìlùà is this;

Lílé: Àwa laláré o Call: We are the artists

*Qmo Ìlùà à ré*These are indigenes of Ìlùà

Ègbè: Àwa lènìyàn Response: We are humans

Omo Ìlùà à ré ò

These are indigenes of Ìlùà

The performers in the above $agb\grave{e}$ described themselves as humans from Ìlùà. Does this mean the members of the audience are not aware of the fact that they are human beings before calling themselves $\grave{e}n\grave{i}y\grave{a}n$ (human being)? Definitely, they are. What the performers want their audience to understand while calling themselves $\grave{e}n\grave{i}y\grave{a}n$ is the retroactive root to which the word could be attributed. The word $\grave{e}n\grave{i}y\grave{a}n$ does not ordinarily mean human beings. There are various types of human beings. In this context, the root to which the hypogram ($\grave{A}wa\ l\grave{e}n\grave{i}y\grave{a}n$, $omo\ il\grave{u}\grave{a}\ a\ r\acute{e}$) could be attributed is the Yorùbá saying " $\grave{E}n\grave{i}y\grave{a}n\ w\acute{o}n$ " (A good person is scarce). $\grave{E}n\grave{i}y\grave{a}n\ (human)$ is a shortened form of $\grave{e}n\grave{i}y\grave{a}n\ rere\ (a\ good\ person)$ which the performers called themselves. So, $\grave{e}n\grave{i}y\grave{a}n$ as used in the above excerpt is a seme on which the system of signs in the song cited could be attributed to derive accurate meaning.

It is important to first mention that in the religious type of *orin kete*, precisely *orin Ìbèjì* and *orin Alárá-Igbó*, there are formulas in which every lyric of the song is

opened. In *orin Alárá-Igbó*, every performer that wants to sing must start with the sentence "E dá músò o^{22} " and others will respond by saying "Músò o". The primary significance of the músò is performative. It is used to signify the beginning of a song and to arrest the total attention of the audience who must be ready to respond appropriately to the lead vocalist (cantor). The following version of the músò call and response further reveals its semiotic significance:

Lílé: Músò o Call: Músò o (hurray)

E bá mi dá músò fAráágbó Join me to praise Ará-Igbó

Ègbè: Músò o Response: *Músò* o (hurray)

E bá mi dá músò fAráágbó Join me to praise Ará-Igbó

In the above lyric, "*Músò*" is directly addressed to Alárá-Igbó. As a sign, it is not only a onomatopoetic symbol of happiness but also by extension a signifier of respect, praise and honour for Alárá-Igbó. Alárá-Igbó in this context is the heroine of the performance. It is an appreciation of her prowess and kindness to them that they are happy and are giving the "*músò*" call and response. It is, therefore, in this respect that the sign is an onomatopoetic symbol of Alárá-Igbó in the performance context.

Using "músò" call and response as a command in the performance of kete song is religious legisign. The user consciously makes use of it to create an effect of perfect silence because the worshippers of Alárá-Igbó consider the statement as metosymbolic signifier of Alárá-Igbó. "Músò" in this sense could also be read as a sign of communication in maintaining perfect silence, waiting for a new command.

In the case of the performance of *orin Ìbejì* (twin's song), there is also a call and response formula for starting every lyric. The lead singer/lead vocalist opens with "*Epo o?*" and the chorus replies by saying "*Èwà*". *Epo* is the Yorùbá word for palm oil while *èwà* is beans. Both signs are representamen (legisign) deployed in the worship of Ìbèjì. It is obligatory in the worship of Ìbejì to offer cooked beans and palm oil as sacrificial elements to the deity. The deity does not taste *àdí*, oil produced from palm kernels. The offering of beans and palm oil as accepted sacrificial elements is reflected in the following songs of Ìbejì:

completion of the story. The writer sees the narration of this story as a huge task that deserves to be celebrated. So, $m\acute{u}s\grave{o}$ can be translated to mean hurray in English.

²² This is a word of showing happiness or joy that comes after the achievement of a tedious task that requires much effort, time and intelligence. It is usually used by hunters/warriors to celebrate their victory after putting a dreadful situation under control i.e. war. The storyteller in D.O Fágúnwà's Ògbójú Ode Nínú Igbó Îrúnmole at the end of the narration asks the listeners to say múso three times for the successful

1. Lílé: Eni máa bíbejì yóó sèwà fun

Ègbè: Kéhìndèré

Mo sèwà fún bejì
 Mo sepo fún tÁyélolú
 Orí Kéhìndé kó má padà léyìn mi

Omo ni Táyélolú

Épo ń bẹ èwà ń bẹ ò

Èpo ń bẹ èwà ń bẹ ò

Àyà mi ò já o

À ó ee

Àyà mi ò já láti bíbejì o

Epo ń be èwà ń be ò

Call: Whoever wants to give birth to twins will cook beans for them

Response: Kéhìndèré

I cook beans for twins
I cook palm oil for Téyélolú
May Kéhìndé's inner head not stop
supporting me
Táyélolú is a good child

Join us to play with the twins You that eat beans with the twins

There is beans and palm oil
There is beans and palm oil
I'm not scared
Yes of course
I'm not scared of giving birth to
twins
There is beans and palm oil

Apart from being a religious sign, which makes their legisign status valid, the signs *epo* and èwà in the context of Ìbejì worship are obligatory symbolic elements. They have no resemblance to the object they signify but as a matter of religious law and culture, they are metonymic symbols of Ìbejì. So, any shrine with cooked beans and palm oil together could be taken as an Ìbejì's shrine. Epo may signify Táyé(wò) (also Táìwò and Táí) and èwà may signify Kéhìndé (also Mókéhìndé, Mókéhìn and Kéhìn). A quick morphological analysis of the names reveals that Táyéwò is $t \acute{o} + ay\acute{e} + wò$ (taste + earth + see, to mean; the first to have a taste of the world). On the other hand, Kéhìndé/Kéyìndé is $k\phi + \hat{e}hin/\hat{e}yin + d\hat{e}$ (carry + last + come to mean; the last to arrive (in the world)). Considering the position of being the first or the second with the items of sacrifice to Ìbejì, *epo* could be said to signify Táyé while *èwà* signifies Kéhìndé. *Epo* signifies Táyé because it is usually mentioned before èwà in Òrìṣà Ìdejì discourse as the fourth song above reveals. Besides, in Òrìṣà Ìbèjì discourse, epo is often attached to Táyé as the second song above indicates. If epo signifies Táíwò, èwà would then signify Kéhìndé. Despite all these observations, both must be treated as one because it is believed in the worship of Ibejì that twins must not be treated in isolation but together as one. Whatever is given to Táíwò must also be given to Kéhìndé to avoid their grievances. This can be shown in the following lullaby for twins:

 Táyé o, Kệhìn
 Tấ

 Qmọ gidi méjì
 Tv

 N ò lè bímọ méjì
 I c

 Kí n dákan pè o
 An

 Táyé o, Kệhìn
 Tá

Táyé and Kéhìn Two good children I cannot give birth to twins And call them separately Táyé and Kéhìn

Having opened with " \dot{E} dá músò o" and the chorus replying "Músò o", the lead singer can proceed to begin the performance or start a new song.

4.4.2 The body of the performance (eré gan-an)

This comprises different renditions and performances that are in the repertory of the *kete* and *agbè* performers' groups. This part of the whole performance includes both the verbal and non-verbal performances that come between the overture and the valediction. The verbal performance includes all the songs, chants and other speech forms in the performance of the genres. The verbal mode is used to express homage, initial supplication and initial self-introduction which we have discussed above. Similarly, verbal dialogue, panegyrics, drumbeat, socio-cultural discussions, jokes, jests, humour and satire are all mostly expressed verbally. The non-verbal ones are the different dance styles, acrobatic displays, magical displays, gestures, playing with props and costumes.

After the initial self-introduction, there is panegyric of the important people, which Barber (2005) calls *oríkì* of big mem, present at the place of performance. Different types of dance are performed simultaneously with the content of the poem. Acrobatic and magical displays are usually performed in the middle of the performance and different socio-cultural, religious, economic, political, marital and sexual issues are discussed in humorous and satirical manners. This usually marks the end of the performance and leads to a closing remark/farewell.

4.4.3 The farewell

Farewell in *orin kete* is as important as the homage paid at beginning of the genre. The performers at the end of the performance do pay suspension homage to Aláráagbó or any other deities related to the genre. This is obligatory in the religious performance of *orin kete* but not as important in the social type. The performers in the social type may end the performance with social songs that have farewell content. If the performance is to be concluded with a religious song, the song is sung in the $\frac{\partial g}{\partial x}$ (slow) tempo to honour Alárá-Igbó. Its content also dwells on paying a closing homage to

Alárá-Igbó and the other relevant deities. An example of this is found in the performance held at Olúrìn compound, Ìsàlè-Oba, Igbó-Ora in the evening of an ojó òsè²³ service. The second leading performer, Mr Adégbàyè Adéṣínà, who is also the dancer wearing yèrì kete (kete dance flowing gown) in the Plate 4.3i. below was ushered out of the stage by the first leading performer, Mr Iyìolá Olálérè Ayégbóyìn, who is also the lead singer.

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 $^{^{23}}$ $Qj\phi$ - $\dot{\phi}s\dot{\varphi}$ is the worship day of the worshippers of Obàtálá, it is the first day of Yorùbá week (Adéoyè, 1985 and Ògúndèjì, 2014). Deity like Aláráagbó and others who belong to this group of Obàtálá are also worshipped on $oj\phi$ - $\dot{\phi}s\dot{\varphi}$.



Plate 4.3i. The dancer is being ushered out of the stage.

The picture was taken by the researcher at Olúrin compound, Ìsàlệ Qba, Igbó-Qrà on 8/7/2018.

The song rendered to accompany this action is a farewell song; it is a song used to pay the final homage to Oriṣà Ibejì (Yorùbá god of twins) one of the deities related to *orin kete*:

Lílé: Táyélolú òrìṣà ìbe... Call: Táyélolú, the god of twi...

Ègbè: Èéèéeee Response: Èéèéeee

Òrìṣà ìbejì o The god of twins

Lílé: Táyélolú òrìṣà ìbe... Call: Táyélolú, the god of twi...

Ègbè: Èéèéeee Response: Èéèéeee

Òrìṣà ìbejì o The god of twins

Repeating the homage song at the end of the performance of *orin kete* is a sign of gratitude, respect and loyalty to the deities connected with the genre. In the same vein, ending the performance with homage with which the performance opens makes the plot a cyclic one. Another different form of ordinary *orin kete* is when the performers after paying the last homage return to social comments but such comments usually have farewell contents. An example of this occured in the performance of *orin kete* held after the meeting of *the kete* performers group hosted by Mr Sunday Elébùrú, the secretary of the association:

Lílé: E jé á relé Call: Let go home

Ilé là ń rèèIt is home we shall goBáyé bá ń yẹni lóde kò dénú un iléIf one is honoured outside,

it does not extend to the

home

Ègbè: *E jé á relé* Response: Let go home

Ilé là ń rèè It is home we shall go Báyé bá ń veni lóde kò dénú un ilé If one is honoured outside,

it does not extend to the

home

The first two lines of the excerpt above show that the performers are already attempting to wind up the performance. At this stage of the performance, dancers, drummers, and the chorus have been carried away by the audience's satisfaction they have met in the performance and they also have been entertaining, so they are not ready to stop the performance. To address this, the lead singer sang the above song to caution them to end the performance. The song "Báyé bá ń yeni lóde, kò dénú un ilé" suggests more than its content, the meaning (If one is honoured outside, it does not extend to the home) to each performer is different. The lead performer was probably familiar with many of his performers' private affairs; especially their financial capacity. He knew the day was getting dark and many of his men would have issues to attend to at home; their wives and children must have been waiting for them to make provisions for dinner and many

others, so he quickly reminded them of those they left at their home. Immediately he sang the song and they responded to it, the performance was rounded off as he used a very low voice to control drummers, the chorus and dancers to pause at the same time.

Orin agbè also usually ends the way it starts on many occasions. İsèlù (preparing the sound of drum rhythmic) as discussed above marks the beginning of the agbè performance. At this stage, the performers select drums each of them can play. Not only selection, but they also move close to one another, at times making a circle, to listen and observe the tune each of them is playing in order to fine-tune the melody. Ìsèlù signifies the unity, cohesion and fitness of the performers of the genre. Making a circle also occurs at the farewell stage of orin agbè. At the performance of orin agbè at the final burial of Madam Sinatu Àlàká Kóláwolé, at Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Òkè Ìṣṣrin, Ìgbó-Ọrà held on the 4th of August, 2018, after the group had danced round the venue of the burial performing for children, brothers and sisters of the deceased, they assembled in an open space free from disturbance; they circled round the first son of the deceased and one among the dancers, the best dancer at the performance. They beat the drum for them slowly as they sing and repeated the song:

Lílé: Má e rò o Call: Do not reveal

Má e rò bó e dé... Do not reveal when you

get...

Ègbè: Aìí délé rò o ... Response: One does not reveal on

getting home

Orin agbè was originally a war song, and the Yorùbá believe that "okùnrin kì í ròyìn ogun tán" (a man does not reveal everything he sees at the battlefield). Relating the context of the song to the battlefield where the Yorùbá believe man does not reveal everything he sees there, the song could then be seen as a song of warning to the first son of the deceased, warning him that having been moving around with his mother's people, showing him different things, he needs to know about their family, when getting home, he must not reveal the concealment he was shown at the private sphere in the public sphere.



Plate 4.3ii. The first son of the deceased and another dancer in the circle made by the performers

A picture taken by the researcher at a burial ceremony on 04/08/2018, Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Òkè-Ìṣẹrin, Igbó-Ọrà.

There was a sudden change in the tempo of the song, the drumbeat increased and got fast to correspond with the tempo at which the new song is being projected. The content of the new song portrays a dance competition between the two dancers in the circle:

Lílé: Oníjó gbajó wàyí Call: The real dancer has now come to

dance

Yewere á gbộn ò Yewere will be shaken

Ègbè: *Ééééèèè* Response: *Ééééèèèè*

Yewere á gbòn ò Yewere will be shaken

The two dancers (one of the family members of the dead person and the dead person's first son) in plate 4.3ii., whose competition is opened in the above performance space are called onijo (dancer). They were the ones who being referred to above. Semiotically, yewere in the above sentence is a signifier that does not have a dictionary meaning but having a grammatical meaning. This is because it fills the subject position in the sentence. Because yewere does not have a dictionary meaning as shown above, then it is a nonsensical code. As a nonsensical signifier, yewere's signification is possible if the meaning of the verb to which the word is described is considered. This verb is "gbon" (to shake). Gbon in a dance context is used to describe the shaking of the body parts, costumes and props in use. These two dancers (plate 4.3ii.) in the dance circle only wear costumes (occasional wears) without holding any props. As a result, what yewere signifies in this performance space is the body parts and costumes of the performers which are likely to be shaking as a result of their heavy dance.

As said earlier, these $agb\grave{e}$ performers as their tradition have taken the dead person's son round, putting the deceased first son in a competition like this has a semiotic implication. This is to test the level at which the dead person's son is familiar and have skills in his mother's family tradition ($agb\grave{e}$ performance, i.e $agb\grave{e}$ dance), so as to keep the performance tradition intact even after the demise of his mother.

There is also room for competition at the end of the performance of *orin agbè* of the Ilùà group. When the performers are about to suspend their performance, they make a circle, beat the drum faster than before and sing the farewell song.

Lílé: $A \circ para wa láyò^{24}$ Call: We shall beat one another in this game

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²⁴ This is a game competition between two contestants. The game, $ay\dot{o}$ is made from a wooden board, containing twelve holes. These holes are arranged in two rows, six at one end and six at the order end. In each of these holes are six omo $ay\dot{o}$ (ay\dot) seeds). The seeds are played across the hole technically to

Ègbè: Óléńlé Response: Óléńlé

Lílé: A ó para wa láyò Call: We shall beat one another

in this game

Ègbè: Óléńlé Response: Óléńlé

In the above song, the lead singer stated that the performers would outwit one another in $ay\dot{o}$ game and other performers responded by saying $ol\acute{o}nl\acute{e}$. The $ay\dot{o}$ game mentioned in this performance space is not an actual $ay\dot{o}$ game in a real sense but metaphorically referred to $agb\dot{e}$ performance. Because the meaning of $ay\dot{o}$ as a game is expanded to mean performances in $orin~agb\dot{e}$ here, then $ay\dot{o}$ as signifying performances in the genre is generated through the process of expansion.

Óléńlé like yewere does not also have a dictionary meaning, but it is possible to trace the matrix verb through which this word is generated to lé (to exceed). This is fully reduplicated, introducing Yorùbá continuous tense marker "ń" and was lastly nominalised with "ó" to produce óléńlé. This can be shown below:

$$\acute{O} + l\acute{e} + \acute{n} + l\acute{e} = \acute{o}l\acute{e}\acute{n}l\acute{e}$$

If *lé* from which *óléńlé* is derived is a verb to mean exceed, then the derived noun would then mean something that continues to exceed. Relating this to the point (towards the end of the performance) at which the song is sung, *óléńlé*, though a complement of the call (*A ó para wa láyò*) of the song is signifying the readiness of the other performers of *agbè* for any challenge which may be posed by the lead singers even at that tail end of the performance.

The circle made at the beginning of *orin agbè*, especially during the performance of *ìsèlù* by the Igbó-Orà *agbè* group cannot mean the same as the one made at the end of the performance by Ilùà *agbè* performers. The initial circle made at the beginning of *orin agbè* in the process of preparing the sound of the gourd is a signification of the need for joint and collaborative work while the one at the end signifies the joy of celebrating the success of their collaborative work in having a successful performance.

determine the winner. The winner is called ∂ta while the loser is called $\partial p\dot{e}$. The act of beating one another in an ayò game is called " $pa\ l\acute{a}y\grave{o}$ " (win in ayò game).

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Plate 4.3iii. Ìlùà agbè performers in circular form in an attempt to end the performance

The picture was taken by the researcher at Atakóró's House, Ilùà on 7/9/2018.

4.5 Costume and prop semiotics in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* performance

The use of costumes and props in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* performances is limited to some extent. What we mean by this is that the costumes and props used in both songs are not much when compared to other Yorùbá dramatic performances like *alárìnjó* or *egúngún Aléré* (Yorùbá Masquerade theatre) as shown in Adédèjì (1979) and Ògúndèjì (1991 and 2000). Also, *gèlèdé/èfè* performing art is fond of using different types of sketches to satirise the society's anomalies.

4.5.1 Costume used in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* performance

We can categorise the costumes used in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* into two: informal/casual costumes and official/formal costumes.

4.5.1.1 Informal/casual Costumes

The informal/casual costumes are clothes that an ordinary Yorùbá person can wear even when he/she is not doing any oral performance. These include Yorùbá male dress bùbá (shirt), solohoba) (trousers) of different kinds and fila (cap) of different types. The female wears include irolohoba) (wrapper and traditional Yorùbá female top) and headgear. The Plate 4.4i. and 4.4ii. are the pictures of how the performers of orin agbe) dressed during the performance.



Plate 4.4i. Outlook of Ìlùà agbè performers' dresses

The picture taken by the reseacher at Atakóró's House, Ilùà on 7/9/2018.



Plate 4.4ii. Outlook of Ìgbó-Qra agbè performers' dresses

The picture taken by the researcher at Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Òkè-Ìṣṣrin Igbó-Ọrà on 5/8/2018.

The performers' dresses in the plates 4.4i. and 4.4ii. above are not so unique, they are ordinary clothes that people wear every day. The attending occasion determines the type of costumes *kete* and *agbè* performers wear. Casual dresses are worn for informal performances and are usually not a uniform. There is a costume in *orin kete* which is both worn at formal and informal performances. This is yèrì *kete/ajókete* (*kete* dancer's skirt). It is should be mentioned that wearing *yèrì kete/ajókete* does not determine whether a performance is formal or informal. This is because *yèrì* could either be worn in both formal and informal performances. However, wearing it might be voluntary at informal performances. Wearing *yèrì* in any performance will make the dancer dance to the expectation. The plate 4.4iii. below shows the performers of *orin kete/ajókete* wearing different casual everyday costumes ecxerpt the main dancer, dressing in *yèrì kete/ajókete* costume.



Plate 4.4iii. The picture showing the performers of *orin kete* in casual costumes except the main dancer wearing *yệrì kete/ajókete*

The picture was taken by the researcher at Atakóró's House, Ilùà on 7/9/2018.

4.5.1.2 Official/ formal costumes

These are specially made types of costumes used in the performance of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. They are differentiated from casual dress because of the official/formal or ceremonial importance attached to them. The outlook of these costumes like colour i.e. white colour, the newness, the uniformity (*aṣo ebi/ egbéjodá* (family/ group uniform) and many others differentiates them from the casual costumes. The official/ formal costumes in *orin kete* are worn at religious ceremonies of the deities related to the genre. They are also worn at social performances held at cultural centres, fields, halls and art theatres, naming ceremony, house warming, burial, marriage and some other occasions. Official/ formal costumes in *orin agbè* could be worn at any of the settings mentioned above. If *orin agbè* is performed in religious settings, the performance is not for ritual but for aesthetic and social entertainment. This is not like *orin kete* which is religious based.

One of the official/formal costumes mainly used in *orin kete* is $y\dot{e}r\dot{i}$ $kete/aj\acute{o}kete$. Our investigation also reveals that there was a dancer of *orin agbè* in Ilùà who was usually put on a similar type of $y\dot{e}r\dot{i}$ to perform. He has, however, stopped performing since he now lives in Lagos. The main dancer in the performance of *kete* is called *aj\acute{o}kete* (one who dances to the tune of *kete*). The costume is a long flowing gown. It is made of a flashy flowery cloth of different colours. A flowery flashy lace is also used to make layers on the costume which make the dress resemble $y\dot{e}r\dot{i}$ $\dot{s}\dot{a}ng\acute{o}$ ($\dot{s}\dot{a}ng\acute{o}$ deity's skirt). At the bottom part of the gown is an inner flap that is filled with fabrics which makes the buttocks of the performer big. This he shakes when dancing. There is also a cap called $k\acute{o}r\acute{i}m\acute{a}gb\acute{o}fo$ (that the head will not be naked) which the dancer puts on as part of the costume. This is a tiny elastic cap that looks tight when the performer wears it. The wearer of $y\dot{e}r\dot{i}$ kete also holds $ir\dot{u}k\dot{e}r\dot{e}$ (ram tail/whisk) and $ariwaya/woroworo^{25}$ which he/she at times uses to communicate with the drummers and the chorus. The process of wearing the dress is described as $s\acute{i}s\acute{a}n$ (tying), as in $s\acute{a}n$ $y\dot{e}r\dot{i}$ (tying a $y\dot{e}r\dot{i}$).

²⁵ This is a small locally made rattle, made of tin, filled with seeds or objects capable of making rattle sound. It is used in music to help the sound of other musical instruments.



Plate 4.4iv. The front view of aboyèrí (yèrì wearer)



Plate 4.4v. The back view of aboyèrì (yèrì wearer)

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Ilé Ḥlépùrú (Arúńlè compound), Òkè-Odò, Igbó-Ọrà on 17/6/2018.

Both male and female dancers wear $y\hat{e}r\hat{i}$. Though $y\hat{e}r\hat{i}$ dancer whether man or woman dances to mimic women style of dancing and twerking. The male wearer of $y\hat{e}r\hat{i}$ as shown above was able to twerk because of the inner flap filled with clothes which were used to make a big buttock in the $y\hat{e}r\hat{i}$ costume. The main audience of *orin kete* are women and children. Men are among the audience of the genre but are frequently outnumbered by women. The role of $y\hat{e}r\hat{i}$ wearer was said to have been introduced at the initial stage of origin of the song by Pa Iléyemí Àkànó. This is to display the sexual part of women as part of worship and as a plea to Alárá-Igbó and Obàtálá. In this regards, $y\hat{e}r\hat{i}$ could be seen as a religious sign of humbleness to the deity of Alárá-Igbó. Socially, people whether men or women like to watch and listen to performances where sexual parts of women are discussed or displayed. The semiotic implication of this in *orin kete* is that $y\hat{e}r\hat{i}$ is an iconic representation of women's sexual part in making humour and satire in the performance of *orin kete*.

As reported by Ògúndèjì (1979), there is a performer in *orin agbè* performance of Ìṣṣmi-Ilé's *agbè* group called *Ìyàwó-agbè* (*Agbè*'s wife). This was confirmed during our interview with Chief John Adégòkè, the Bàbá-Qba of Ìmia. The *Ìyàwó-Agbè* is a male performer who dresses as a woman. The character puts something in his chest to make breasts; mimicks women and dances as the other performers sing the song:

Lílé: Ìyàwó-agbè o Call: The wife of agbè

Ègbè: Bó se dára tó kộ lómó Response: As beautiful as she is, she

does not have beast

The reason for wearing women's dress in *orin agbè* could not be the same with *yèrì sísán* (tying/wearing *yèrì*) in *orin kete*. The women dress in *orin agbè* is to satirise women and attract the audience since many people like discussing or listening to women or sexual issues. Thus, dressing in women's costume to mimick them in *orin agbè* is a social sign of attraction of the poetic audience. The religious rite is the primary objective of using women's wear in *orin kete* and the social use is the secondary. On the other hand, social entertainment is the primary and the main objective of wearing women's dresses in *orin agbè* and this is without any religious motivation.

Another type of formal/official dress in *orin kete* is religious service wear. The performers wear the costume during the weekly religious service; $\partial s \hat{e}$ Obàtálá or during sacrifice making to Alárá-Igbó and Ìbejì. The performers, both male and female, dress in white garments. The women plait their hair in local hairstyles, embellished with cowries or $il\hat{e}k\hat{e}$ $s\hat{e}s\hat{e}-efun$ (a tiny white bead). Both men and women also put the beads

on their necks and wrists. During this kind of religious service, the performers make use of white items since Obàtálá and Alárá-Igbó's favourite colour is white. They sing their religious worship songs and *kete* ensembles are played to it.



Plate 4.4vi. Two performers; a man and a woman in white dresses, facing each other



Plate 4.4vii. Female performers in worshipper's dress dancing round a grave in a religious service

The pictures taken by the researcher at Arísányán compound, Ìdòfin, Igbó-Ọrà on 18/8/2018.

It is very significant to note that white items in Yorùbá traditional religious belief are qualisign, signs of quality. The Yorùbá hold the belief that Obàtálá and some other deities like Òrúnmìlà, Òṣun are pure and do not tolerate impurity. That is the reason why colour white happens to be their colour. The Yorùbá symbolise purity with white colour. This is pointed out in proverbs and wise sayings such as:

i.	Aláṣọ funfun kì í rìn nísọ̀ elépo	One who wears white clothes does not
		walk at the stalls of palm oil
ii.	Àlà ni mo wọ, ayé ẹ má tapo sí i	I'm wearing white clothes, people should
		please not stain it with palm oil
iii.	Aláṣọ fúnfun kì í bélépo ré	One who wears white clothes does not
		befriend a palm oil seller

Palm oil in this sense signifies a stain, bad behaviours that are capable of tarnishing a good reputation which the white (clothes) signifies. Wearing the white cloths and other items by the worshippers of Alárá-Igbó and the deities mentioned above then signifies good and godly attributes which are the qualities these deities are identified with.

Performers of *orin kete* and *orin agbe* also wear a uniform dress as a costume for performance. This occurs mostly in elaborate religious and social performances. Performers of both genres in this situation wear uniform costumes. Plate 4.4viii. and 4.4ix show such examples in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*.



Plate 4.4viii. Performers of orin kete in uniform costumes

The picture was taken by the researcher at Methodist Grammar School, Igbó-Qrà during the Olú of Igbó-Qrà coronation on 25/5/2019.



Plate 4.4ix. Performers of *orin agbè* in uniform costumes

The picture was taken by the researcher at Methodist Grammar School, Igbó-Qrà during the Olú of Igbó-Qrà coronation on 25/5/2019.

The performers of *orin kete* (Plate 4.4viii) wore two types of uniforms. The first one is the deep blue cloth designed with white spots. This was worn by the $iy\acute{a}$ $il\grave{u}$ player, who backed the stage in the picture. He intentionally backed the stage because he was communicating with the lead vocalist, the man in colour purple (designed with blue spots) $b\grave{u}b\acute{a}$ and $s\grave{o}k\grave{o}t\grave{o}$ (Yorùbá men's top and trousers), that is the second uniform mostly worn by the members of the *kete* instrumentalists in the picture.

The two women wearing light blue uniform dresses in Plate 4.4ix. are *agbè* performers. They are members of housewives organisation of Ajóṣàkàrá family of Igbó-Orà. It is the tradition of the wives of Ajóṣàkàrá group of *agbè* of Igbó-Orà to perform ṣàkàrá at ceremonies of any member of the Ajóṣàkàrá family, who invite Ajóṣàrá group before their husbands' performance (the main performance). Many of these women are good vocalists of *agbè* song. The main aim of their performance is to use the genre to collect money from people. This act occurs usually during the burial ceremony of any member of the Ajóṣàkàrá family.

Wearing a uniform dress at the performance of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* has more than one signification. It is a sinsign of unity existing among the performers. It is also a sinsign of the quality of their performances, as quality is to be performed at social ceremonies. It is also a sinsin of secularity in the genre.

4.5.2 Props used in orin kete and orin agbè

The props used in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are limited. We can identify only three types of items handled by the performers of *orin kete* and only one item used during the performance of *orin agbè*. The items held by the performers during the performance of *orin kete* are *ariwaya/woroworo* (tin rattle), *ìrùkệrệ* ²⁶ (ram tail) and *ààjà* ²⁷ (worshipper's bell).

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²⁶ This is an item made of ram tail, it is held by Yorùbá kings and priests as a sign of respect. Yorùbá oral poets also use it as a dancing whisk.

²⁷ This is Yorùbá traditional religious worshippers' bell. It is used to attract and draw the spirits closer to worshippers.

4.5.2.1 *Ariwaya* (tin rattle)

This is very important in *orin kete*. It is a hand prop used to make an auxiliary sonorous sound to the tune of the other musical instruments. Every dancer wearing $y \not e r \hat{i}$ must hold the item with the right hand. Ariwaya is an idiophonic instrument used in *orin kete*. Looking at the morphological derivational process of the noun (ariwaya), the root verb is " $r \acute{o}$ " which means "to sound". An adverb "waya" (describing how sonorous a sound is) is reduplicated (to show a continuous state of the sound) and used to describe the sonorous sound in the verb phrase " $r \acute{o}$ wayawaya" (to sound wayawaya). Then morpheme "a-" is used to nominalise the verb phrase to produce " $ar\acute{o}$ wayawaya" (an element that produces wayawaya sonorous sound).

When the performance is on, the performer shakes it to produce sound. He/she also uses it to make himself follow the tune of other musical instruments. It is also used to communicate with other performers by pointing it to the target. If the holder, for example, wants the tune of the musical instruments to move faster, he demonstrates this by shaking *ariwaya* very quickly. The instrumentalist will understand this and do as commanded. The same thing occurs when he wants the slow tempo of the tune, the holder will continue to shake it slowly. Having known the use of this instrument, the instrumentalists will follow his commandment.

Coming back to the inception of *orin kete* which has to do with curing barrenness, the use of *ariwaya* in *orin kete* could then signify more than the communicative functions discussed above. In Yorùbá society, whenever religious sacrifice is focused on fertility prayer or sacrificing *egbé òrun* (heavenly spirits who are considered spirit friends of children), children are mostly the audience of the performances. Because the religious type of *orin kete* serves this function, the sonorous sound *ariwaya* at this semiosphere is capable of drawing children's attention to the place of performance. The Yorùbá belief is that if high numbers of children attend and eat from food offerings used to persuade gods for children, the prayer point will be answered immediately. *Ariwaya* at this semiosphere of religious *kete* performance is not only a sinsign of communication among the performers of *orin kete* but also a signifier of communicating the performance of the genre to the audience (children).



Plate 4.5i. The dancer, holding ariwaya with his right hand



Plate 4.5ii. Point of concentration

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Olúrìn compound, Ìsàlệ-Qba, Igbó-Qrà on 8/7/2018.

4.5.2.2 *Ìrùkèrè* (ram tail / whisk)

Ìrùkèrè is of various types. The most popular type of *ìrùkèrè* is the one used by kings among the Yorùbá people. This type of *ìrùkèrè* is usually white and it is a bit longer. Beads are used to decorate the wooden handle. *Ìrùkèrè* at the kingship sociocultural semiosphere among the Yorùbá people is a social signifier of royalty. It is therefore an indexical signifier (of royalty). Yorùbá kings are not only identified with *ìrùkèrè*, other indexical signifiers of Yorùbá kings' royalty are *adé* (crown) and *òpá àṣe* (staff of office), literally, staff of authority. Another type of *ìrùkèrè* is the one used by Yorùbá oral artists as a hand prop (a dancing whisk). For example, *ìjàlà* performers make use of *ìrùkèrè* as a dancing whisk during the performance. This idea in *ìjálá* performers or *ìjálá* when going hunting, called *aparù*. Yorùbá oral artists use this hand prop to take command during the performance. This type of *ìrùkèrè* is not usually as big as the one used by kings. Religiously, *ìrùkèrè* is also used by some priests i.e. the Olúwo of Ifá (The grand patron of Ifá) as a sign of command since Òrúnmìlà (the Ifá oracle) is referred a king (*Aládé*).



Plate 4.5iii. The dancer, holding \(iri\)uk\(iri\)er\(iri\) with left hand



Plate 4.5iv. Point of concentration

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Olúrìn compound, Ìsàlệ-Ọba, Igbó-Ọrà on 8/7/2018.

A dancer in the Plate 4.5iii. holds an *ìrùkệrệ* with his left hand. He uses it to communicate and to gesticulate commands whenever it is required. *Ìrùkệrệ* in this kind of usage is a sign made or guided by an agreed code between both the dancer and instrumentalists. The dancer uses it to command the instrumentalists. If the dancer, for an instance, quickly rolls *ìrùkệrệ* when the tune of the song is getting fast, this is a signifier of commanding the continuation of the fast tempo. The dancer might as well swing the *ìrùkệrệ* down from this state of rolling fast and stop moving it around. This is to signify the stop of the performance, probably to end the performance of the day. He/she may as well continue to swing it slowly. This is to signify singing and playing of the musical instruments at a slow tempo.

Ìrùkệrệ is also used to perform magical performances. In the performance of *orin agbè* of the Ìlùà group, *ìrùkệrệ* is not only used as a sign of royalty to which the genre is associated (*aláré ọbà*; palace performers) but also used as a signifier of the magical power of stickiness. Its magical power is used to make leaves stick together and be strong enough for lifting one of the performers up.



Plate 4.5v. A performer laced the gathered leaves for lifting him



Plate 4.5vi. Point of concentration



Plate 4.5vii. A performer holding ram tail during Acrobatic display



Plate 4.5viii. Point of concentration

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Ataóró's House, Ilùà on 7/9/2018

The magical power of stickiness is connoted by the saying; irukere á dabere ²⁸. This is applicable in making leaves gathered strong enough to carry the performers. Thus, irukere used in the magical performance above is not ordinary irukere but a magical one used to command the spiritual power of stickiness in orin agbe.

4.5.2.3 Ààjà (worshippers' bell)

 $\grave{A}\grave{a}j\grave{a}$ is the Yorùbá traditional religious worship bell. It is used to attract and draw the spirits closer to worshippers. Worshippers of $Qb\grave{a}t\acute{a}l\acute{a}$ prominently use $\grave{a}\grave{a}j\grave{a}$. The item has four funnels of a cylindrical shape, two facing up and two facing down with a tiny handle in-between. Each cylinder has a metal-like object inside, which makes a sound when the item $(\grave{a}\grave{a}j\grave{a})$ is shaken.

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²⁸ Denotatively, the statement could be translated as "the ram tail will turn to needle". But the denotatively meaning of the statement is, the *ìrùkệrệ* will stick to the king's hand for a long period and he (the king) will last long on the throne.



Plate 4.5ix. A performer holding a dual metal ààjà during a sacrifice



Plate 4.5x. Point of concentration

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Arísányán compound, Ìdòfin Igbó-Orà on 18/8/2018. $\grave{A}\grave{a}j\grave{a}$ as used in the performance semiosphere is believed by the performers as a religious means of communication between the dead and the living. The performer makes use of the item to attract and bring close the spirit of the dead person to whom they are making the sacrifice. In the mono-performance as depicted in the picture below, the performer as believed by the worshippers, not only makes use of the item to communicate with the dead but also the living (i.e. drummer) who uses the drum tune to say the performer's father's lineage panegyric.



Plate 4.5xi. A performer, communicating the drummer with ààjà



Plate 4.5xii. Point of concentration

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Arísányán compound, Ìdòfin, Igbó-Qrà on 18/8/2018. In the semiosphere of the mono-performance above, $\grave{a}\grave{a}j\grave{a}$ is also used to control the tempo and the drum tune usually by the female performers of *orin kete*.

4.6 A comparative performance semiotics of musical instruments in *orin kete* and orin agbè

It is expedient to note that *kete* and *agbè* performances share some similarities and differences in some regards, most especially when they are used as musical instruments. Justice cannot be done in explaining the similarities and the dissimilarities between *kete* and *agbè* without answering the following questions. What makes the structure and ensemble of *agbè* and *kete* different? What other names are *kete* and *agbè* called? What are the Yorùbá beliefs about both utensils? How are the musical instruments they were named after fabricated? What are the semiotic importance of *kete* and *agbè*? Attempts were made to expatiate on these and other related issues in this section.

4.6.1 The structure, making and importance of ensembles of orin kete

Orin kete ensembles can be broadly divided into two. This categorisation is based on the type of drums under each category. The first category is kete drums and the second is bệnbé drums. Both are called kete ensembles because the genre is named after kete. Kete's involvement in the origin of the genre as expounded in chapter two cannot be undermined. It should be noted that it is the involvement of *kete* at the origin of the genre that gives it priority over *bènbé* as far as the nomenclature (*kete* ensembles) is concerned. However, bènbé may stand on its own as an ensemble. A question may therefore arise on how and when bệnbé ensemble is included in kete. Attempts to answer this question by our informant on orin kete prove abortive, as no viable and accurate accounts were given. As a student of oral performance, my observation about the relationship between bệnbệ and kete ensembles, most especially as the musical instruments played during the performance of *orin kete* is that, *bènbé* ensemble is the generic musical instruments played during the religious performance of Alárá-Igbó deity. This can even be deduced from the accounts of the origin of kete narrated by Pa Olálérè Ayégbóyin (our key informant on *orin kete*) that *bènbé* ensemble in the religious performance of the deity is probably longer-dated than kete. This is because, Pa Olálérè Ayégbóyìn confirmed that it was his great grandfather, Iléyemí Akànó, that first played kete in the religious performance of Alárá-Igbó. However, it is obvious that Pa Olálérè Ayégbóyìn's great grandfather was not the founder of the Alárá-Igbó religion. He was given a message to make a drum from *kete* and use it to praise and worship Alárá-Igbó. He was told that when doing this, his prayer would be answered. His prayer was answered as narrated by Pa Olálérè Ayégbóyìn. After Iléyemí Àkànó's prayer was answered, he performed *orin kete* performance publicly to celebrate the naming of the child. As a result, people started to approach him and plead with him to help them out of their barrenness with the use of *kete* performance. This is how Iléyemí Àkànó commercialised the *orin kete* performance. *Kete* is the ensemble that turned out to be included in *bènbé* and not *bènbé* ensemble that was included in *kete* as Alárá-Igbó religious semiosphere is concerned. With the influence of Iléyemí Àkànó, a master player of *kete*, *kete* turned to be more pronounced than *bènbé* because the circumstances narrated in the historical account favour it.

It has been mentioned that Alárá-Igbó and Obàtálá religious services are related. Bệnbé drum is played at the religious service of Obàtálá; Pa Olálérè Ayégbóyìn affirmed this. Obàtálá, being the Yorùbá arch-divinity whose worship is widespread across Yorùbá land (Adéoyè, 1979), the musical instrument played during his worship is most likely to be older than other religious musical instruments. As informed by Alárá-Igbó worshippers at Abéòkúta, it is the bệnbé ensemble that is strictly played during Alárá-Igbó's song of worship. Thus, the presence of bénbé in the kete ensemble is an iconic signification of Obàtálá, who is considered the maker of infants' heads. It is he the worshippers make appeal to. They do so by taking Alárá-Igbó as an intermediary. Thus, bènbé is an iconic signification of Obàtálá in orin kete performance.

Mrs Móyeni Olálérè (Ìyá Àbíyè, the leader of one Alárá-Igbó religious group at Igbó-Orà) also stated the relationship between Alárá-Igbó and Obàtálá. She said that, as a result of this relationship, Alárá-Igbó's shrine is placed beside Obàtálá's shrine. This is shown in plates 4.6i and 4.6ii. below:



Plate 4.6i. The front view of Alárá-Igbó and Ọbàtálá shrines at Olúrìn compound, Ìsàlệ Ọba, Igbó-Ọrà



Plate 4.6ii. The side view of Alárá-Igbó and Ọbàtálá shrines at Olúrìn compound, Ìsàlệ Ọba, Igbó-Ọrà

Pictures taken by the researcher at Olúrìn compound, Ìsàlè-Ọba, Igbó-Ọrà on 8/7/2018.

The first shrine, where different $ik\hat{o}k\hat{o}$ $a\hat{s}\hat{e}$ are located is Alárá-Igbó's shrine. The second in which a white sheet of clothes is hung is Obàtálá's shrine. The shrines are located adjacent each other. This is to signify the relatedness and the relationship between the two deities. With this, the presence of $b\hat{e}h\hat{b}$ in the kete ensemble should no more stand elusive.

4.6.1.1 *Bệnbệ* drums

Bènbé is a cylindrical membranophonic drum. Each face of the cylinder is covered with a membrane. The word bènbé is an ideophonic lexicon that describes the tune produced by the drum. The tune produced by the drum usually sounds "bènbè bènbè bệnbệ...." (a broad tune sounds as written). Bệnbệ could also be traced to the verb "bé" to mean "beat" as features in the Yorùbá riddle, "òrúkútindítindí, òrúkútindìtindì, a bé e lórí a bé e nídìí, ó lóun ó sunkún délé oba?" This is translated as "òrúkútindítindí, òrúkútindìtindì, we beat both its head and bottom surface, it insisted that it must cry to reach the palace?" The òrúkútindítindí and òrúkútindítindì is an ideophonic and a nonsensical code used in the riddle to signify the puzzle that should be solved when considering the sentence, "a bé e lórí a bé e nídìí, ó lóun ó sunkún délé oba" (we beat both its head and its bottom surface, it insists that it must cry to reach the palace). The answer to this riddle is a two-side drum like bệnbệ and bàtá. The clauses "bệ e lóri... bệ e nidìi" (beat both its head and its bottom surface) is an indication of how two-surface drums are played with both hands. "Bé" in the deep structure of bènbé is reduplicated with the introduction of the interfix "n". The morpheme "n" could be said to perform the function of continuous action of the tune of bènbé, which "bé" is used to replicate. It could also be said that bènbé is a contraction of the sentence "bé kí n bé" (beat so that I beat). When the word "kî" is deleted, the sentence becomes "bé n bé" (a dialectical variant of "bé kí n bé"). When contraction and tonal manipulation occur, the sentence becomes bệnbệ (beat so that I beat). It is shown in the name of bệnbệ that it requires a group of players to play/beat bệnbệ. Thus, this is what the name bệnbệ from "bệ n bệ" (beat so that I beat) is indicative of.

The diameter and height of the drum determine the sub-type of the drum. The membrane used for making $b\dot{e}nb\dot{e}$ is usually derived from the foetus of kid of a goat. $B\dot{e}nb\dot{e}$ could either be big, i.e. $iy\dot{a}$ $il\dot{u}$ $b\dot{e}nb\dot{e}$ (a mother/master $b\dot{e}nb\dot{e}$ drum) or small, i.e. omele $i\dot{s}a\dot{a}j\dot{u}$ (a small and fore $b\dot{e}nb\dot{e}$ drum). The more the size of the drum, the deeper and louder its potential. The smaller $b\dot{e}nb\dot{e}$ produces a sharp sound. After the membrane

is used to cover the faces of the cylindrical frame, $osan^{29}$ is used to tie the skin to the frame. $Saworo^{30}$ are strung round the edges of the drum's two surfaces. The belt called $ap\grave{a}$ made of both membrane and locally designed clothing material is used to tie opposite edges of the frame so that the drummer would not find it difficult to hang the drum on his shoulder across his chest. A curved stick called $kokogún/kongo/opa-ilia^{31}$ held with one hand is employed as a drum stick to beat one surface of the drum while the second hand is used to control the tension on the second surface to produce the required tune.

The semiotic implication of *ṣaworo* in *bệnbé* requires explanation. There is a popular drum poem which Yorùbá musicians such as Síkírù Àyìndé Barrister, Bísádé Ológundé (Lágbájá) among others have referred to prove the quality of their instrumentations. This is as stated below.

Şaworo nilù wa Şaworo nilù wa Ìlù tí ò ní ṣaworo Kì í ṣèlù gidi Saworo nilù wa Our drum is *ṣaworo*Our drum is *ṣaworo*Any drum that has no *ṣaworo*Is not a genuine drum
Our drum is *ṣaworo*

The above is a statement made by the musicians mentioned above to show the quality of their instrumentations. They called their drum the *ṣaworo*. Using *ṣaworo*, an instrument attached to the drum to represent the whole drum as it is done above is a metonym. This is to say *ṣaworo* synecdochically stands for a whole drum. It should also be noted that the musicians may directly say, "*ìlù wa ní ṣaworo*; *ìlù tí ò ní ṣaworo*; *kì í ṣèlù gidi*" (Our drum is *ṣaworo*; any drum that has no *ṣaworo* is not a genuine drum) but they decided to say it otherwise. What actually accounts for this is that the musicians want to pay attention to *ṣaworo* not on *ìlù* (drum), as a result, the word (*ṣaworo*) is brought to the initial position and the focus attention marker "*ni*" is used to emphasise it.

Ṣaworo as a brass bell adds a jingle sonority to the tune produced by the drum. Consequently, any drum that does not have it is considered fake. In this context, *ṣaworo* becomes a qualisign (a signifier/determinant of the quality of a drum). Many of the Yorùbá drums that are considered important and of good quality have *ṣaworo*. They

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²⁹ This is a rope made of skin, used to tie the membrane to the drum frame.

³⁰ This is a small brass bell, tie to the edge of drums, capable of making rattle sounds that had to the tune of drum

³¹ This is a curved locally made stick, with a handle wrapped with fabric designed purposely to beat drums.

include dùndún, bàtá and kete. In this wise, ṣaworo proves bệnbé as an object that has the full quality of being called a drum. "Ìlù tí ò ní ṣaworo kì í ṣèlù gidi" stated above is a cliché (a hypogram that is ready-made, also an agreeable statement of a long time ago). Ṣàworo then becomes a standard instrument for testing the quality of a drum. It should be noted that ṣaworo is only fixed to the edge of the mother/chief drums (ìyá ìlù) of the different Yorùbá sets of drums. The reason is that it is only the mother drums that are used to talk or communicate during the performance. All other members of the set play supportive roles. Ṣaworo is then fixed on mother/chief drums to make a tinny jingling sounds which capable of supporting the tune of ìyá ìlù.

Bệnbé drums are of different types, specified for different occasions. Some are for the religious purposes and are called bệnbé Òriṣà (i.e the Ọbàtálá's bệnbé drum), bệnbé àsàlátù (bệnbé used for calling Muslims to prayer especially early in the morning and for sahur³² during the month of Ramadan) and some are for secular purposes like the bệnbé played at the wedding ceremonies. The function of bệnbé at the Yorùbá religious occasion can also be seen as a signification of the presence of Àyàn (the god of drum). According to Mr Àyántáyọ Àlàó (a drummer of the ìyá ìlù bệnbé), bệnbé is an icon of Àyàn because the deity is also worshipped through bệnbé. The food items offered to bệnbé as a sacrifice are not actually for the drum but for Àyàn, the god of the Yorùbá drum. In the religious aspect of orin kete, bệnbé's tune is a signification of Àyàn's voice in soliciting Ọbàtálá through Alárá-Igbó for childbearing.

The most popular context in which $b\dot{e}nb\acute{e}$ is used for the social purpose is the wedding ceremony. During our study, we got to know that in the olden days, it was $b\dot{e}nb\acute{e}$ that was usually played to see brides off to their husbands' houses. This is exemplified in the children's game poem below.

À ń gbéyàwó lọ ilé ọkọ We are taking the bride to her husband's

house

Bện bệ nh kù bí òjò

Eni méje ni ó ru páálí

Evi méje ni ó ru páálí

Seven people shall carry cartons

Sin people shell carry haves

Eni méfà ní ó rù bènbé Six people shall carry boxes

Pàkútúpàkútú, ilé oko rẹ rè é o Pàkútúpàkútú ³³, this is your husband's house

The playing of *bệnbệ* at a wedding ceremony may be seen as an iconic signification of Obàtálá and Alárá-igbó deities that are children and women related. Religiously, it is a

³² This is a meal taken by Muslims before dawn in preparation for fasting during the Ramadan fast.

³³ This is an idiophone to depict the sound of horse movement or ridding on a horse

voice of persuasion to the mentioned deities, imploring them that the bride should be blessed with children. The Yorùbá culturally believe that "omo lèrè ìgbeyàwó" (children are the blessing of marriage). The Yorùbá also pray for the bride that "èyìn ìyàwó kò níí mẹní"³⁴. Socially, bènbé produces a soft vibrating tune that both the female and the male audience cannot resist dancing to.

According to Mr Àyántáyo Àlàó, the *bènbé* ensemble is made up of four major different drums. These are *ìṣáájú* (the fore drum and the maker of the lead rhythm), *èdà* (the sustainer of the main rhythm), agbèyáàlù (motherly drum's supporter) and ìyá ìlù (the mother drum). There is also a drum that supports isaajii (the fore drum), this is adáhùn ìṣáájú (the supporter of ìṣáájú) which is optional. The drums are played according to how they are listed. *Ìṣáájú* makes the rhythm while *adáhùn* supports it. *Èdà* sustains the rhythm, *ìyá ìlù* talks as it communicates to both the other players and the audience. Agbèyáàlù complements the ìyá ìlù in its poetic utterances. It also reminds ìyá *ilù* drummers that certain things need to be mentioned. In the performance of *orin kete*, only two out of the bènbé ensemble are required. These are isáájú and iyá ilù. The reason why two are used is that bènbé is louder than kete and if they are too many in kete performance, they can overshadow kete's tune. As a result, the most important two are used. On other occasions like during the sacrificial rites of Obàtálá, wedding ceremonies and coronation where bệnbé takes a leading role, the full ensemble of bệnbé is used. Below are the two bènbé drums used at kete performance. Beneath the drums is the drum stick used to play bệnbé.

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³⁴ The statement is translated as "The back of the bride will not stay long on the mat." This metaphorically means "It will not be too long before the bride gets pregnant." So, the Yorùbá people believe that when it gets too long before a new wife gets pregnant, her back has suffered a lot on the mat. This is, however, signifying the issues which the woman has gone through before getting pregnant. As a result, they pray that, "the back of the bride will not stay long on the mat" before getting pregnant.





Plate 4.6iii. Omele bệnbệ (ìṣáájú)

Plate 4.6iv. Ìyá ìlù bệnbệ



Plate 4.6v. Kọkọgún/òpá ìlù

The pictures taken by the researcher at Elébùrú's house, Arúńlè compound, Òkè-Odò, Igbó-Ọrà on 17/6/2018.

4.6.1.2 *Kete* drums

Kete drums like bènbé are included in orin kete ensemble. The drum is made of a calabash pot called *kete* and membrane. The process of making *kete* drum, according to Mr Àyántáyo Àlàó, is that after an empty *kete* has been provided, a cylindrical wooden frame that is not too long shall also be provided. A membrane of a kid of goat or cow foetus will be soaked in order to remove the hair on it. After this, the membrane will be used to cover one face of the wooden drum cylinder. From the remaining membrane, the rope called $osan^{35}$ will be made. Another rope from a tree called $agbaka^{36}$ will also be provided. While àgbàká is used to tie the membrane to the drum frame, osán is used to support it. The osán will be tied in such a way that it can be made tight or loose, depending on the tune the drummer wishes to play. The uncovered face of the drum cylinder will be inserted into the pot (kete) so that about five inches of the cylinder remains out. The inserted part hangs up halfway inside the pot. A gum made from the sap of *iro* ³⁷ tree will be used to gum the neck of the pot tightly together with the frame. This is done in order to close any gap that may occur at the neck of the pot. A thick and circular àgbàká rope will be put at the base of the pot so that the drum will conveniently rest on it, making it stable and preventing it from breaking when being beaten. The àgbàká base and the one at the edge of the membrane will be tied together with osán so that the drum will be tightened very well to produce the required tune. An $apa ilu^{38}$ will be tied round the neck of the drum as the belt through which the drum can be hung on the shoulder. *Iro* gum will also be put to make a spot in the middle of the membrane. Both hands are used to play kete drums; no drum stick is required. The drum can be played in both slow (ègò) and fast (iwéréndé/iwérénde) tempos. This is determined by the song. The players can either sit down or stand up.

Kete, after which the genre is named, is the primary drum of *orin kete*. This is revealed in the historical accounts of the genre narrated by Pa Olálérè Ayégbóyìn discussed in two. The *kete* ensemble is made up of three main drums. These are *omele abo* (female/soft-sounding fore drum), *omele èjì* (supporter of the soft-sounding drum

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³⁵ This is a rope made out of goat skin used to tie skin to the drum frame. It can be adjusted to make the drum sound either soft or hard.

³⁶ This is a rope used together with *oṣán* to tie up the skin to the cylindrical frame in the making of *kete* drum.

³⁷ This is a gum made from a tree called *iro*.

³⁸ This is an item of traditional clothing in which *ṣaworo* are fixed, tied round the neck of the drum.

and the *ìyá ìlù* (mother/chief drum) and *ìyá ìlù* (the mother/chief *kete* drum). These three drums are shown on the Plates 4.6vi, 4.6vii. and 4.6viii. below.



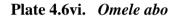




Plate 4.6vii. Omele èjì



Plate 4.6viii. *Iyá ìlù*



Plate 4.6ix. Full kete ensembles

The pictures taken by the researcher at Elébùrú's house, Arúńlè compound, Òkè-Odò, Igbó-Ọrà on 17/6/2018.

Kete ensemble does not have a separate rhythm leading drum (*omele ako*; a male fore drum). İṣáájú bệnbé (the bệnbé lead rhythm drum), therefore, substitutes this in the *kete* performance. The *omele abo* follows it. Lastly, both *kete* and bệnbé mother drums join them. The number of *kete*'s ensembles in *orin kete* is five; two of the bệnbé drums and the three main *kete* drums. Putting the drums altogether, the plate 4.6ix. above shows the full ensemble of *orin kete*. The category of drums in *the kete* ensemble can be summarily represented as shown in Fig. 4.2 below.

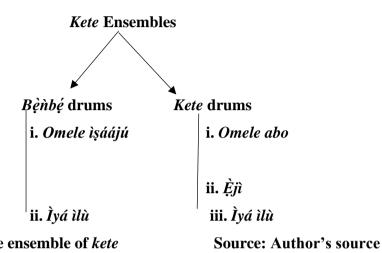


Fig. 4.2 Categories of the ensemble of kete

A question came up during one of our interview sessions with our informants on whether only *kete* drums could be played during *orin kete* performance without $b\dot{e}n\dot{b}$. The answer we were given was no. We were made to know that both *kete* and $b\dot{e}n\dot{b}$ as used in *orin kete* performance are inseparable to some extent because of their religious affinity. This further shows the relationship that exists among the deities related to childbearing, which the drums signify.

4.6.2 Semiotics of the structure, the making and the importance of the *ensembles* of drums in *orin* àgbè

Agbè is the main musical instrument played in orin agbè. This is a gourd in which a little portion of its head is opened and can be used as a container. Agbè that are played in orin agbè are made to produce different required sounds. Ògúndèjì (1979) states that agbè used as orin agbè musical instruments are enmeshed in omo ido³⁹ and this makes them different from sèkèrè 40. Ògúndèjì (1979) and Àlàbá (1985) agreed on the fact that agbè can also be enmeshed with beads. Àlàbá adds that the seeds of páro (a savannah fruit-tree) can also be used to enmesh agbè. He further states that pebbles dropped into the gourd are also used in the making of agbè. According to Chief John Adégòkè, seeds of the baobab tree are what they use to enmesh agbè in Ìmia these days. Mr Rasaki Ògúndèjì, an agbè vocalist in Ilùà, indicated that beads are used to enmesh agbè. Pa Tìámíyù Òjó of Ajósakará compound, Igbó-Ora said that some quantities of idò/idòrò are put inside different gourds to make different agbè musical instruments. As stated in the foregoing, agbè is adorned with different seeds. This may be due to the availability of the seed preferred by an agbè group over other seeds in their environment. It may also be a result of the ability of a seed to make louder and clearer sounds than others. Putting seeds inside the gourd by the agbè group of Igbo-Orà instead of enmeshing it is a longdated tradition of the people of Ajósakará compound (also known as Gbonkáa's house). The Igbó-Orà troupes consider their style of making agbè to be the best.

³⁹ This according to A Dictionary of the Yorùbá Language is the seed of the canna plant, pg. 106.

⁴⁰ A musical instrument in which a gourd is enmeshed with cowries.



Plate 4.7i. An unenmeshed gourd The picture was taken by the researcher at Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Òkè-Ìṣṭrin, Igbó-Ọrà on 22/07/2018.



Plate 4.7ii. Enmeshed gourd

The picture was taken by the researcher at Atakóró's House, Ilùà, on 7/9/2018.

Our observation about the two types of *agbè* is that both sound very well but it is quite difficult to play a required tune with the gourd that is not enmeshed. The unenmeshed gourd produces more rattling sound than the enmeshed one while the enmeshed gourd produces a louder sound. The reason why the unenmeshed *agbè* produces a more rattling sound is that it requires much pressure, strength and speed while beating or shaking. It no doubt requires more skill to play an unenmeshed gourd than to play the enmeshed one. Another difference observed between these types of gourd is that a good part of the neck of the enmeshed gourd is sliced off while the other one is not. The top of the unenmeshed gourd is just perforated to insert seeds and then closed up tightly so that the seeds in it will not fall off during the performance. As noted by Ògúndèjì (1985), *agbè* can either be beaten or shaken but the rattling sound is prominent when it is shaken. The wide-open top of the enmeshed gourd is apparently what allows for its loud sound.

Ògúndèjì (1985) opines that *orin agbè* is a secular poem. Hence, no sacrifice is offered to any deity. Àlàbá's (1979) explanation of orin agbè is contrary to this when he mentions that some food items are offered annually to agbè. This was also supported by Chief Ojóawo Mótósòó, the Baba-Ìsègùn (The patron of herbalists) of Ilùà that pigeon and kolanuts are offered as a sacrifice to agbè. Pa Tìámíyù Òjó of Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Igbó-Orà revealed that agbè is not Àyàn, so no sacrifice is offered to it. Chief John Adégòkè also mentioned that agbè is a secular musical instrument. When we asked how a broken agbè is treated from Pa Tìámíyù Òjó, he said in the olden days when a gourd broke during the performance, a cock was offered as a sacrifice. This seems Pa Tìámíyù Òjó's claims about the secularity of agbè are not rigid. In another sense, we can say Pa Tìámíyù Òjó's claim about the secularity of agbè is right because the act is no more in practice and this does not in any way affect their agbè performance. Similarly, none of our informants, including Chief Ojóawo Mótósoó, who claimed that a sacrifice is offered to agbè, is of the opinion that agbè is associated with Ayan like the bènbé. As a result, offering sacrifice to agbè is not enough evidence to make it a religious-related musical instrument. Lastly, from its inception point as a musical instrument of orin agbè, agbè is a secular musical instrument.

Ògúndèjì (1979) identifies three different sets of agbè. These are omele, èdà and iyá ilù. Omele, according to Ògúndèjì (1979), consists of konko, kunku and èso. Àlàbá (1985) discusses agbè ensemble under four categories. These are omele/konkolo, èdà, adámòràn and iyá ilù. We can better present Ògúndèjì and Àlàbá's categorisations of agbè ensemble in tabular form for easy comparison (see also Table 2.1, pg. 43)

Table 4.2 Types of gourd

Scholars	1st Gourd	2nd Gourd	3rd Gourd	4th Gourd	5th Added
					Musical
					Instrument
Ògúndèjì	Omele	Èdà		Ìyá agbè	
(1979)	i. Konko				
	ii. Kunku				
	iii. <i>Èṣọ</i>				
Àlàbá	Omele/konkolo	Èdà	Adámộràn	Ìyá agbè	Agogo and
(1985)					àgídìgbo

The two musical instruments mentioned that have been added *to the agbè* ensemble are the metal gong (at Igbó-Ọrà and Ìgán Aládé) and àgídìgbo⁴¹ (at Ìlọrin, Ìdèrè and Akọyà). Comparing the two categorisations, Àlàbá's (1985) does not have *kunku* and *èsọ* as recognised by Ògúndèjì (1985) but has *adámòràn* instead. It is important to note that the two scholars depend on information from their field works for the categorisation of the *agbè* ensemble. This means that their categorisations are predicated on what is obtainable among the artistes they worked on. The implication of this is that the *agbè* ensemble varies from place to place and also over time.

Our current study reveals that the agbè ensemble in Igbó-Orà consists of six different non-enmeshed gourds and a metal gong. These are agogo (metal gong), abágogorìn/konko (follower of agogo/maker of the main rhythm), èjì (gourd played by knocking), èdà (sustainer of the main rhythm which may actually be up to six or more in number), ègbòn (gourd played by shaking, played to make rattling sound), èso also called pènpè (gourd played for constant continuous agbè jíjá dance as the rhythm progress) and lastly *ìyá agbè* (mother/chief gourd, used to communicate and for periodic agbè jíjá dance). At Ilùà, agogo is the first instrument of agbè, the second is pú (also, omele according to Alàbá (1985)), pệnpệkun (èso also called pệnpệ as in Igbó-Orà), aṣáájú-ệdà (a gourd played before ệdà), ệdà (sustainers of main agbè rhythm) and ìyá agbè (mother and talking gourd). Ìmia and Ìsémilé agbè ensembles have changed a little from the one identified by Ògúndèjì. The first gourd as shown in our study is konkolo (the foremost gourd and the maker of the rhythm), the second is èso, which is divided into two. $\dot{E}so-ako$ (the male $\dot{e}so$) produces a harsh tune and $\dot{e}so-abo$ (the female $\dot{e}so$) which produces a soft tune. The third is $\dot{e}d\dot{a}$ and the last is $\dot{i}\dot{y}\dot{a}$ ($\dot{i}l\dot{u}$) $agb\dot{e}$. The difference in this compared with Ògúndèjì (1979) is that èso is categorised as an omele in Ògúndèjì's work. Besides, kunku is no more reckoned with in contemporary times, instead it is considered female èso.

The reason for the diversification of $agb\grave{e}$ ensemble from one town to another and the differences that occur in $agb\grave{e}$ ensemble as shown in the data collected in this study compared to Ògúndėjì's (1979) and Àlàbá's (1979) categorisation need to be explained. Ògúndèjì (1979) collected his data only from Ìmia at Ìsémilé, Kájolà Local Government of Òyó State. So, he based his analysis on available data. Àlàbá (1985) collected his data on *orin agbè* from Akoyà, Igbó-Orà, Ìlota, Ìlorin, Ilùà, Ìdèrè and Ìgán

⁴¹ This is a Yorùbá box-guitar (Àlàbá, 1958).

Aládé. These towns fall under three current Nigerian states: Òyó, Ògùn and Kwara. The data for this study were collected mainly from three towns namely, Igbó-Ọrà, Ilùà and Ìmia. We agree with Àlàbà (1985) that many names given to agbè such as those mentioned above from different towns are just synonyms. The gourds Àlàbá (1979) identifies as falling into this category are "konkolo, omele, kònkòlò, pú, kúlú, konko-n-koko" (216). Not only these, abágogorìn and kunku could also make the list. Considering the functions performed by each of the mentioned gourds above, we can adopt Àlàbá's general classification of agbè ensemble.

Agogo which Àlàbá says was introduced into the ensemble should be considered first because it produces the required sound which another agbè follows. The second is omele agbè (maker of the rhythm). The third is èdà (sustainer of agbè rhythm). If we consider the function, many gourds fall under this gourd type. Èdà usually outnumbers other gourds in *orin agbè*. Ògúndèjì (1979) posits that they can be up to six in number; Chief John Adégòkè's (Baba Oba Ìmia) explanation does not contradict this. He explained that they can have as much as possible èdà in agbè performance. Mr Ràsákì Ògúndèjì of Ilùà also says that they do have up to three èdà in their performance. The gourd called aṣáájú-èdà performs almost the same function as èdà. As a result, it is also an $\dot{e}d\dot{a}$ (but whose tune is a bit harsher than $\dot{e}d\dot{a}$, it supports $\dot{e}d\dot{a}$). The same thing is applicable in Igbó-Orà where the gourds named èjì and ègbón are also to maintain and sustain the rhythm of the gourd. So, they are subsets of èdà. Because of the supportive function that eso/penpe (Igbó-Ora), penpekun (Ilùa) and adámoran (Alabá, 1985) perform to the mother gourd, they are also subsets of èso. The name èso is adopted because it is common among different agbè groups over adámòràn suggested by Àlàbá (1985). This gourd makes the fourth of the agbè ensemble. Èso can also be more than one in agbè performance; it might be two but care is usually taken by the instrumentalists to avoid distortion and misleading of the dancer's dancing steps. Lastly in the agbè ensemble is *ìyá agbè* (mother gourd). This is general to all *agbè* groups considered. Both Ògúndèjì and Àlàbá's classifications recognise this gourd. *Ìyá agbè* is usually just only one in agbè performance.

The differences that occur in *agbè* ensembles across Yorùbáland, especially in Ìbàràpá and Òkè Ògùn is as a result of environmental influences. The genre may, for instance, get in contact with another Yorùbá genre in its locality which may account for the dissimilarities observed. The creative capacity of a given *agbè* group is another

important factor that cannot be overlooked. The classification of *the agbè* ensemble derived above is represented in Figure 4.3 below.

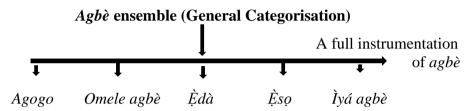


Fig. 4.3 General catgorisation of agbè ensemble

The sound produced by a specific $agb\grave{e}$ at times does not have to do with size but with the thickness of that particular gourd. The $agb\grave{e}$ listed in the diagram are played as listed. The Plate 4.7iii. to Plate 4.7x. of different $agb\grave{e}$ are listed below.



Plate 4.7iii. Agogo and the stick used to Plate 4.7iv. Abágogorìn (unenmeshed play it gourd)
The pictures were taken by the researcher at Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Òkè-Ìṣṣrin, Igbó-Ọrà on 22/07/2018.



Plate 4.7v. *Pú* (enmeshed *omele*) Plate 4.7vi. Èdà (three in number)

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Atakóró's House, Ilùà, on 7/9/2018.





Plate 4.7vii. Enmeshed pệnpệkun (ệsọ)

Plate 4.7viii. Unenmeshed èso





Plate 4.7ix. Unenmeshed *ìyá agbè*

Plate 4.7x. Enmeshed *ìyá agbè*

The pictures of the unenmeshed gourds were taken by the researcher at Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Òkè-Ìṣṣrin, Igbó-Ọrà on 22/07/2018 while the pictures of the enmeshed gourds were also taken by him at Atakóró's House, Ilùà, on 7/9/2018.

Divergence that exists in *agbè* ensemble is caused by asymmetric factors that exist at different semiospheres in which *agbè* genre is being practised.

4.7 Comparative semiotics of the ensembles of orin kete and orin agbè

The ensembles of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* have some similarities and dissimilarities. It is expedient to recall that both of them are named after the materials used in fabricating them. Like many Yorùbá songs, the poetic genres under study are named after the major musical instruments *orin kete* and *orin agbè* (*kete* and *agbè* songs). The calabash plant produces the material used in making both musical instruments; however, *kete* is a byproduct of *agbè*.

One of the points of convergence between them is that some types of musical instruments are called the same nomenclature and perform the same function in both genres. The most obvious musical instruments in this category are *omele* and *ìyá ìlù*. The ensembles of *agbè* and *kete* have *omele* (maker of the rhythm) and *ìyá ìlù* (mother/master/chief drum). There are *omele agbè*. They are called different names like *konko*, *kunku*, *konkolo* among others. *Omele* in *kete* ensemble includes, *omele ìṣáájú* and *omele abo*. The same thing applies to *ìyá ìlù*, it is called *ìyá ilù* (mother/master/chief drum) in *kete* while it is called *ìyá agbè* (mother/master/chief gourd) in *agbè* ensemble. The functions of the master drum of *kete* and the master gourd are not different in both genres. They both perform communicative functions. There is also a drum called *èjì* in *kete* ensemble. So also is an instrument called *èjìn* or *jìnjìn* in the Igbó-Orà *agbè* ensemble. These are in any regard not different but the same word. *Èjì/èjìn* in both *orin kete* and *orin agbè* is not performing a leading role. It is played to produce a supportive tune to either *ìyá ìlù/agbè* or *omele*.

Another similarity in the ensembles of *agbè* and *kete* is that, apart from *agogo* (in *orin agbè*) *omele* and *ìyá ìlù/agbè* (in both genres) which must be only one each in both poetic genres, other types of musical instruments can be more than one. They can be two or more. It depends on the technical know-how of the players. To have a good rhythm of the genres, there must be harmony in the tunes played by each player. As a result, it is advisable to have a view number of players of each instrument. As a matter of fact, two different master drums exist in *kete* ensemble. These are *ìyá ìlù kete* (*kete* master drum) and *ìyá ìlù bènbé* (*bènbè* master drum). In *kete* ensemble, *ìyá ìlù kete* (*kete* master drum) and *ìyá ìlù bènbé* (*bènbè* master drum) are just one each to avoid confusion.

One of the obvious dissimilarities between the two poetic genres is that kete ensembles are made up of membranophonic and idiophonic (when considering ààjà as among kete musical instruments) instruments while agbè basically consists of idiophonic musical instruments. In the areas where àgídìgbo (Yorùbá box guitar) is introduced into the agbè ensemble, the agbè ensemble is made up of both idiophone and lamelophone. Another dissimilarity between the two ensembles is that the *kete* ensemble is a combination of two independent ensembles. These are sets of *kete* and *bènbé* drums. However, it is only the *ìyá ìlù* (mother/chief drum) and *omele bệnbệ* (the maker of the rhythm) that are required. We must emphasise again that the inclusion of bènbé in the kete ensemble is religiously motivated. Bènbé in the performance of orin kete iconises Obàtálá who is believed to be the creator of children whom many worshippers of Alárá-Igbó appeal to. Together with kete, they are also icons of Àyàn who is believed to be the god of drums. No deity is ascribed to agbè in the context of orin agbè. With this, kete ensemble is religiously motivated while agbè is basically socially motivated. Religion is primary to kete ensemble while social entertainment is secondary to it. But in the case of agbè, social use (warfare and palace entertainment at the initial stage and later use in different ceremonies) is primary with no religious affiliation

The similarities and the dissimilarities between *kete* and *agbè* musical instruments discussed above can be better presented in the Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3 The similarities and dissimilarities between kete and $agb\grave{e}$ ensembles

S/N	Items	Kete Ensemble	Agbè Ensemble	
1	Religious Status	Religious	Secular	
2	Types of musical	Membranophones and	Idiophones and	
	instruments	idiophone	lamelophone	
3	Sub-set of the ensembles	Kete and bệnbệ		
4	Namesake musical	i. omele	i. omele	
	instruments	ii. ìyá ìlù	ii. <i>ìyá agbè</i>	
		iii. <i>èjìn</i>	iii. <i>èjìn/jínjìn</i>	
5	Multiple uses of some	i. ààjà could be more than	i. èdà are more than	
	musical instruments	one	one	
		ii. <i>èjìn</i> could also be more	ii. <i>èso</i> could also be	
		than one	more than one	

CHAPTER FIVE

A COMPARATIVE SEMIOTICS OF VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL PERFORMANCES IN ORIN KETE AND ORIN AGBÈ

5.1 Performances in *Orin kete* and *Orin agbè*: Semiotics of verbal (voice) performance in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*

In this chapter, the main discussion is the verbal/voice and non-verbal performances in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. The verbal performances are divided into voice tempo, modes of poetic utterances, voice aesthetics and communication styles. The communication styles in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are further divided into dialogue, call and response and thematic preoccupations. The non-verbal performances discussed are instrumentation styles, dance styles, and acrobatic and magical performances. Also in this chapter, audience participation in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* is discussed. Lastly, the quantitative analyses and discussion of the data collected on the relevance and sustainability of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are presented.

Ógúndèjì (1979) has to some extent studied verbal performances in *orin agbè*. He discusses styles and techniques of vocal performances in orin agbè. Among the stylistic features of orin agbè Ògúndèjì (1979) explores is tonal counterpoint. Tonal counterpoint is a product of voice modulation and the ability to pattern the voice on words in which tones are contrasted. Another byproduct of voice modulation which Ògúndèjì (1979) investigates is tonal distortion and vowel lengthening. Tones on some words in orin agbè are distorted in order to make the words key into the rhythm of the poem. The performers of orin agbè can elongate the vowel of the poem to match the rhythm of the song. This has to do with the perfection of rhythmic patterns of the songs (orin agbè) from derailing from the standard voice pattern. Another feature of the voice and voice modulation style of orin agbè as mentioned by Ògúndèjì (1979) is the vibration of voice especially on a lengthened vowel by the lead singer. Ògúndèjì (1979) examines this feature under the subsection titled "Styles and Techniques in Vocal Performance" (pg. 93-98). Apart from those features mentioned above, other features discussed by Ògúndèjì are more related to styles of call and response in orin agbè than voicing and voice modulation which this subsection focuses on.

Moreover, Àlàbá (1985) does not directly discuss voicing and voice modulation in *orin agbè* but some features discussed in the thesis are related to it. Àlábá (1985) explores the speech styles in *orin agbè* under two broad categories. These are genre speech styles and situational speech styles. Genre speech styles are divided into two: repetitive solo-refrain singing interspersed with speech/recitation and repetitive solo-refrain singing interspersed with chanted utterances and spoken utterances. The first style as shown in Àlàbá's explanation is a situation where speech/recitation utterances different from the refrain but related to the content of the song come in between the call and the response. The second is a situation where elements that come in between the call and the response are chanted and spoken utterances. The second one which is situational speech styles has to do with the tempo at which *orin agbè* is sung. These are *èle* (fast tempo) and $w\acute{e}r\dot{o}$ (slow tempo). Àlàbá (1985) equally interrogates the importance of tone patterning and line lengthening as styles which we regard and treat as voice modulation in *orin agbè*.

5.1.1 Voice tempo: èle (fast tempo) and wérò (slow tempo)

The first determinant of voicing and voice modulation in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* is the decision of the performers to chant/sing in either *elè* or $w\acute{e}r\grave{\phi}$ tempo. $\grave{E}le$ tempo in *orin agbè* is the same thing with what Pa Olálérè called $iw\acute{e}r\acute{e}nd\acute{e}$ (fast tempo) in *orin kete*. Similarly, what he called $\grave{e}g\grave{\phi}/orin if\grave{a}l\grave{e}$ is the same as the $w\acute{e}r\grave{\phi}$ (slow) song tempo of *orin agbè*. This suggests that both *orin kete* and *orin agbè* operate both $\grave{e}le$ and $w\acute{e}r\grave{\phi}$ tempo. A slow tempo is *orin kete*, according to Pa Olálérè, is deployed to start the performance of *orin kete*. To buttress this point, mostly all the data we got on *orin kete* started with $\grave{e}g\grave{\phi}/if\grave{a}l\grave{e}$ (slow tempo). The contents of $\grave{e}g\grave{\phi}$ part of *kete* performance usually contain homage and adoration to the supreme being, Olódùmarè, the deities and the elders. Open supplications of *orin kete* are also sung in $\grave{e}g\grave{\phi}$ tempo and likewise initial self-introduction. When $\grave{e}g\acute{\phi}$ song's contents contain homage and adoration, the lead dancer remains on his knee to dance to the tune of the drum which must be beaten slowly. This is shown in the Plate 5.1 below.



Plate 5.1 The main dancer on his knees while dancing to an $\dot{e}g\dot{\rho}$ song of *kete* The picture was taken by the researcher at the coronation of Olù of Igbó-Ọrà on 25/5/2019.

The theme of the $\dot{e}g\dot{\phi}$ sang at this performance space is an initial-self introduction but which is coupled with the opening supplication as it is shown below.

Lílé: Òlélééééééé Call: Òlélééééééé

Eni aléèkú dé. The one who has been threatened

with death but remains immortal

has come

Lèkúléku ò Lèkúléku ò

*Eni aléèkú dé*The one who has been threatened

with death but remains immortal

has come

Ègbè: Òlélé Response: Òlélé

Eni aléèkú dé The one who has been threatened

with death but remains immortal

has come

Lílé: Eni aléèkú dé ò The one who has been threatened

with death but remains immortal

has come

Léèkúléku ò Lèkúléku ò

Eni aléèkú dé The one who has been threatened

with death but remains immortal

has come

Ègbè: Òlélé Response: Òlélé

Eni aléèkú dé The one who has been threatened

with death but remains immortal

has come

The song above contains a hypogram, $\partial l\acute{e}l\acute{e}$. $\dot{O}l\acute{e}l\acute{e}$ could be attributed to the *seme* (root), " $l\acute{e}$ " (to mean exceed or chase). " $L\acute{e}$ " is totally reduplicated as in " $l\acute{e}l\acute{e}$ " and the prefix " ∂ -" is used to nominalise it. This as a signifier could either signify someone who chases (an enemy) or a winning. $\dot{O}l\acute{e}l\acute{e}$ signifies a chaser when the meaning of the sentence in the second line of the song is considered. This sentence is *eni aléèkú dé* (The one who has been threatened with death but remains immortal has come). The hypogram, $\partial l\acute{e}l\acute{e}$, where signifying a winner is possibly read when considering $\partial l\acute{e}l\acute{e}$ in the context of the Ifá song below.

*Òléléèèè*Ma lékèè wọn

I will top them

Òlélé ò Òlélé

Ma lékèe won ò I will top them

Bígbá bá wọdò When calabash gets into river

A lé ténté It floats

Òlélé in the usage above is generated through the morphological process discussed above but what actually makes the difference is the last two lines of the song whose meaning does not indicate death as mentioned in *orin kete* mentioned earlier but rather an illustration of how empty calabash floats when thrown into the river. Calabash in this

regard is also a sinsin (physical sign) of lightness (not heavy) and the river is a signifier, signifying an obstacle which might make the calabash sink if not light. The calabash in this semiotic space could be synchronically read as signifying the singer of the song while the river signifies his/her enemies which he/she (the calabash) floats. So, *òlélé* as a signifier in this poetic semiosphere signifies the state of winning/victory.

The performers of the above $\dot{e}g\dot{\phi}$ lyric of *orin kete* make use of the song not only to introduce themselves but also as an initial supplication against their enemies who may want to disturb their performance. Because *orin kete* is a religious song, $\dot{e}g\dot{\phi}$ tempo of *orin kete* is then a song of worship in *kete* performance. As a signifier, it signifies the voice of respect and humility to the supreme being, the deities and the elders.

 $Agb\grave{e}$ performers also start their performance with a very slow tempo. Like *orin kete*, the content of the $\grave{e}g\grave{o}$ tempo of *orin agb\grave{e}* is made up of open supplications, initial self-introduction, homage and adoration. The example of $\grave{e}g\grave{o}$ in *orin kete* is below.

Lílé: Àwa laláré ò Call: We are entertainers
Laláré oba òòò The king's entertainers
Àwa labèrà We are abèrà 42

Àláré oba là á se The king's entertainers we

are

Ègbè: Àwa labèrà Response: We are abèrà

Àláré oba là á se The king's entertainers we

are

The theme of the song above is the initial-self introduction. $Agb\grave{e}$ artists called themselves $al\acute{e}r\acute{e}$ oba (king's entertainers) and $\grave{a}b\grave{e}r\grave{a}$. $Al\acute{a}r\acute{e}$ oba as used above means king's entertainers. Though $r\grave{a}$ (to buy) as used in the excerpt could be directly translated as to mean "buy" but rather "hire". Going down to the deep meaning of $\grave{a}b\grave{e}r\grave{a}$, if someone is called $\grave{a}b\grave{e}r\grave{a}$, it is to show how expensive such a person is. After the buyer, someone who wants to hire him can afford the payment, he/she still needs to beg the performers before he/she could make it. That means $agb\grave{e}$ performers are not only expensive but have dignity. Thus, $\grave{a}b\grave{e}r\grave{a}$ is then a qualisign, a signifier of quality. It shows the expensive status of $agb\grave{e}$ artists and their performances. The repetitive utterances and the elongation of vowel sounds in both poetic excerpts are evidence of the emphasis laid by the poets to show this expensive status.

Kete songs sung in iwéréndé (fast tempo) are usually more than those sung in ifàlè (slow tempo). In iwéréndé, the tempo of the song and the drum tune are usually

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⁴² This is a short form of *eni tí a bè rà* (one who is persuaded before hiring him/her).

fast. Iwéréndé is commmon in social and non-religious type of orin kete. Songs to discuss topical issues are sung in iwéréndé tempo. Most satirical kete songs are sung in iwéréndé. According to Pa Olálérè, iwéréndé songs are liked by youths (mostly women) because of the fastness of the tempo that enables them to twerk while dancing to them. In the example of orin kete below, the main dancer from the beginning of the performance danced to the *ìfàlè* song with which the performance was started, suddenly he changed the song tempo as evident below.

Òlélé Lílé: Call: Òlélé

> Eve aréré mo dé Aréré bird, I have come

Léèkéléku ò Léèkéléku ò

Aréré bird, I have come Eve aréré mo dé

Ègbè: Òlélé Response: Òlélé

> Eve aréré mo dé Aréré bird. I have come

Lílé: Léèkéléku ò Call: Léèkéléku ò

Eve aréré mo dé Aréré bird. I have come

Ègbè: Òlélé Response: Òlélé

Eve aréré mo dé Aréré bird. I have come

Lílé: Léèkéléku ò Call: Léèkéléku ò

Eye aréré mo dé Aréré bird, I have come

Òlélé Ègbè: Òlélé Response:

Eye aréré mo dé... Aréré bird, I have come...

Lílé: Èyin ará ibí Call: Oh you people

Ó wá dòbìrí It has come to the issue of

turning round

Mo yílù padà ò I have changed drum style

Ó dòbìrí It has come to the issue of

turning round

I have changed drum style Mo yílù padà Ohun Orí bá fé It is what the head wants

Ni n ó se ò That I will do

Ó wá dòbìrí It has come to the issue of

turning round

I have changed drum style Mo yílù padà Ègbè: Ohun Orí bá fé

Response: It is what the head wants Ni n ó se ò That I will do

Ó wá dòbìrí It has come to the issue of

turning round

Mo yílù padà I have changed drum style

Lílé: Éèe ohun-ùn Call: *Éèe* it is

Ni n ó se ò

Ohun Orí bá fé It is what the head wants

Ni n ó se ò That I will do

Ó wá dòbìrí It has come to the issue of

turning round

Mo yílù padà I have changed drum style Ègbè: Mo yílù padà Response: I have changed drum style

Ohun Orí bá fé

It is what the head wants

That I will do

Ó wá dòbìrí

Mo yílù padà...

It has come to the issue of turning round
I have changed drum style

The performers of *orin kete* above successfully switched from the slow tempo of the song to the fast tempo. The lead singer even referenced this switching by saying "Ó wá dòbìrí, mo yílù padà" (It has come to the issue of turning round, I have changed drum style".

We need to mention that the *ifàlè* part of the song above is a variant of the song cited as the first example of *ifàlè* lyrics of *kete*. Unlike the first song, *òlélé* in the second song does not signify a chaser but a winning position or a victor. The performers also called themselves *eye aréré*. This is not new in oral performance as many Yorùbá oral poets refer to themselves as birds. Among the types of bird they call themselves are *òfé* (a poetic name of the peacock), *odideré* (parrot) and *àwoko* (a mockingbird). The signifier, *aréré* is traceable to the root "rí eré" (see a play). The verb "rí" (see) is then combined with the verb "eré" (play) to become "réré". The prefix "a-" is used to nominalise it to become "aréré" to heuristically mean "one who does see play". Connotatively, it means "one who is fond of play". When the word (aréré) is used to qualify *eye* (bird), then *eye aréré* as used in the above song signifies the habitual singing of birds to which the poets compare themselves. As a result, the noun phrasal expression (*eye aréré*) is a symbolic qualisign as it shows the habitual character of the poets which is comparable to birds' singing habit.

It is also a required to pay close attention to "dòbìrî" and "orî". "Dòbìrî" is a verb phrase in which the verb "dì" (to become) is combined with the noun "òbìrî" (turning around). This is as in "di òbìrî = dòbìrî" after the vowel "i" is deleted. The usage "dòbìrî" is an idiomatic expression to mean turning round but as it was used in the above poetic line, it means switching or changing, especially when "mo yílù padà" (I have changed drum style) is used to modify it as done above. "Di òbìrî" as Yorùbá idiomatic expression is long time known as a signifier of either turning round or change. Hence, it is a cliché. Orî is believed to be a deity. Dáramólá and Jéjé (1976) suggests that Orî is another name for Elédàá (The Creator). One of the ways Orî is being worshipped is àyánlè. This is a religious practice whereby food items are thrown on the ground in respect of someone's inner head, mainly somebody that one is supposed to be taken the meal together with but not present at a particular point in time. So, Orî is a religious signifier, signifying Olódùmarè (Almighty God in Yorùbá belief system).

 $\grave{E}le$ tempo in *orin agbè* is expected to come after $w\acute{e}r\grave{\phi}$ but sometimes it comes first. This is evident in the performance of *orin agbè* data collected at Ilùà where the performance started with a very fast tempo. Like *orin kete*, the *agbè* songs sung in $\grave{e}le$ are more than those sung in $\grave{i}f\grave{a}l\grave{e}$ (slow tempo). As non-religious poetry, social and topical issues in *orin agbè* are sung in $\grave{e}le$ tempo. As evident in our research, *orin egbè* is more sung in $\grave{e}le$ tempo than *orin kete*. Below is an example of *orin agbè* sung in $\grave{e}le$ tempo.

Lílé: Oníjó gbajó Call: The dancer has overtaken

the dance

Omele lówó re sakará ó Omele is at your hand,

şàkàrá

Ègbè: Oníjó gbajó Response: The dancer has overtaken

the dance

Omele lówó rẹ ṣàkàrá ó Omele is at your hand,

sàkàrá

Lílé: Oníjó gbajó Call: The dancer has overtaken

the dance

Omele lówó ajósákárá ó Omele is at the hand of

sàkàrá dancer

Ègbè: Oníjó gbajó Call: The dancer has overtaken

the dance

Omele lówó ajósàkàrá ó... Omele is at the hand of

şàkàrá dancer

In the above song, the report of onijo (the dancer) who has overtaken the dance was made and the lead vocalist called the attention of sakara to omele that is at its hand. We must first note that sakara (enmeshed gourd of $orin\ agbe$) is an inanimate object and does not have a hand to hold omele (the foremost gourd in $orin\ agbe$ musical instruments). sakara as used in the sentence above does not mean the instrument itself but an iconic signifier of the player of the omele instrumentalist. In the Yorùbá cultural semiosphere, if someone is told something "is in his/her hand" (oldoyode) oldoyode) oldoyode) oldoyode) the statement connotatively signifies that the person is responsible for the proper management of the thing given or assigned to him/her. In this wise, "oldoyode) oldoyode) cannot be best translated as "oldoyode) is the responsibility of the instrumentalist (who was iconically represented by the name of the instrument he/she plays)".

5.1.2 Mode of poetic utterances: speech, chant and song mode

The three general voicing patterns of Yorùbá oral poetic performance are deployed in both *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. These are song, chant and speech mode. However, the speech form of poetic mode is commonplace in *orin agbè*. Speech utterances also occur in *orin kete*, but more during the religious performance of the genre than during its social performances. Such a speech voicing occurs when worshippers have to make some requests, reports, praises, adorations and prayers in speech pattern. This many times interspersed with chant or song during worship. It is better to give some examples of speech, chant and song forms in both poetic genres and more preferably the ones that have all the elements of the three modes of Yorùbá poetic voicing i.e àrángbó (speech recitative mode), iṣàré (chant mode) and *orin* (song mode). Let us look at the example of *orin agbè* from the repertoire of the Igbó-Orà group of *agbè* performers below.

Lílé: Ajómáwolé ó dà bíi kórò má lọ Call: Ajómáwolé, it seems Orò

should not go

Ègbè: Àlàké ó dà bíi kórò má lọ Response: Àlàké, it seems Orò

should not go

(An intersperse guttural speech mode voice of a performer comes in)

 Ohùn: Ε΄ἐἐ, ά γὸρὸρ...
 Voice: Ε΄ἐἐ, ά γὸρὸρ...

 Α΄ φὸρὸρὸρ...
 Α΄ φὸρὸρὸρ...

 Αgogo ooo...
 Gong ooo...

 Ε΄ἐἐἐἐἐἐἐ...
 Ε΄ἐἐἐἐἐἐ...

Ó yá máa bộ Now come over here Máa bò Cover over here

A wá şeré fún e ni We come to perform for

you

Bó bàtàá lè Remove your footwear

Ó yá, ó yá Let's do it Áààààà Áàààà

Lílé: Ajómáwolé ó dà bíi kórò má lo Call: Ajómáwolé, it seems Orò

should not go

Ègbè: Àlàké ó dà bíi kórò má lọ Response: Àlàké it seems Orò

should not go

There is an interjection of song and speech modes of Yorùbá oral aesthetic voicing in the above excerpt. When the song was being rendered, one of the dancers interjected with utterances in a guttural speech mode to communicate to other performers and a female celebrant who wanted to join the dance performance. There are some significations that need to be explained in the above speech mode part of the excerpt. First, the shortness of the utterances, second, the content and third which is the most

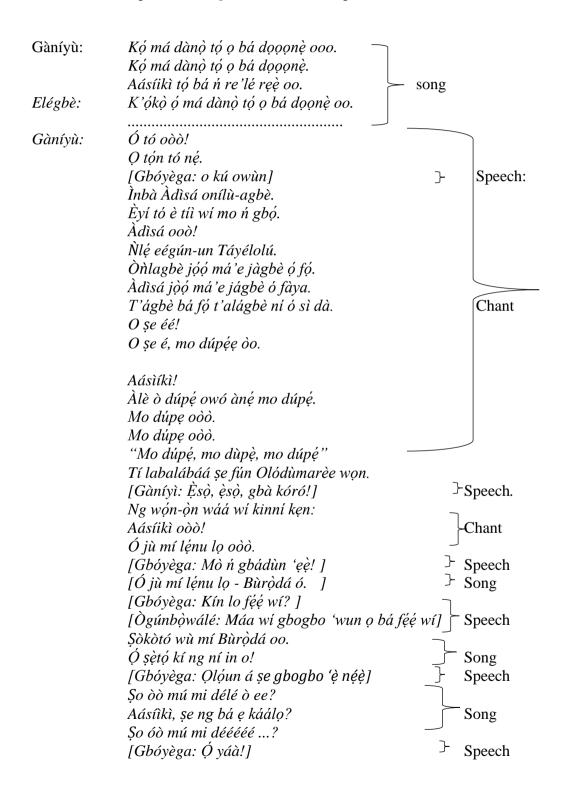
noticeable and important feature in the excerpt, the guttural projection mode of the interjection lines. The short utterances enhance the smoothness of the recitation and its rhythmic effect. It contributes to fast tempo and smooth performance. It is as well a signifier of eagerness and readiness of the speaker to stimulate and encourage other performers around. The performer was able to coordinate the rhythm of instrumentation, singing and dancing at the same time through his directorial interjection. This identifies him as an experienced master performer, though he was at the point in time playing a chorus role. One cannot but wonder how the use of guttural voice modulation fits in the performance. The semiosis of the guttural voice modulation is no doubt indexically motivated by the lexical choice of Orò⁴³ in the song. The master performer turned director consequentially adopted the use of appropriate voice modulation that agrees with the generated Orò context.

The second is the content of the excerpt. The song aspect of the genre shows the speakers' feelings about the demise of the poetic subject which was compared to the departure of Orò. The presence of Orò to the worshippers seems to be interesting and as a result, people will not want it to leave but as a matter of fact, Orò must leave exactly when it should. What this suggests is that if the performers had the powers, they would have not allowed the deceased person to die. This definitely was because they cherished her company. So, to celebrate this dead person, the speaker in the speech form of the excerpt called on one of the celebrants (daughter of the deceased) to join them in the dance performance. We must take note of the voice and voicing modulation in which the speech of the excerpt is projected which cannot be adequately represented graphically unless described. The speaker made the interjection in a guttural voice mode. This is exactly the mode of voice used by worshippers of Orò to communicate during their ritual performances. A guttural is a voice modulation capable of creating fear in the listeners. We should note that masquerade also speaks in a guttural voice. Such voice is also used at the war front (which is the starting point of orin agbè) aimed and targeted to scare away the enemies. In this wise, guttural voice as used in the above text is a hypogram that is created out of the root (semes), of fear. Though the guttural voice used in the above text signifies fear, which the deity referenced in the text suggests, however, it was not used to scare either the performers or the audience in the performance context. It is rather converted and adopted to stimulate other performers.

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⁴³ Orò is a Yorùbá deity that is believed not to be seen by women.

According to Àlàbá (1979), chant also makes part of *orin agbè*. We did not get much data on chanting mode in *orin agbè*. Data on the genre are all in song mode. Ògúndèjì's (1985) study of *orin agbè* also shows that *orin agbè* is mainly in the song mode, though he was able to record one example of chant mode of the genre. Àlàbá (1979) also has an example of *orin agbè* text that encompasses a chant as shown below.



Elégbè: Şó óò mú mi déélé ò eee?

Aásîìkì, șe ng bá ẹ káálọ?

Qm'Aaróbadáádéé.

Gàníyù: Om'Aaróbadáádéé ò eee.

Aásíìkì, șe ng bá ẹ káálọ?

Om'Aaróbadáádéé.

Gàníyù: May it not crash on the way.

May it not crash on the way.

Isaac, when you are going back home.

Chorus: May your vehicle not crash on the way.

.....

Gàníyù: Please, stop a little!

Stop a tittle, please!

[Gbóyèga: I compliment you on the use of your sweet voice.]

Song

Homage to Àdìsá, the owner of agbè musical instruments.

I heard all that you said.

Even what you have not said is already audible to me.

Oh, Àdìsá! Greetings!

I greet you, Táyélolú's masquerade.

Agbè-player, please do not let the agbè break.

Àdìsá, please do not let the agbè crack.

If agbè breaks, that will create a problem for the agbè artist.

Thank you!

Thank you, I am grateful indeed.

Isaac!

The concubine does not thank her paramour for yesterday's cash

gift.

I am very grateful.

I am very grateful. Thanks, thanks and thanks again

As butterflies say to their God.

[Gàníyù: Play it soft, soft gbà kóró]

I shall now say something:

O Isaac!

It exceeds what my mouth can utter.

[Gbóyèga: Carry on: I am enjoying your performance!] It exceeds what my mouth can utter, my dear brother.

[Gbóyèga: What do you want to say?]
[Ògúnmwolé: Do say all you wish to say.]
I want a pair of trousers, my brother.

I ought to possess it indeed.

/Gbóyèga: God will provide everything you want./

Will you take me to your home? Isaac, may I come along with you? /Gbóyèga: I am ready to take you.

Chorus: Will you take me to your home indeed?

Isaac, may I come along with you?

Person describable as Aróbadádé.

Gàníyù: Person describable as Aróbadádé.

Chorus: Isaac, will you take me along with you?

Person describable as Aróbadádé.

(Àlàbá, 1979: 257-261)

In the excerpt above, there is a mixture of speech, chant and song modes of poetic rendition in orin agbè. The data is a piece of evidence that like speech and song, there also exists chant in the genre.

The mixture of the mode of poetic rendition as it occurs in *orin agbè* is a sinsign of the primary function of the genre, kings' entertainment poetry. When kings are being entertained, both chant and song poetic modes are commonly used. However, poetic interjection in speech mode is also possible because of the settings of king palaces across Yorùbáland. Yorùbá kings' palaces are not restricted to the general public, this makes it possible for the occurrence of speech mode communication, either from the agbè artists to members of the audience or from members of the audience to the artists.

The choice of poetic mode in *orin kete* is based on the purpose and type of the performance. In a religious performance, speech mode is used more than the others. It is also used in social performance but at a low rate. In the example of the religious performance of *orin kete* below, there are utterances made in different speech modes. The performance was held at Arísányán compound. In this performance, sacrifices were made to the dead, Aláráagbó and many other deities that are connected with Aláráagbó. There was a worshipper who wanted to sacrifice kolanut to Ìbèjì. While offering the sacrifice, the following utterances were made:

Àrángbó: Èmi ni mo kóbì méjì sílè... Speech: I am the one that

brought two kolanuts

(The kolanuts the worshipper brought were meant for sacrifice to Ìbèjì)

Àrángbó: Mo dúpé o Speech: I am grateful

> Táyélolú ìséèrè wéwé Távélolú, young

> > children

Ìkónkósó aríjó-sana-iyawó Yam seedling-like

> who dances to entertain his inlaw

Òkan mo ní n bí I purpose to bear

one

Èjì ló wolé tò mí Twins enter my

home

Òbé-kìsì-bé-késé The one that jumps

suddenly

Ó wọlé alákìísà	He/she enters
	pauper's home
Ó sọ ó donígba-aṣọ	And makes him/her
	the owner of two
	hundred clothes
Ojú ni pókí	One with deep eye
•	sucket
Fún mi nírù n rójú ṣiré	Give me tail and let
v .	me have eyes to
	play
Mo yíkàá ìyá o	I make special
, , ,	obeisance for the
	mother
Nílè ni mo wà o	I am on the ground
Nílè ni mo wà o	I am on the ground

Orin: Táyélolú lóun ó şoko mi Song: Táyélolú says he

Táyélolú lóun ó şoko mi

Ègbè:

will be my husband Omokéhìndé lóun ó soko mi Omokéhìndé

he will be my husband

O ò sí ni n máà ródò lóòrùn mộ o He says I should

stop going to the river under the sun Táyélolú says he

will be my husband Táyélolú lóun şoko mi

Response: Táyélolú says he will be my husband

Omokéhìndé lóun ó soko mi Omokéhìndé says

he will be my

husband Ó sí ni n máà ródò lóòrùn mó o

He says I should stop going to the river under the sun

Táyélolú lóun ó şoko mi Táyélolú says he

will be my husband

The above presentation was made both in speech and song modes. The worshipper at the initial stage answered a question asked by the priest about the two kolanuts at the shrine of Ìbejì. The answer given to the question about the owner of the kolanuts is in the speech mode of daily conversation. This was suddenly changed to the poetic language (praise poetry). It was changed to Yorùbá twins panegyric rendered. It is used by the speaker to show appreciation for Ibejì, the Yorùbá god of twins. When the panegyric got tensed, was suddenly changed to the song. The semiotic implications of changing a mode of utterance from speech to either chant or song include the gravity of the poetic sentences, an attempt to show how mindful the speaker is of his/her utterances and as well as an attempt to show the mood of the speaker towards his/her statements whose details or summary can only be given in the sentences of the song or chant alluded to.

Changing from chant to song mode is also possible in *orin kete*. This is very much common when the genre is performed as social entertainment. The performer, usually the lead vocalist(s), can chant for a long time while the drumbeat continues. The chanter will later end up the chant with song to which a response will be made. The content of the song usually complements the theme of the discussion in the chanting part of the genre.

Ìṣàré: Omo Atééréjayé Chant: The offspring of Atééréjayé

Gbéra ńlè ko dìde Rise up

Kò lè dá mi lóhùn mợ She cannot answer me

anymore

Omo è ní n dáhùn It is her child that answers

Ó ti lo She has gone

Ìjệní àgbé ọmọ Bàyamù Ìjệní àgbé, the offpsring of

Bàyamù

Olóólà tí mùkọ abẹ

The tribal mark maker that drinks the pap circumcision

Lábándé omo Aríké-ewu-móbe... Lábándé, the offspring of

Aríké-ewu-móbe...

Omo erankó mérindínlógún The offspring of sixteen

animals

Lèjìní àgbé kọ nílà Were circumcised by Èjìní

agbé

Tí ò gbowó abe lówó wọn And did not collect charges

Lílé: Ééééé Àríkę Call: Ééééé Àríkę

Gbére o Goodbye

Arílké o Àríké

Arilkę o Arikę
Gbére o Goodbye

Ó dàrìnnàkò ò Till we meet again Ègbè: Gbére Response: Goodbye

Ó dàrìnnàkò... Till we meet again

In the foregoing, the lead vocalist started this section of the performance by chanting the panegyric of the dead person. He continued to mourn her demise and ended up the chant with a song which was responded to by the chorus with the same lines. So, *orin kete* like *orin agbè* is a mixture of the speech, chant and song modes of poetic recitation. The speech mode of recitation occurs most in *orin agbè* but is also common in the religious aspect of *orin kete* (during the sacrifice made to deities related to the genre i.e. Òrìṣà-ńlá, Aláráagbó, Ìbejì and Ìrókò).

5.1.3 Semiotics of voice aesthetics in orin kete and orin agbè

Voice aesthetics in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* is beyond the choice of poetic voice tempo (àrángbó, ìsàré and orin). Voice aesthetics, as described in this work, implies how these modes of poetic tempo are manipulated to create aesthetics in the genre. The main voice aesthetic discovered in orin kete and orin agbè includes voice modulation. According to Turnbull (2010), to modulate is to change the quality of one's voice so as to generate an outcome which could be loud, softer or lower. Voice modulation is mainly changing of style and loudness of voice pitch in order to express an emotion. This could occur through tonal counterpoint, tonal distortion, vowel lengthening, voice vibration, nasalised voicing, guttural voicing and humming.

5.1.3.1 Tonal counterpoint in orin kete and orin agbè

Tonal counterpoint, according to Olátúnjí (1984), is a device that employs an intentional tone contrast or lexical items distortion for creating an aesthetic poetic effect. This is done in such a way that the tones on parallel lexical items are intentionally patterned to contrast with one another. In the lyrics of *orin kete* below, tonal counterpoint is deployed.

Àrà kengé 1. Lílé: Call:

Bítàkùn ò bá já

Olórun ń se nhkan o God creates wonderful things

Surprise!

Àrà kengé Surprise!

Olórún ń se nhkan ò God creates wonderful things Bó sòjò When He makes it rain A sòdá He also makes the drought

A tún se rúkurùku ooo He as well makes weather cloudy

Ègbè: Àrà kengé Response: Surprise!

Olórun ń se nhkan ooo God creates wonderful things

2. Ìṣàré: Mo dáyen dúró Chant: I stop that for now

> E jệ n máa rétí inú gbộ Let me hear with the listening ear E dákun e má mú tèmi gbó Please, do not take me up

Oore ò sé sohun gbogbo Everything cannot be handled with

goodness Ó dá mi lójú pé

I am very sure that Etí inú lomo ejò máa ń lò Snakes use inner hear Ìpé tá a pé Our assemblage

Tá a pé bíríkítí That we assembled in circle Ìpộ tá a pộ bìbàà Our high number assemblage

Ìláyí Aláwùràbí The God Almighty

Mámà jé á fomo àbúrò somo Do not let us take our brothers'

child as ours

Wéréwéré niken máá jelé Termites eat a house slowly

If the rope is intact

Owó ò le bòkéré

Baba ta níi máá fi póńpó

Palábahun...

Mo bệyín o elégbè e gbòkun

Mo bèyín elégbè e gbộsà

Orin tálùkò⁴⁴ bá dá Lọmọ è máá ń gbè fun

Lèșelèșe Lèjàlèjà Èyí tá bá lè șe Là á mára le sí Baálé má rídìí

Ìyà lórí ìyọnu ni

<u> Ę</u> dákun

E má jệ kí tọwộ ó bộ E má jệ kí tẹsè ó yè Bí tọwộ bá bộ Bí tẹsè bá yè

Torí irú wọn níi máá

borín lọ Mo bệ yín

Èyin aráa bí Àgádágodo

Kì í wọn lára éégún

Kò sórìsà tí pohùn Orò

110 sor işir il politili o

nílé ayé Mo dé

Kólóko má leè roko

Mo dé

Kólónà má yènà

Ìdé tí mo dé

Àdán kan ò rọgii

Òòbệ kan Òòbệ kàn

Wọn ò gbọdò rọgi àjà

Èyin aráabí

Kólekóle kó nilé ayé

Èrò ni tìgbín

Squirrel can never be caught

No one's father kills a tortoise with

a stick

I beg my chorus to respond as full

as the ocean

I beg my chorus to respond as full

as the sea

It is the call made by the red turaco
That its offspring responds to
For the one who is capable
For the one who could fight
It is the thing that one could do
That one commits oneself to

That the head of the family should

not know the source

Such a thing ends in pain and

suffering Please

Do not let the one at hand fall off Do not let the one in the leg miss If the one at hand falls off

If the one in the leg misses

It is such a person that fades with

song I beg you

You these people

A padlock

Is not missed out in masquerade

costume

No deity is capable to stop Orò

voice on earth I have come

Farmers should not go to their

farms

I have come

Road constructors should abandon

their work

As I arrived

A bat should not hang down on a

tree

Also a small bat A small bat

Should not hang down on a rafter

You these people

Taking things hard does not befit

life

Softness is that of the snail

⁴⁴ The word $\grave{a}l\grave{u}k\grave{o}$ as it was used in the above excerpt is inexact. It is rather $\grave{E}l\acute{u}k\acute{u}$, an $or\grave{o}$ deity among \grave{I} jėbú Yorùbá.

Pèlépèlé lọmọ ejò ń It is with ease that snake offsprings

climb

gagbon coconut tree

Mọ tộn để eeeềI have arrived againMo tún để oI have arrived again

E dákun Please Mo bệyín I beg you

Olórun má jé á pàdé ejó God should not let us have a court

case

Olórun má jéyà ó je wá God should not let us suffer

Mo dé bí mo sé ń dé I have come the way I used to come

Èyin ará ibí You these people *Kò lè yệ* It cannot stop

Kò lè yệ látowó mi It cannot stop from me

Kò lè yệ òòò It cannot stop Níbi táa bérè eè Where we have

Níbi táà béré ìbílè dé Where we have taken traditional

performance to

Omo Láselé Offspring of Láselé

Níbi táa béré ìbílè dé Where we have taken traditional

performance to It cannot stop

Kò lè yệ It cannot stop
Kò lè yệ látọwó mi It cannot stop from me

Kò lè yè It cannot stop

Tọwộ yín ló kù tí n ò lè sọ o It is what is on your side that I am

not sure of

Ègbè: Kò lè yè òòò Response: It cannot stop

Kò lè yệ lá tọwó mi It cannot stop from me

Kò lè yè òòò It cannot stop

Evidence of tonal counterpoint is featured in the above excerpts. In the first excerpt, the tones of some lexical items are patterned to counter and contrast with one another. " $\partial j \partial$, $\partial d \hat{a}$ and $r \hat{u} k u r \hat{u} k u$ " in " $B \hat{o} \ s \partial j \partial$; $A \ s \partial d \hat{a}$ and $A \ t \hat{u} n \ s e \ r \hat{u} k u r \hat{u} k u$ ooo" are made to contrast each other. The first two syllabic words " $\partial j \partial$ " have both vowels carrying low tones. The second word " $\partial d \hat{a}$ " carries a low tone on the initial vowel and a high tone on the second vowel. This contrasts with the last syllable of the first lexical item. The third lexical is multi-syllabic words with four syllables. The word is a partial reduplicated idiophonic item of " $r \hat{u} k u$ " (to mean not clear). The tone on the first syllable of " $r \hat{u} k u$ " is contrasted with a low tone to deviate from the root; hence, it ends up in having " $r \hat{u} k u r \hat{u} k u$ " (an unclear atmosphere). The word " $r \hat{u} k u r \hat{u} k u$ " makes a tonal contrast when said after " $\partial j \partial$ " and " $\partial d \hat{a}$ ". This is because it has tonally deviated from them and it makes it possible for the mid-tone to also feature and balance tonal co-occurrence in the usage.

Likewise in the second excerpt, the tones on "*ìpé* and *ìpò*", "*pé* and *pò*", "*bíríkítí* and *bìbàà*" in "*Ìpé tá a pé; Tá a pé bíríkítí; Ìpò tá a pò bìbàà*" are used to contrast one

another. High tones are prominent and common on the first sets of words identified while the second set carries low tones all through. This is an intentional contrastive tonal pattern identified as the tonal counterpoint above. Other examples are "e gbòkun and e gbòsà" in "Mo bèyín elégbè e gbòkun", "Lèṣelèṣe and Lèjàlèjà", "tówó... bó and tẹsè... yè" in "Ē má jé kí towó ó bó; Ē má jé kí tesè ó yè; Bí towó bá bó; Bí tesè bá yè" and "Kólóko...roko and Kólónà... yènà" in "Mo dé; Kólóko má leè roko; Mo dé; Kólónà má yènà" among others in the second excerpt above.

Some expressions in both the first and the second songs are semiotically motivated. These range from the metaphoric items; "òjò, òdá and rúkurùku", a plea, "Mo bèyín elégbè e gbòkun; Mo bèyín elégbè e gbòsà; Orin tálùkò bá dá; Lọmọ è máá ń gbè fun", prayer incantations; "Ìdé tí mo dé; Àdán kan ò rọgi; Òòbè kan; Òòbè kàn; Wọn ò gbọdò rọgi àjà", an advice, "Èyin aráabí; Kólekóle kó nilé ayé; Èrò ni tìgbín; Pèlépèlé lọmọ ejò ń gagbòn" to an oath of allegiance to kete performance; "Kò lè yè; Kò lè yè látọwó mi; Kò lè yè; Tọwó yín ló kù tí n ò lè sọ o" as shown in the second song above.

The sentences, "Mo bệyín elégbè e gbòkun; Mo bệyín elégbè e gbòsà; Orin tálùkò bá dá; Lọmọ è máá ń gbè fun" as said earlier is a plea. Apart from their denotative meanings, the words "gbòkun and gbòsà" have other significations. "Gbòkun" is a predicate generated from the combination "gbè" (to respond) and "òkun" (ocean) through the process of deletion (gbè + òkun = gb + òkun = gbòkun). The same process is applicable to "gbòsà" (gbè + òsà = gb + òsa = gbòsa). If we are to translate the

combined verb literally as they were used, it would mean "I beg my chorus to respond to the ocean" and "I beg my chorus to respond to the sea". These are literal translations whose meanings do not connote the exact meanings of the sentences because " $gb\dot{e}$ " as a verb cannot semantically co-occur with " ∂kun " and " $\partial s\dot{a}$ " which are inanimate and cannot respond to the call of a song. " ∂kun " and " $\partial s\dot{a}$ " as used above are symbolic signifiers of fullness and completeness to which the lead singer wanted his chorus to respond. In order to justify his request, the lead singer added that his chorus must respond completely because " $orin\ t\acute{a}l\grave{u}k\grave{o}\ b\acute{a}\ d\acute{a}$, $lomo\ \grave{e}\ m\acute{a}\acute{a}\ \acute{n}\ gb\grave{e}\ fun$ " (It is the call made by the red turaco that its offspring responds to). This sentence is $of\dot{o}$ (an incantation). The positive assertive marker "ni.." in the deep structure "... $ni\ omo\ ...$ " which becomes "... $lomo\ ...$ " as a result of vowel deletion is an indication that the statement is an incantation. As an incantation, it is a cliché because " $orin\ t\acute{a}l\grave{u}k\grave{o}\ b\acute{a}\ d\acute{a}$, $lomo\ \grave{e}\ m\acute{a}\acute{a}\ \acute{n}\ gb\grave{e}\ fun$ " is an agreeable statement that has been in use to signify cohesion for a long time. In this wise, the statement is a cliché signifying cohesion. The positive assertive marker "...ni..." used also affirms this.

The sentences "Ìdé tí mo dé; Àdán kan ò rogi; Òòbè kan; Òòbè kàn; Won ò gbọdộ rọgi àjà" are also ofộ (incantation). This is because "...ò..." used in the expression is a negative assertive sentence marker as found in of \hat{o}. The marker "\hat{E}r\hat{o} ni tigbin; Pèlépèlé lomo ejò ń gagbòn". The word "...lomo..." also has "ni" in its deep structure which is "ni omo". Deletion of vowel /i/ in the preposition "ni" occured, in the process of combining the /n/ with the object $(\rho m \rho)$ because /n/ is a nasal consonant that cannot co-occur with /D/ in the environment unless its nasality feature changes. As a result, /n/ changes into its non-nasal variant /l/ and the process results in "...lomo..." above. Though, "Èrò ni tìgbín; Pèlépèlé lomo ejò ń gagbòn" is ofò as shown by some of the sentences feature, it is also a cliché signifying ease. And lastly in "Kò lè yè; Kò lè yè látowó mi; Kò lè yè; Towó yín ló kù tí n ò lè sọ o", "yè" could mean to stop or to change. In the context of the performance of the song, "ye'" could mean either of the two meanings stated above. That is to stwich from orin kete to another song or to stop its performance. The theme of the song is an allegiance made by the lead singer to his chorus. The chorus also repeated part of the lead singer's call by saying "Kò lè yè látowó mi; Kò lè yè". This is to show that, the chorus were also in support of the song and would not allow the performance of the song to stop. As a result, the song is therefore a signifier motivated by law (agreemen) to signify an oath of allegiance for the sustenance of orin kete. Likewise in orin agbè, tonal counterpoint is among the styles of voice modulation made used by the $agb\grave{e}$ performers to create voice aesthetics in $agb\grave{e}$ performance. For example, a tonal counterpoint is reflected in the following $agb\grave{e}$ lyrics:

1.	Lílé:	A gbé tilé wa dé	Call:	We have come with our family tradition						
	Ègbè:	Tilée wa	Respo	nse: Our family tradition						
	_	A gbé tilé wa dé		We have come with our family tradition						
	Ègbè:	Tilée wa	Response: Our family tradition							
	Lílé:	Àkókó kosùn ó kerí	Call:	Woodpecker applies camwood to paint its head						
	Ègbè:	Tilée wa	Respo	nse: Our family tradition						
	_	Àdàbà kosùn ó kàyà	Call:	Dove applies camwood to paint its chest						
	Ègbè:	Tilée wa	Respo	nse: Our family tradition						
	Lílé:	Olóbùró kosùn ó kộfọn	Call:	<i>Olóbùró</i> applies camwood to paint its neck						
	Ègbè:	Tilée wa	Respo	nse: Our family tradition						
	Lílé:	A gbé tilé wa dé	Call:	We have come with our family tradition						
	Ègbè:	Tilée wa	Respo	nse: Our family tradition						
2.	Lílé:	Láálá ń yọ lókè o éè	Call:	Something of high features from the sky						
	Ègbè:	Lààlà 'n yọ lókè o éè	Respo	nse: Something of high features from the sky						
	Lílé:	Láálá ń yọ lókè	Call:	Something of high features from the sky						
		Níbi a gbé ń ṣawo lọ		Where we went on Ifá religious expedition						
	Ègbè:	Lààlà à yọ lókè	Respo	nse: Something of high features from the sky						
		Níbi a gbé ń ṣawo lọ		Where we went on Ifá religious expedition						

In the above lyrics of *orin agbè*, the three sentences: "Àkókó kosùn ó kerí; Àdàbà kosùn ó kàyà; Olóbùró kosùn ó kòfọn" are parallel. The parallel status of the sentences makes it possible for some lexical items in the three parallel sentences to be collocate. "Àkókó", "àdàbà" and "olóbùró" are lexically matched because they belong to the same class of grammar; they are nouns. They are as well subjects of the verbs in each of the sentences. "Erî" (as in "kun erí = kerî" (to paint the head), "àyà" (as in "kun àyà = kàyà" (to paint the chest) and "òfọn" (as in "kun òfọn = kòfọn" (to paint the neck) also match lexically because they are also nouns and objects of the predications ("kùn"; to paint) combined with them. While looking at the selection of the tone on "àkókó", "àdàbà" and "olóbùró", they are made to vary in such a way that they contrast one another. "Àkókó",

a three syllabic word, has a low tone / `/ on the first syllable and a high tone / '/ on the other two syllables. The word "àdàbà" has low tones all through the three syllables while "olóbùró" has a mid-tone on the first syllable, high tone on the second, low on the third and high on the fourth. This creates a tonal balance. In other words, tones of these words are not stagnant. Likewise "erî", "àyà" and "òfon" have tones patterned in creating tonal balance in such a way that the words do not only have a single tone at the final stage of each lexical item. This helps in having an up and down tonal pattern which is labelled as tonal counterpoint.

In the second example of *orin agbè* above, "láálá" and "lààlà" are lexically matched. They are as well patterned to be tone balanced. Nevertheless, both words are ideophones. "Láálá" is a seme "lààlà" is traceable to. "Láálá" is either used as a noun or an adverb. "Láálá" as a noun could be traced to a Yorùbá proverb, "Láálá tó ròkè ilè ló ń bộ" (Anything that goes up comes down). "Láálá" in the semiosphere of a thing going up as denoted in the proverb could refer to animate and inanimate objects. "Láálá" does not only stand for an object (animate or inanimate), it has within a sense of such an object having the capability of going up. This is because as a noun, "láálá" is derived from "láláálá", an adverb used to describe verbs depicting moving up; for example, "fò láláálá" or "fò láálá" (to jump very high). Converting "láálá" into a noun as done in the above *orin kete* is a conversion of lexical from its primary status to seconadry.

"Lààlà", on the other hand, is a nonsensical variant of "láálá". "Lààlà" does not have either a grammatical or semantic meaning in the song context. Its usage is intentional, it is used to create a tonal counterpoint of "láálá" to bring about tonal contrast. It is both "láálà" and "lààlà" that the performers said feature from "òkè" (the sky) at their Ifá religious expedition. "Láálá" which is said to feature from the sky in the semiosphere of agbè performance is nothing else than the spectacular performances of orin agbè that the performers aimed. So the sense depicted by "...sawo lo" (to go on Ifá religious expedition) is by an expansion a metaphoric signification of agbè performance. In both orin kete and orin agbè, tonal counterpoint is among the signifiers of technical know-how of the tone use of the vocalists. Their perfect use of tonal counterpoint determines how versed they are in the songs.

5.1.3.2 Tonal distortion in orin kete and orin agbè

To create voice aesthetics, the initial word tone may be distorted. When the tone of a word is distorted, this will make the word lose its semantic meaning. When tones

are distorted in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*, there always remains a clue that helps in making meaning from the words their tones are distorted. We expatiate this while explaining examples of tonal distorted words in *orin kete* and *agbè* below.

1. Lílé:	Éèéèèèèèè!	Call:	Éèéèèèèèè!
	Ònìróókò ló bí mi ò		It was a woshipper of Ìrókò that
			gave
			birth to me
	Onírookò ló bí mi		It was a worshipper of Ìrókò that
			gave birth to me
<u>~</u> .	Igi tééré yegbó o	_	A thin tall tree beautifies the forest
Egbè:	Ònìróókò ló bí mi	Respo	nse: It was a worshipper of Írókò
	T		that gave birth to me
7./1/	Igi tééré yegbó o	C 11	A thin tall tree beautifies the forest
Lílé:	Onírookò ló bí mi	Call:	It was a worshipper of Ìrókò that
	1-: 466-6		gave birth to me
È	Igi tééré yegbó o	D	A thin tall tree beautifies the forest
Egbe:	Ònìróókò ló bí mi	Respo	nse: It was a worshipper Ìrókò that gave birth to me
	Igi tééré yegbó o		A thin tall tree beautifies the forest
2. Lílé:	E má pẹ ò ríjó mi	Call:	Do not say you did not see my dance
	Ę ò ríjó ọpệ o		You do not see the dance of praise
Ègbè:	È mà pẹ ò ríjó mi	Respon	nse: Do not say you did not see my dance
	E ò ríjó ọpé o		You do not see the dance of praise
Lílé:	E má pẹ ò ríjó mi	Call:	Do not say you did not see my dance
	E ò ríjó ọpệ o		You do not see the dance of praise
Ègbè:	È mà pẹ ò ríjó mi	Respon	1
	E ò ríjó ọpệ o		You do not see the dance of praise

The first lyric of *orin kete* is one of the songs used by the performers of the genre to show their affiliation with the $irdet{l}$ rók $irdet{o}$ deity. In the second line of the excerpt, the lead vocalist distorted the original tone of the word " $oniroidet{o}$ " (which can be directly translated as the owner of $iroidet{o}$ but actually means the worshipper of $iroidet{o}$ deity) by calling it " $irdet{o}$ niroideto." The mid-tone on the initial syllabic vowel " $irdet{o}$ " of " $irdet{o}$ ni" was distorted and changed to the low tone " $irdet{o}$ ". Similarly, the high tone on the " $irdet{o}$ " in the syllable " $irdet{n}$ " was distorted and changed to " $irdet{n}$ " to have " $irdet{o}$ ni-", instead of " $irdet{o}$ ni-" as a prefix is

added before a noun to form a new word that shows possession or ownership. When it is added to " $ir\acute{o}k\grave{o}$ " as it can be shown " $on\acute{\iota} + ir\acute{o}k\grave{o}$ ", it becomes " $on\acute{\iota} + ir\acute{o}k\grave{o} = on\acute{\iota}r\grave{o}\acute{o}k\grave{o}$ ". This denotatively means the owner of *the* $ir\acute{o}k\grave{o}$ tree but connotatively means the worshipper of the $ir\acute{o}k\grave{o}$ deity.

"Igi tééré" (a thin tall tree) which was said to befit the forest (yegbó o) in the above song is used to refer to irókò. The tall and thin features described as "igi tééré" in the song are employed here as an iconic signification of irókò. The semiotic implication in this regard is that "irókò" can be substituted with the name "igi tétéré" in the semiosphere of irókò deity worship as done by the performer of kete song above. Hence, if the sentences "Ònìróókò ló bí mi ò" (It was a worshipper of irókò that gave birth to me" and "Igi tééré yegbó o" (A thin tall tree beautifies the forest) are considered, the performers at the semiosphere of the song used their affiliation with irókò deity as pride. This is exactly what the statement "Igi tééré yegbó o" (A thin tall tree beautifies the forest) emphasises. If "oníròókò" signifies the worshipper of irókò deity and "igi tééré" iconises "irókò tree", "igbó" (forest) may then be seen as connoting society at large in which "irókò" and "oníròókò" exist. Thus, the vocalists in the above song showed off their pride as they contribute to the beauty of "igbó" (semiotically considered as a society). However, the song is a qualisign as it shows the quality of both the deity and worshippers of irókò.

The second lyric of *orin kete* is a version of the first. In the call of the song, no tone was distorted as the lead vocalist called all the words involved phonetically correct in accordance with the rule of Yorùbá grammar, "Ē má pẹ ò ríjó mi; Ē ò ríjó opé o (Do not say you did not see my dance; You do not see the dance of praise). Contrary to this, the chorus change the mid-tone on the third person plural pronoun "e" to the low tone "e". As it is evident in "Ē mà pẹ ò ríjó mi; Ē ò ríjó opé o" (Do not say you did not see my dance; You do not see the dance of praise). This is an obvious tonal distortion, though its tone in the second sentence of the response is not distorted.

Tone distortion on both lyrics of *orin kete* is intentionally done to bring about the effect of tonal counterpoint, so as to add beauty to the rhythm of the song. If the chorus should maintain the initial tone on the first line of the second *orin kete* lyric shown above, the rhythm of the song would be flat and the effect of tonal counterpoint paramount in Yorùbá oral poetry would be jeopardised. As a result, tonal distortion in both genres is a signifier of the rhythmic tune of the lyrics of the poetic genres. The lead vocalist of the first lyric was aware of this, that is why he said the distorted version

"Ònìróókò ló bí mi ò" (It was a worshipper of Ìrókò that gave birth to me) before saying the original version "Oníròókò ló bí mi ò". Another semiotic implication of this is that the lead vocalist signalled what the chorus of the song is like if actually they wished to maintain the rhythm of the song. The tonal distortion here is used to maintain the rhythm, in this regard, it is a qualisign.

Like in *orin kete*, there also exists the use of distortion in *orin agbè* though is not widely used. This is because, in all the data collected on *orin kete*, hardly could one see a lyric without an element of tonal distortion. In this regard, tonal distortion is one of the most utilised verbal aesthetics in *orin kete*. Let us look at this example of tonal distortion in *orin agbè*.

1.	Lílé:	Ómélé máa ró şàkàrá	Call:	Continue to sound sonorous <i>omele</i> , sàkàrá					
		Egúngún ló kẹsè baṣọ		It is the masquerade that wears the cloth					
	Ègbè:	Omele máa ró şàkàrá	Respon	onse: Continue to sound sonorous <i>omele</i> , <i>ṣàkàrá</i>					
		Egúngún ló kẹsệ baṣọ		It is the masquerade that wears the cloth					
	Lílé:	Ómélé máa ró şàkàrá	Call:						
		Egúngún ló kẹsệ baṣọ		It is the masquerade that wears the cloth					
	Ègbè:	Omele máa ró şàkàrá	Response: Continue to sound sonorous <i>omele</i> , <i>şàkàrá</i>						
		Egúngún ló kẹsè baṣọ		It is the masquerade that wears the cloth					
2.	Lílé:	Òyanyáríya ò	Call:	Òyanyáríya ò					
		Ájoṣàkàrá yá dé ò		The dancers of <i>ṣàkàrá</i> have come en masse					
		Ó ya déè!		They have come en masse!					
	Ègbè:	Òyanyáríya ò	Respon						
		Ájoṣàkàrá yá đé ò	-	The dancers of <i>ṣàkàrá</i> have come en masse					
	Lílé:	Ó ya déèèèè	Call:	They have come en masse!					
		Òyanyáríya ò	Respon	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·					
		Ájoṣàkàrá yá dé ò	•	The dancers of <i>ṣàkàrá</i> have come <i>en masse</i>					

In the first line of the first $agb\grave{e}$ lyric, the word " $\acute{o}m\acute{e}l\acute{e}$ ", a poetic and distorted variant of "omele" (the smallest and the foremost gourd) is mentioned. Referring to "omele" as " $\acute{o}m\acute{e}l\acute{e}$ " as done above is a form of tonal distortion. The lead vocalist intentionally varied the rhythm of his own part of the song from what the response is likely to be, this is

"Omele máa ró ṣàkàrá; Egúngún ló kẹsệ baṣọ" (Continue to sound sonorous omele, ṣàkàrá; It is the masquerade that wears the cloth) to bring about tonal counterpoint. As mentioned above, tonal distortion is employed to create tonal counterpoint.

The vocalists in the first lyric of *orin agbè* called on *omele* (the smallest and the foremost gourd) to continue to sound smoothly sonorous because it is the masquerade that wears the cloth. This is to mean that *omele* should sound melodious so that dancers at the dance arena could dance very well. In Yorùbá dance culture, the masquerade is believed to be the best dancer; *lébe* masquerade type, for example, is believed to be the best dancer. This is exactly what the vocalists symbolise when saying that "Egúngún ló keṣè baṣo" (It is the masquerade that wears the cloth). The cloth mentioned here is the costume used by masquerade to perform, i.e. dance performance. Egúngún ló keṣè baṣo" (It is the masquerade that wears the cloth) as used above is suggesting the nearness of serious performance, which would be performed by egúngún. As a result, the statement indexically signifies the imminence of serious dance.

In the second song, ajóṣàkàrá (dancer(s) of ṣàkàrá) were said to have come en masse. The vocalists distorted the mid-tone on the morpheme "a-" of ajóṣàkàrá" and replaced it with high tone "á-" to have "ájóṣàkàrá". This was intentionally done just to create tonal aesthetics. Semiotic attention is also needed to be paid to the word "Òyanyáríya". This sign is an idiophone created from the root word "ya". "Ya" can either mean to break away, deviate, rush or come en masse. It specifically means "to come en masse" if it is used together with "dé" (arrive or come) as it is in the above poetic line, "Ájoṣàkàrá yá dé ò" (The dancers of ṣàkàrá have come en masse). So, "Òyanyáríya", depicting how the ajóṣàkàrá (the dancers/performers) have arrived en masse in the lyric, is an imaginary signifier of a large number of people.

5.1.3.3 Vowel lengthening in orin kete and orin agbè

Vowels are lengthened in both *orin kete* and *orin agbè* to create verbal aesthetics. In some situations, lengthening of the vowel may result in voice vibration depending on how good the vocalist is (Ògúndèjì, 1979). Vowel lengthening, as shown in the data collected, is one of the most employed verbal aesthetic styles in both *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. Examples of vowel lengthening in *orin kete* are the ones below:

1. Lílé: Òléléééééé Call: Òléléééééé

Eni aléèkú dé. The one who has been threatened with death but remains immortal has come

Lèkúléku ò Lèkúléku ò

*Eni aléèkú dé*The one who has been threatened

with death but remains immortal

has come

Ègbè: Òlélé Response: Òlélé

Eni aléèkú dé The one who has been threatened

with death but remains immortal

has come

Lílé: Eni aléèkú dé ò The one who has been threatened

with death but remains immortal

has come

Léèkúléku ò Lèkúléku ò

*Eni aléèkú dé*The one who has been threatened

with death but remains immortal

has come

Ègbè: Òlélé Response: Òlélé

*Eni aléèkú dé*The one who has been threatened

with death but remains immortal

has come

2. Lílé: E mà jọójà mí ó run òòò Call: Do not let this market perish

Ojà tÓlúwa dá òòò The market founded by God

Ègbè: È mà jóójà mí ó run Response: Do not let this market

perish

Ojà tÓlúwa dá o The market founded by

God

Lílé: E mà jóójà mí ó run òòò Call: Do not let this market perish

Ojà tÓlúwa dá òòò The market founded by God

Ègbè: È mà jóójà mí ó run Response: Do not let this market

perish

*Ojà tÓlúwa dá o*The market founded by

God

As obvious in the lyrics of *kete* song shown above, there is evidence of vowel lengthening. In the first lyric, the word "*Òléléééééé*" of the first line of the song, is a poetic form of "*òlélé*" in the response, which is described as a signifier of winning/victory in the previous analysis. The lead vocalist lengthened the last syllabic vowel of the word "*é*" with a high tone, which is the initial tone of the vowel. This was done intentionally. First of all, when the last vowel of a word is lengthened, it is used to emphasise either the word in particular or the whole sentence. In the case "*Òlélééééééé*", it is the noun "*òlélé*" the lengthening is used to emphasise. In another sense, the whole lyric is an incantatory prayer used by the performer to pray for victory over their enemy. If this is the case, the word "*Òlélééééééé*" could then be considered an invocation which is mentioned by Olátúnjí (1985) and Ògúndèjì (1991 and 2020) as the foremost feature

of Yorùbá incantation. "Òlélééééééé" in this regard is a symbolic signifier of an invocatory element that would make the performers conquer their enemy.

In the second lyric, the lead vocalist like in the first lyric also lengthened the vowel at the end of the sentence "Ē mà jóójà mí ó run òòò" (Do not let this market perish). The vowel lengthening in this lyric is different from the one in the first lyric. What makes the difference is that lengthened vowel "ò" is neither the last word of the sentence nor the vowel of any word in the sentence; it is brought in as an additional element primarily for emphatic purpose. This makes it easy for it to be removed from the sentence without affecting its original meaning as in "Ē mà jóójà mí ó run" (Do not let this market perish). An attempt to delete the final "ê" of "òlélé will end up in losing the meaning of the word. This further reiterates that vowel lengthening in the first lyric is focused on the word "òlélê" while the one in the second lyric is focused at the whole sentence "Ē mà jóójà mí ó run". Lengthening the vowels in the above lyrics of kete is primarily voice aesthetics. This is because it adds more to the melodies of the lyrics of the song.

The performers in the second lyric of *orin kete* requested that people should not let their market perish "E mà jóójà mí ó run" (Do not let this market perish). This statement makes it seems the performer is selling something or they own a marketplace. Denotatively, the word "ojà" could mean either "a marketplace" or "a sellable product". However, the performers could not mean a marketplace because the market which they said is God created "Ojà tÓlúwa dá o" (The market founded by God) is more related to their product "performance of orin kete" than the actual market where good is sold. If the verb "dá" (created) in "dá ojà" (found a marketplace) and "dá egbé (kete)" (found a group i.e. kete performance group) are considered, the same verb "dá" (to found or to create) is used. This also shows more interrelationship between the word "ojà" and the word "egbé" (most especially, a money-making group like a secular orin kete performance group). In this wise, "ojà" as used in the above kete excerpt is metonymic symbolising agbè performance group and it is the group the performers appealed to the people to not let it perish.

As mentioned earlier, we can see the examples of vowel lengthening in the lyrics of *orin agbè* below:

1. Lílé: Agogo ń ró oooo? Àbí ò ró ooooo? Kèngbè ooo

Ègbè: Agogo ń ró ooo

Call: Gong is sounding aloud
Or does it not sound aloud?
Oh the gourd!

Response: Gong is sounding aloud

Àbí ò ró ooooo? Kèngbè ooo Or does it not sound aloud? Oh the gourd!

2. Lílé: Ó di pòrò omi bóóó

Ómộ ò ríyàá ệ mộ

Omi ń se pòrò ooo

Ègbè: Ó di pòrò omi bóóó Ómó ò ríyàá è mó

Omi ń se pòrò ooo

Call: It becomes shedding tears quickly

The child does not see his mother

Tear is shed quickly

Ègbè: It becomes shedding tears quickly

The child does not see his mother

Tear is shed quickly

In the first, second and the third lines of the call and response of the above first $agb\grave{e}$ lyric " $Agogo \acute{n} r\acute{o} oooo; \grave{A}b\acute{i} \grave{o} r\acute{o} ooooo?; K\grave{e}\grave{n}gb\grave{e} ooo (Gong is sounding aloud; Or does it not sound aloud?; Oh the gourd), the high tone vowel sounds "o" is lengthened to have "<math>oooo$ ". The lengthened vowels "oooo" do not only emphasise the whole sentences in the above $orin \ agb\grave{e}$, but they are also as well used as tonal aesthetic. The order of arrangement of the musical instruments of $agb\grave{e}$ song, agogo (gong) and $agb\grave{e}$ (gourd) mentioned above signifies ascending order in which the ensemble of kete is played. Thus, the lyric is a qualisign because it prescribes the order of realising a perfect melodious $agb\grave{e}$ orchestra.

The second is an elegiac lyric of $agb\grave{e}$ song. The vowel " \acute{o} " of the syllable " $b\acute{o}$ ", to mean drop but connotatively means shedding tears in the sentence " \acute{O} di $p\grave{o}r\grave{o}$ omi $b\acute{o}\acute{o}\acute{o}$ " (It becomes shedding tears quickly) is lengthened, as well as the vowel "o" of the sentence "Omi \acute{n} se $p\grave{o}r\grave{o}$ ooo" (Tear is shed quickly). If the sentences " \acute{O} di $p\grave{o}r\grave{o}$ omi $b\acute{o}\acute{o}\acute{o}$ " and "Omi \acute{n} se $p\grave{o}r\grave{o}$ ooo" should be denotatively translated, the result would be "It becomes quick dropping of water" and "Water is dropping quickly". "Omi" which is directly translated as the water here is not actual water but tear. The vocalists chose not to call tear its Yorùbá name, " $omij\acute{e}$ " because they do not want to add more to the sorrow of the poetic object "omo" (the child, who out of loss of his mother sheds tear). The deployment of "omi" as " $omij\acute{e}$ " is euphemistic. "Omi" (water) as used to signify tear(s) in the lyric is an iconic metonymy.

5.1.3.4 Voice vibration in orin kete and orin agbè

As we have mentioned above, Ògúndèjì (1979: 81) explains that "at the hand of a good singer, vowel lengthening- especially at the final position- provides an opportunity for vibration of voice". Vowel lengthening is instrumental in veritable for voice vibration. Some other sources of voice vibration both in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are voice modulation, tonal distortion, tonal counterpoint, guttural voice style and

nasalised voice style (predominantly in *orin agbè* and *orin kete* respectively). Considering the above lyric of *kete* "Òléléééééé; Omo aléèkú dé (Òléléééééé; The child of the one who has been threatened with death but remains immortal has come), there exists a vowel lengthening; in the course of lengthening the vowel, the lead vocalist at the performance context vibrated his voice. The vibration continued in the second line of the call where the vocalist distorted the original low tone of the initial morpheme "à-" of the word "aléèkû" (the one who has been threatened with death but remains immortal) and replaced it with mid-tone morpheme "a-" purposively to maintain the lengthened vibrated rhythm. Similarly in the *kete* lyric "Ē mà jóójà mí ó run òòò; Ojà tÓlúwa dá òòò (Do not let this market perish; The market founded by God), the emphatic vowel "o" distorted and lengthened to realise "òòò" in the sentences of the call does not only gave an effective voice lengthening but also give an effect of voice vibration.

The same thing occurs in the above lyric of orin agbè "Agogo ń ró ooo; Åbí ò ró ooooo?; Kèṅgbè ooo" (Gong is sounding aloud; Or does it not sound aloud?; Oh the gourd) and "Ó di pòrò omi bóóó; Ómó ò ríyàá è mó; Omi ń ṣe pòrò ooo" (It becomes shedding tears quickly; the child does not see his mother; Tear is shed quickly). The emphatic vowel "o" which was distorted and lengthened as "ooo" in both lyrics is the same as explained above on orin kete. Another vowel "o" of the syllable "bo" (drop) is lengthened as "bóóoo". However, the vowel is not only lengthened but also vibrated. The vibration of the vowel "oóoo" in "bóóoo" is not only for voice aesthetics but also a verbal symbolic signification of sympathy developed by the vocalists for the loss of the poetic object's (omo: child) mother. In both genres, voice vibration is a sign of the quality of good voicing capacity of the vocalists.

5.1.3.5 Nasalised voicing in orin kete and orin agbè

In the languages of the world, vowel sounds could either be nasal or non-nasal sounds. Apart from vowel sounds, syllabic consonants /n/ and /m/ are also nasal sounds. The data collected in both *orin kete* and *orin agbè* show that the vocalists of the genres consider these syllabic nasal consonants just as how they use them in their daily conversations. However, the vocalists of *agbè* and *kete* genres at times nasalise non-nasal sounds for either dialectical or aesthetic purposes. Ògúndèjì (1979) and Àlàbá (1985) have these examples in *orin agbè*. Dialectical examples of the nasalised vowels in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are shown in the lyric bewlow.

1. Lílé: Kín la ó maa fòní jú o Call: What would we use today

to pay

Ègbè: Ìnbà la ó máa fòní jú ò Response: It is homege we would use

today to pay *Ìnbà ò* It is homage

Lílé: Kín la ó maa fòní jú o Call: What would we use today

to pay

Ègbè: Ìnbà la ó máa fòní jú ò Response: It is homage we would use

today to pay It is homage

Ìnbà ò

Mo lójò ló ín bò o

Alágbè ló ín bò o

2. Lilé: Párá tí mo gbộ o Call: When I heard párá

I said rain is approaching

Ègbè: Òjò kọ́ o Response: It is not rain

It is *alágbè* that is

approaching (Ògúndèjì, 1979:15)

The first excerpt is a lyric of *kete* song and the second is a lyric of $agb\grave{e}$ song. In the lyric of $orin\ kete$, the first excerpt above, the vowel "i" in " $ib\grave{a}$ " (homage) is nasalised to sound " $inb\grave{a}$ " in the sentence " $inb\grave{a}$ la \acute{o} máa $f\grave{o}n\acute{i}$ $j\acute{u}$ \grave{o} ; $inb\grave{a}$ \grave{o} " (It is homage we would use today to pay; It is homage). Likewise in the $orin\ agb\grave{e}$, the second excerpt above, the initial syllabic continuous aspect marker " \acute{n} " is changed to " $\acute{i}n$ " with the introduction of the vowel "i" in the sentence "inb" in inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb inb i

On the other hand, the vocalist of *orin kete* at times nasalises for aesthetic purpose. This is a situation whereby the vocalist just decides to nasalise all the vowel sounds in a lyric of *kete* but which such nasalisation is not dialectic, the nasalisation is done to bring about the melody of the songs. In all the data collected on *orin kete*, only one lead vocalist sang in this style but not all the time because he could not maintain the pace for long. This second style of nasalisation is not commonplace in *orin agbè* since all the data collected in Ìbàràpá and Òkè Ògùn do not show this. As a result, nasalisation in the genres is either dialectical or aesthetic signification.

5.1.3.6 Guttural voicing in orin kete and orin agbè

One of the voice aesthetics in *orin agbè* is guttural voicing style. In this situation, the vocalists of *orin agbè* produce deep loud sounds from their throats like the Yorùbá masquerade style of speaking. The mode of the utterance produced during this period is usually speech mode. In all the data collected on *orin kete*, there is no evidence of such

style of poetic projection. What actually accounts for this is the religious solemnity use of *orin kete* at its initial stage which is still present in the performance of the genre. The performance of *orin kete* is usually organised and topical oriented which may not give room for the use of language in a manner that is not related to Alárá-Igbó religious doctrine. We have cited an example of guttural voice projection under the mode of poetic utterances in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* above. The example is the data represented below:

Lílé: Ajómáwolé ó dà bíi kórò má lo Call: Ajómáwolé, it seems Orò should not go Response: Àlàké, it seems Orò Ègbè: Àlàké ó dà bíi kórò má lo should not go (An intersperse guttural speech mode voice of a performer came in) Ohùn: Éèè, á òòòò... Voice: Éèè, á òòòò... Α΄ όὸόόὸὸὸ... Α΄ όὸόόὸὸὸ... Gong ooo... Agogo ooo... Éèèèèèèèè... Éèèèèèèèè... Ó vá máa bò Now come over here Máa bò Come over here A wá seré fún e ni We come to perform for you Bó bàtàá lè Remove your footwear Ó yá, ó yá Let do it Áààààà Áàààààà Lílé: Ajómáwolé ó dà bíi kórò má lo Call: Ajómáwolé, it seems Orò should not go

Ègbè: Àlàké ó dà bíi kórò má lọ Response: Àlàké, it seems Orò should not go

The performer who interspersed with speech mode utterance, which was tagged "ohùn" (voice) in the above lyric of orin agbè, deployed guttural voice to project the poetic lines. Though the interjection is rendered in speech, it does not affect the rhythm of the song. This is because, as a master of the agbè song, he understood how this could be done perfectly. The poetic utterances are used to direct and coordinate other performers in the performance space. It has been explained also under the mode of utterances in orin kete and orin agbè above that the Orò deity mentioned in the line of the lyric accounts for the selection of this verbal aesthetic voice style. Thus, the guttural voice style in this performance semiosphere is an argument (a sign of reason). Besides, the voice style as used in the performance context of the above agbè lyric is an iconic signification of the deity of Orò.

5.1.3.7 Humming in orin kete and orin agbè

The data collected on *orin kete* do not have prominent examples of humming. This as said under guttural voicing style is influenced by religious doctrine and practices of Alárá-Igbó which orin kete is attributed to. So, humming is not common in the use of language in the worship of Alárá-Igbó deity. It has been mentioned by Ògúndèjì (1979) that humming is part of the style and technique in vocal performance in *orin kete*. This according to Ògúndèjì is done when the lead vocalist hums to "provide a sort of relief" for himself, "especially when he is getting out of breath" (pg. 96). An example of this according to Ògúndèjì is the lyric of *orin agbè* below:

Ègbè: Àrà ìn bá da lọ dá It is the style I would have Chorus:

performed that you

performed

Lílé: Unùn ùn ún ún un ún Leader: Unùn ùn ún ún un ún Ègbè: Àrà ìn bá dá lo dá Chorus:

It is the style I would have

performed that you

performed (pg. 96)

Converging with Ògúndèjì, humming is also guttural because it does not give room for mouth opening which makes it possible to produce sounds with the back of the throat. Apart from this, paying close attention to some instrumentalists among the agbè performance group of Igbó-Orà reveals that many of them hum when playing the gourd. What we find out from the performers as regards this is that it required energy to play the type of gourd they used. This is because, the agbè used by this group were not enmeshed, the beads or seeds that would have been used to enmesh the gourds were put inside. This makes it a bit more difficult to play than an enmeshed gourd. To realise the required rhythm, the instrumentalist at a time needed to hum. Similarly, the dancers hummed to keep by the rhythm. This is done silently and lot aloud. We get to know all this through our discussion with them on how they maintained the rhythm from the beginning to the end. Consequently, humming is not only for aesthetic but also for technical purpose. Hence, humming is a sign of attainment of a quality agbè rhythm; however, a qualisign.

Semiotics of communication styles in orin kete and orin agbè 5.1.4

The communication styles in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are the ways the performers of these genres communicate either to one another or with their immediate audience. These could be discussed under three broad categories: dialogue styles, call and responses styles and thematic preoccupations. Call and responses and thematic preoccupations in these genres are considered styles of communication because they are capable of performing communication functions.

5.1.4.1 Semiotics of dialogue styles in orin kete and orin agbè

Under this subheading, we discussed the dialogue styles in orin agbè first. Àlàbá's (1985) investigation reveals a subsection related to this. Though Àlàbá (1985) does not call it a dialogue style directly, what he discusses under the subheading "Other Sayings in *Orin agbè*", (p. 185) is simply call and response styles in *orin agbè*. Àlàbá (1985) expatiates that dialogue, which he calls utterances in orin agbè, can be grouped into three major categories. The first is utterances from artist to artist, the second is utterances from artists to the member(s) of the audience and the third, utterances from member(s) of the audience to the artists. An utterance from artist to artist could either be from the lead vocalist to agbè-players (agbè instrumentalists), from the lead vocalist to the chorus and utterances from the agbè-player/chorus to the lead vocalist. The second, from artists to members of the audience, according to Alàbá (1985), could occur when the lead vocalist calls a member of the audience by name to create rapport or by directing questions or requests to the audience. The third category which is utterances from member(s) of the audience to the artists may come as a response to greetings, verbal salutes or supplications, it could also be an answer to a specific question as well as interpolation.

In this study, it is observed that Àlàbá's (1985) categorisation of dialogue styles in *orin agbè* can be reorganised under two broad categories. The second and the third categories (utterances from artists to members of the audience and members of the audience to the artists) can be put under one broad category. This is best represented in the Plate 5.1 below:

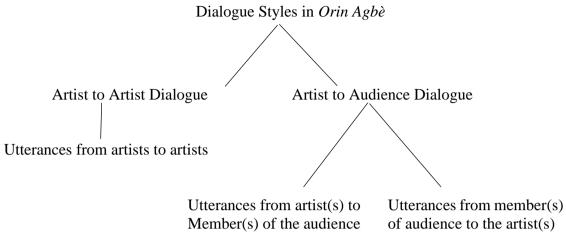


Fig. 5.1 Dialogue styles in orin agbè

The reason why the second and the third categories is combine is that they are almost the same thing. The dialogues that occur in both are not restricted to the members of the performance group. It includes the members of the audience. The dialogue can be either motivated by members of the performance group or members of the audience. Dialogue from artist to artist takes a different form. This could be from the lead vocalist to either the instrumentalist(s) or the chorus. It can also be directed by the member(s) of the instrumentalists or chorus to the lead vocalist. The content could be a question, an answer, a challenge, a motivational speech, a precaution, a greeting or a response to greetings, among others. It must also be mentioned here that these could be rendered in speech, chant, song and instrumental modes. This is because *orin agbè* and *orin kete* have attributes of all the communicative modes mentioned above.

The dialogues from artist to artist are very common in *orin agbè*. In this type of dialogue, an artist converses with another artist during presentation. It is important to note that most of what happen in $is\dot{e}l\dot{u}$ section of *orin agbè* constitute dialogues from artist to artist. Let us look at the example of a dialogue that constitutes a mixture of song and speech poetic modes in *orin agbè* below:

Lílé: Ijó ilé e gùn e o Call: You are moved to dance by your matanal homestead muse Ègbè: Tilé ìyá e lò ń șe Response: You belong to your mother's house Lílé: Ijó ilé e gùn e o Call: You are moved to dance by your maternal homestead muse Ègbè: Tilé ìyá e lò ń șe You belong to your Response: mother's house So ó lé jó o èeè? Lílé: Call: Oh! Can you dance? Ègbè: Oò le jó o èéè Oh you cannot dance? Response: Lílé: Şo ó lé jó o èeè? Call: Oh! Can you dance? Égbè: O ò le jó o èéè Oh! You cannot dance? Response: Can you dance like one with Şo ó le jó bíi olóhùn agbè ò? Call: gourd's voice? Ègbè: O ò le jó bíi olóhùn agbè ò Response: You can't dance like one with gourd's voice Lílé: So ó le jó bíi Lángabà ò? Can you dance like Lángabà? Call: Ègbè: O ò le jó bíi Lángabà ò You can't dance like Response: Lángabà

(The main dancer faced the lead vocalist and one of the chorus/gong player)

Oníjó: Ìkà lèyin yìí Dancer: Both of you are wicked

(A female performer backed him and said)

Elégbè: E jé kó le yín níléè! Member of the chorus: Let him chase you out of

your father's house if you are not a real son of the

house!

(The gong player laughed)

Aláago: E kú ọr o ilé o Gong player: Thanks for uphoding our

family tradition

Gbogbo Òṣèré: Ḥ kú ọrọ ilé o All performers: Thanks for uphoding

our family tradition

In the above dialogue rendered in song mode, there is a challenge whereby the lead vocalist challenged the main dancer that the muse of his mother's dance style has stimulated him. This statement was completed by the chorus pointing to the main dancer that he belonged to his mother's house and not their father's house. This is a dialogue that involves three sets of $agb\grave{e}$ performers. They are the vocalists, the dancers and the drummers. Saying someone belongs to his/her mother's home and not his/her father's means many things in the Yorùbá cultural setting. One among such meanings is that the person is a bastard. There are many Yorùbá wise sayings to back-up patriarchal right of ownership of child over the mothers. Some of these are:

i.	Òkè òkú lòkú ń rè baba ọmọ ló lọ́mọ́	The dead one goes to its mountain,
		it is one's father that owns him/her
ii.	A kì í gbàkàtà lọwọ akítì, a kì í gbalé	No one can chase chimpanzee out
		of its
	baba ọmọ lówó ọmọ	domain as no one can take away
		someone father's house from
		him/her
iii.	Qmọ àlè níí fọwó òsì júwe ilé baba rè	It is a bastard that describes the
		address of his/her father's house
		using the left hand

Thus, calling someone a child of his/her mother's home signifies that he/she is of questionable paternity. Having heard that his vocalist challenged him to engage in his mother's dancing style, which technically means he was not dancing in the way their forefathers danced to the gourd, the dancer changed his dancing step and started dancing harder to prove that he was not a bastard as being insinuated but a real son of his paternal family. When the dancer saw that the lead vocalist and other performers were not sincere with their claims and that they just wanted him to dance harder which might affect him due to his advanced age, he replied them by saying, "Both of you are wicked". He deduced the actual intention of the vocalists challenging him from their question "Ṣo ớ le jó bíi Lángabà ò?" (Can you dance like Lángabà?). There is a historical account behind the poetic character of Lángabà (the legendary agbè dancer). He is the one also

referred to as *olóhùn agbè* (someone who has a gourd-like voice). It was narrated that he was a main dancer of *agbè* when Òla was the lead vocalist. Òla was the first *agbè* player of Ajóṣàkàrá Compound in Igbó-Ọrà. Lángabà was with Òlà when he went on a performance at Ìdèrè where he died and never returned home. So, Lángabà is the best dancer of *agbè* (gourd), whose dance can never be compared with anyone else's.

Lángabà as used in the above poetic lines is semiotic cliché. This is because Lángabà is an agreeable as the best dancer of agbè for a very long time ago. It is, therefore, also a historical sign. Using it to measure the dance proficiency of a performer hence signifies the best level of agbè dancing skills. It is also a sign of stimulation to the dancer. The belief is that if a dancer cannot dance like Lángabà, such a dancer is not a good dancer of agbè song, probably he is a bastard and not a real son/daughter of the family. The song about Lángabà's dexterous dancing style as implicit in the context of the dialogue is that Lángabà died on a dancing tour. He never came back home alive (àjádeèwolé). The vocalist singing for the fairly elderly man wanted him to dance harder to the point he would harm himself or even to the point of death like Lángabà, if possible. The dancer understood this and he quickly responded by calling them wicked souls.

There is also artist to artist(s) dialogue in *orin kete*, whether in religious or secular performances. These may be from the vocalists to either the drummers or the dancers. It can as well come from either the drummers or dancers to the vocalists. In a situation where the dancer is also the lead vocalist, he/she communicates as much as possible with other performers. The communication can be either a verbal utterance, a drumbeat or a bodily language. The example below is a mixture of speech poetic mode and drum poetry.



Plate 5.2 The dancer dialogues with the drummer on stand during the performance of *orin kete*

The picture was taken by the researcher at Arísányán compound, Ìdòfin, Igbó-Ọrà on 18/8/2018.

*Ìyá Ìlù Bệnbệ: Bèbè ìdí ó wà níbệ*Bènbệ Motherly Drum: Waist beed is there

Bó bá dà bí iró

E vè é wò

You can confirm it

(There was a dancer that danced to this drumbeat, she responded by using her left hand to touch her buttock and the right hand to touch her stomach simultaneously to follow the rhythm of the drumbeat. Suddenly, the drummer changed the style and the dancer replied him verbally as he spoke with the drum.)

Ìlù:E má fabe ìfárí ṣeréDrum Beat:Do not play with a razorOníjó:BíléèdìDancer:Blade

Ìlù: Omo Apébiowó Drum Beat: The offspring of Apébiowó

Oníjó: O ò Dancer: Yes!

Ìlù: Oò níí mòṣì Drum Beat: You will not know poverty

Oníjó: Aṣe... Dancer: Amen...

Ìlù: O ò níí dìdàkudà Drum Beat: You will not turn bad

Oníjó: Àmín o Dancer: Amen

Ìlù:Eni ẹlệni kò níí...Drum Beat:Another person will not...Oníjó:Kò níi gbàṣe mi ṣeDancer:Reap the fruit of my labourÌlù:Omo ApébiowóDrum Beat:The offspring of Apébiowó

Oníjó: Ó òòò... Dancer: Yes!

Ìlù: Orí eni mà ló ń yọni Drum: It is one's head that saves

one

Orí eni mà ló ń yọni It is one's head that saves

one

Awon méjèjì: Both the drum beat and the dancer:

Ènìyàn ò féni fórò Human beings do not want one

to be rich

Bí ò sorí eni Only one's head does

Orí eni mà ló ń yoni It is one's head that saves one

The drummer and the dancer in the above section of performance engaged each other in a dialogue that contains wise sayings about the sharpness of the blade which iconises the baleful characteristics of the poetic subject identified as omo Apébíowó (offspring of Apébíowó). This was followed by the prayer for the subject and lastly religious sayings about the inner head protection of human beings in general. The observation about the inner head's guidance connotatively alludes to the poetic subject. The dancer, who was the subject of the conversation, responded to the drum conversation and sometimes she joined the drummer in completing the conversation. Apart from being part and parcel of the praise/panegyric of the subject, it must be stated here that the dialogue, like how it occurs in other Yorùbá oral poetry, is a sign of cooperation and

coherence in the performance of the genre. The dialogue among the artists could be a discussion on social, religious, economic and other aspects of life.

The dialogue by an artist with members of the audience is the second category of dialogue in *orin agbè*. This is also found in *orin kete*. As our findings reveal, dialogue with members of the audience both in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* can be divided into two. The first is the utterances from the member(s) of the artists to the audience. The second is the utterances from the member of the audience to member(s) of the artists. The examples of these are in the excerpts below.

Mo wà nílé Lágùnkè I am at Lágùnkè's house Lílé: Call: The offspring of Fijàbí Omo Fìjàbí Ègbè: É è mo gbà Response: Yes, I agree Gbogbo yín tệ e dúró Everybody standing A wà nílé Lágùnkè We are at Lágunkè's house Lílé: Call: Gbogbo yín tệ e dúró Everybody standing Ègbè: É è mo gbà Response: Yes, I agree Gbogbo yín tệ e dúró Everybody standing Ìṣàré: Şé kí n yílù po? Chant: Should I change the style of mv drum? Or should I not change it? Àbí ki mámà yílù po?

(An audience replied the second lead vocalist, who was also the main dancer)

Ònwòran: Má tí ì yílù po árá An Audience: Do not change it now

Máa bá eré lọ Continue the

performance Ìṣàré: Ṣókù díệ gin-ín-gín? Chant: Does it remain a little?

Ó n gbé mi lókàn fúkéfúké

I am seriously longing for it

(The first/lead singer interfered with a song)

Lílé: Nínó òṣèré Igbó-Orà Call: Among the artists in Igbó

Nínó òṣèré Igbó-Ọrà Among the artists in Igbó

Orà

Olórin ńlá lajókete Kete dancers are notable

musicians
Nínó òṣèré Igbó-Ọrà
Among the artists in Igbó

. . O . Orà

*Ègbè: Olórin ńlá lajókete*Response: *Kete* dancers are notable musicians

Nínó òṣèré Igbó-Ọrà Among the artists in Igbó

Ōrà

The above dialogue is an example of an artist to audience form of dialogue. At the initial stage of the excerpt, the second lead vocalist, who was also the main dancer that wore $y \dot{e} r i$ (*Kete* dancer's gown/skirt) opened the discussion in the above excerpt. He informed the audience that the place they were was Lágùnkè's house. After this, he asked the audience whether he should change the pattern of the performance but a member of the audience answered that he should not change it yet but continue with the style. The dialogue above is motivated by the artist. He did this to consider the interests of his audience and to keep their indulgence. Oral artists do appreciate the impacts of their audience, they appreciate their loyalty towards them. Most a time, oral artists pray for their audience. This often occurs in *ekún iyàwó* (Yorùbá nuptial poetry) and also in *iyèrè ifá* (*Ifá* chant).

On the other hand, the dialogue can be opened by the audience in form of appreciation, challenge, warning, information, reward, correction and encouragement among others. This form of dialogue is what we refer to as utterances from member(s) of the audience to the artist(s). This form of dialogue is the opposite of the form we just discussed because of the direction of communication. The following examples are from *orin agbè* song:

```
Lílé: Ajómáwolé ó dà bíi kórò má lo
                                                  Call: Ajómáwolé, it seems Orò
                                                          should not go
Ègbè: Àlàké ó dà bíi kórò má lo
                                                 Response: Àlàké, it seems Orò
                                                          should not go
(An intersperse guttural speech mode voice of a performer came in)
Ohùn: Éèè, á òòòò...
                                                  Voice: Éèè, á òòòò...
        \hat{A} \hat{\phi}\hat{\phi}\hat{\phi}\hat{\phi}\hat{\phi}\hat{\phi}...
                                                          \hat{A} \hat{\phi}\hat{\phi}\hat{\phi}\hat{\phi}\hat{\phi}\hat{\phi}...
                                                          Gong 000...
        Agogo ooo...
        Éèèèèèèèè...
                                                          Éèèèèèèèè...
        Ó yá máa bò
                                                          Now come over here
        Máa bò
                                                          Come over here
        A wá seré fún e ni
                                                          We come to perform for
                                                          you
        Bộ bàtàá lệ
                                                          Remove your footwear
        Ó yá, ó yá
                                                          Let do it
        Áàààààà
                                                          Áàààààà
                                                          Ajómáwolé, it seems Orò
Lílé: Ajómáwolé ó dà bíi kórò má lo
                                                 Call:
                                                          should not go
Ègbè: Àlàké ó dà bíi kórò má lọ
                                                 Response: Àlàké, it seems Orò
```

(Another interspersed speech mode roaring voice of another performer came in as he began to dance with force)

should not go

Ohùn: Họộ
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Èmi fé jíjó ilé wa lónìí o I want to dance the

traditional dance of our

family today

(The below is an intersperse of a voice of a woman who was one of the audience, the woman was a housewife but was not part of the performance at the particular time)

Ohùn: Rọra máa jó! Voice: Take it easy!

Àni o rọra máa jó! I said you should dance

gently!

Ohùn: Ηρὸρὸρὸρὸ Voice: Ηρὸρὸρὸρὸ

Olórin: Àní o rọra máa jó ló wí Lead Vocalist: She said you should

dance gently

Ohùn: E kóbè Voice: Leave that place

Ηοὸὸὸὸὸ Ηοὸὸὸὸὸ

The scene of the above dialogue is actually started by the dancer who danced as if he was in trance. The way he dances caught the attention of an audience, a woman, who cautioned the dancer that he should dance gently. The performer that was dancing was not the main dancer and he was not skilled in dancing to the beat of the song. He intentionally danced the way he danced to create laughter and to attract people's attention to himself. He achieved his desire but when his dance was getting too much, the woman in the dialogue called his attention to it that he should dance with ease. The dancer replied indirectly by repeating the sound " $Ho\dot{\rho}\dot{\rho}\dot{\rho}\dot{\rho}\dot{\rho}\dot{\rho}$ " to show that he did not follow the advice given to him. Instead of taking it, he warned people to leave and gave him enough space so as to dance the more ($E \dot{\rho}\dot{\rho}\dot{\rho}\dot{\rho}\dot{\rho}$, to mean leave the space). The interjection and interpolation of voices in this kind of dialogue is a social sign signifying a peaceful co-existence among agbè performers, also between them and their audience.

5.1.4.2 Semiotics of call and response in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*

According to Olúkòjú (1985), there are three major patterns of singing. These are solo singing, choral singing and antiphonal singing. Solo is a singing pattern where a single vocalist performs a song. On the other hand, in choral singing, the song is sung by a choir, that is, the voicing of a song is done by two or more people simultaneously. These two patterns of singing are not independently realisable in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*, they are rather realised as part and parcel of the antiphonal pattern of singing. The third singing pattern (antiphonal) is the only one that predominates in the performance of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. According to Olúkòjú (1985), the Yorùbá antiphonal (call-and-response) song takes the following forms:

- i. The leader initiates a theme and the chorus finishes by joining the leader to sing the rest of the trend of the theme.
- ii. The refrain form, in which the lead vocalist varies his own part, bringing in a new theme each time while the chorus sings a constant refrain.
- iii. The chorus repeats the lead vocalist's part in full.
- iv. The chorus repeats only a portion of the lead vocalist's part.
- v. The chorus part is longer in form than the lead part (containing the whole of the lead part and additional element(s)).
- vi. The chorus gives different responses to the lead vocalist's different calls.
- vii. Long utterances by the lead vocalist followed by a short refrain and
- viii. Poetic combat between the lead vocalist and the chorus.

Olúkòjú (1985) has discussed these eight obvious patterns of call and response in Yorùbá songs. For the purpose of brevity and avoidance of redundancy, some of these categorisations can be merged. For instance, the first, fifth and sixth response styles are either comments or complements to the statements of the lead vocalist. As a result, the three can be reclassified as complementary call and response styles. In the same vein, the third which is the chorus repeating the lead vocalist's part and the fourth, the chorus repeating only a portion of the lead vocalist's part are both repetitive in orientation. Because of their repetitious features, they can be termed repetitive call and response. These could either be a full repetition call and response or a partial repetition call and response. Olúkòjú's (1985) second category of Yorùbá antiphonal singing can be termed mono-refrain call and response. And lastly, Olúkòjú's (1985) seventh form of call and response in Yorùbá song is more or less the song that comes after a long chant in Yorùbá oral poetry. Oftentimes, the last lines of the chant are usually rendered in song mode which the chorus can respond to. Response of this kind is determined by the nature of the statements of voicing the very last lines of a chant. This can take any of the forms of the above-mentioned call and response styles. The identified call and response styles from the above interrrogation of Olúkòjú's (1985) are complementary, repetitive, monorefrain and poetic combat call and response.

Ògúndèjì (1979) does not specifically discuss call and response styles in *orin* agbè, rather he discusses some features in *orin* agbè under the subtopic "Styles and techniques in vocal performance" (93) of *orin* agbè. The styles of vocal performance discussed by Ògúndèjì (1979) which may be considered as call and response styles are evident in the following statement: "the leader at times joins the chorus singers in singing

the last line before going to say it in his next line", "one of the chorus singers may join the leader in singing his line" and lastly, "instead of singing his line, the leader can either hum or keep silent" (93-97). Àlàbá (1985) also does not examine call and response style in *orin agbè* in detail. Part of what he discusses under speech style in the genre may, however, be seen as the call and response style of the oral poetic type. These are repetitive solo-refrain singing, interspersed with speech/recitation and repetitive solo-refrain singing interspersed with chanted utterances and spoken utterances. In our analysis here, we discuss the call and response pattern in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* making use of Olùkòjú's (1985) typology as reclassified above. Our emphasis in ensuring detailed discussion is focused on the semiotic implications of the call and response patterns identified.

1.4.2.1 Complementary call and response

The three patterns of complementary call and response identified above can be concisely renamed chorus completing of leader's part, chorus repeating and adding to leader's part and different leader's different chorus part.

5.1.4.2.1.1 Chorus completing leader's part

The complementary type of chorus completing the leader's part is not common in the religious songs of *orin kete*. It is, however, common in the secular type of *kete* songs.

1.	Lílé:	Ų	konrin,	ę j	taya	sil	ė	rel	ė	àlè	0
----	-------	---	---------	-----	------	-----	---	-----	---	-----	---

Ègbè: Bò ba jệ bệệ ló yẹ yín o Lílé: E faya sílé relé àlè o

Ègbè: Bò ba jệ bệệ ló yẹ yín o

2. Lílé: Èyin abímomáto

Ègbè: Òrò é dòla

Lílé: Èyin abímomáto

Ègbè: Òrò é dòla

Call: You men, continue leaving your wives at home to the concubines' houses

Response: If that befits you?

Call: You men, continue leaving your wives at home to the concubines' houses

Response: If that befits you?

Call: You parents that do not train

your children

Response: Your regret will come

tomorrow

Call: You parents that do not train

your children

Response: Your regret will come

tomorrow

In the above excerpts, the lead singer initiated the theme of the songs in the calls which were completed by the chorus. The fact that the chorus was able to harmoniously complement the lead part is an indexical signification of proper planning and rehearsals that had preceded the performance.

The type of complementing lead and response under discussion is more common in *orin agbè* than *orin kete*. The excerpts below are examples of this style of call and response from *orin agbè*.

1.	Ègbè: Lílé:	Yánbíolú ndeè Ogun tó lọ o Yánbíolú ǹ de è Ogun tó lọ o	Call: Response: Call: Response:	Arise, Yánbíolú It is time for war Arise, Yánbíolú It is time for war
2.	Lílé:	Olóbìírípobírí	Call:	Turning round and round
	Ègbè:	Òní la ó maléré	Response:	We shall know the performer today
	Lílé:	Olóbìírípobírí	Call:	Turning round and round
	Ègbè:	Òní la ó maléré	Response:	We shall know the performer today
3.	Lílé:	Ìyàwó agbè ò	Call:	The wife of <i>àgbè</i>
	Ègbè:	Bó șe dára lộ mộ ộn jó	Response:	As beatiful as she is, she can also dance
	Lílé:	Ìyàwó agbè ò	Call:	The wife of <i>àgbè</i>
	Ègbè:	Bó șe dára lộ mộ ộn jó	Response:	As beatiful as she is, she can also dance
	Lílé:	Àșoo le tàkìtì o	Call:	So, you cannot somersault
	Ègbè:	Ijó lộ mộ ộn jó	Response:	You can only dance
	Lílé:	Àșoo le tàkìtì o	Call:	So, you cannot somersault
	Ègbè:	Ijó lộ mộ ộn jó	Response:	You can only dance
	Lílé:	Ìyàwó agbè ò	Call:	The wife of àgbè
	Ègbè:	Bó ṣe dára lộ mộ ộn jó	Response:	As beatiful as she is, she can also dance

In the above calls and responses, the lead singers did not complete the sense of the statements they started, the statements were completed by the chorus. In the calls of the first lyric of *orin agbè*, the lead vocalist called on Yánbíolú to arise. What Yánbíolú was called to arise to do was not stated in the call; it is in the response that the sense the call

wants to establish is completed. This is "Ogun tó lọ o" (It is time to embark on a war expedition). Apart from completing the sense of the call as stated, Yánbíolú needs critical semiotic analysis. Yánbíolú is one of the names credited to the Ìkòyí people. The name is a syntagmatically derived noun. The clause from which the name is derived is "...yán bí Olú" (to yawn like Olú⁴⁵) where Olú is probably an abbreviation of Olúòso, another name for Ṣàngó, the god of thunder, whose thundering is symbolised as yawning. In the Yorùbá warfare tradition, Yánbíolú is a panegyric name of Oníkòyí (A baleful Yorùbá warlord). As shown in the name Yánbíolú, the baleful and the tough character of Oníkòyí is compared to Ṣàngó. In this wise, Yánbíolù symbolically signifies toughness in the war semiosphere.

In the case of olóbitrípobíri, "biri", an ideophonic adverb, usually used with the verb "yi" (as in "...yi biri", meaning "to quickly or suddenly turn") is the root word. The verb "yi" might have been deleted in the process to remain "biri" as the user of the word wanted to lay emphasis on the adverb. The word "po/poo", complete as in "porongodo", which is in olóbitrípobíri is also an ideophonic adverb. It goes along with "tin" (to finish) and also "yi" (to turn) as in "tin po(o)/porongodo" (finished completely); "yi po/porongodo" (complete turning as a circle i.e. not just a turn to the right or left). Both "biri" and "po" could also be combined to have "biripo" (a complete quick circular move) and this can be fully reduplicated (biripo + biripo = biripobiri). To nominalise "biripobiri" for labelling the dancing step in orin agbe, the prefix "o-" is used in making the word "o-+ biripobiri ake place. This is the introduction of "oni-" in the process of "oni-+ obiripobiri" to realise "olóbiripobiri".

The lead singer's call out of "Olóbìírípobírí", is an indexical hint for the dancer(s) in the arena to dance the whirling dance steps. The lead's call did not really do more than calling the dancer(s) to dance the "olóbìírípobírí" dancing steps. It is the chorus that made the implicit challenge of the lead singer explicit when they responded with "Òní la ó maléré". Considering the unity of the performance semiosphere, it is clear that the "aré" of the "aláré" in the chorus line is referring to "olóbìírípobírí" dancing

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⁴⁵ Olú can also be an abbreviated name of Obalúayé, widely known as Ṣànponná, the Yorùbá god of smallpox. It could also mean a king or a noble person. Mushroom is also referred to as olú. As it was used in the semiosphere of the above lyric of *orin agbè*, Olú is used to refer to Ṣàngó because of his yawning behaviour which Oníkòyí was said to have imbibed.

steps named by the lead vocalist. If "aláré" derived from "oní- + aré" is the master dancer, then "Òní la ó maléré" of the chorus in the context of the lead vocalist's part and the whole performance fully means "it is today we shall know the master dancer of the olóbìírípobírí dancing steps". With this, "olóbìírípobírí" heuristically means "an act of turning round" or "a call request to turning round and round". Considering its signified retroactively, it is a type of dance in orin agbè where the performers turn round and round during performance.

Ìyàwó agbè (Agbè's bride) in the third lyric is the lead dancer of the agbè music performance. Like the performer that wears yèrì (skirt) in orin kete, Ìyàwó agbè also dresses to mimick women (Ògúndèjì, 1979). The iconic representation of Ìyàwó agbè in orin agbè is comparable with the dancer costumed in yèrì in orin kete. Ìyáwó agbè was called by the lead vocalist in the performance context of the excerpted lyrics and the chorus complemented the call that as beautiful as she was, she could also dance. The lead vocalist continues to vary the following line of the call by wondering whether the Ìyàwó agbè dancer could somersault. The chorus completed the statement by affirming that the character could only dance. The third-person singular object pronoun "\do" of " $B\acute{o}$..." ($B\acute{i}\acute{o}$...) of the chorus line is anaphoric of the Lyàwó agbè. The full sentence when the calls and the chorus of the first four sentences of the song are combined is "Bí ìyàwó agbè se dára ló mộ ón jó" (Just as gourd's wife is beautiful, so she knows how to dance). This complimentary declaration is alternated in the call with "Asoò le tàkìtì o" (So you cannot perform acrobatics) and the chorus "Ijó ló mộ ón jó" (It is only in dance you are good) varied by the performers in the same song. These two statements can be brought together in everyday speech with or without "nìkan" (it is only) thus: "Àṣoò le tàkìtì o, ijó (nìkan) ló mò ón jó" (So you cannot perform acrobatics, it is only in dancing you are good). It is the lead vocalist that launched the criticism which was completed by the chorus. This part of the song is a subtle criticism of the characterisation of Ìyàwó agbè in orin agbè. The lyric as a text in the orin agbè repertoire reveals both the positive and negative sides of the Ìyàwó agbè performer. Thus, as a signifier, the song is a dual sign for the fact that it generates two significations at a time. The song is also an indexical signification of the satirical nature of *orin agbè* and the humorous role of Ìyàwó agbè in the performance of orin agbè.

5.1.4.2.1.2 The chorus repeating and adding to leader's part

In this pattern of call and response, the lead vocalist truncates his poetic line halfway, leaving it for the chorus to complete. The chorus, however, often repeats part or the whole line before completing it. An example of this in *orin kete* is the excerpt below:

Lílé: Táyélolú, Òrìsà ìbe... Call: Táyélolú, the god of tw...

Ègbè: Èéèéeee Response: Èéèéeee

Òrìsà ibejì o The god of twins

Lílé: Táyélolú Òrìṣà ìbe... Call: Táyélolú, the god of tw...

Ègbè: *Èéèéeee* Response: *Èéèéeee*

Òriṣà ìbejì o The god of twins

In the above lyric of *kete* song, the lead singer's part (the call) is shorter than the chorus line. The chorus, first of all, said "Èéèéeee" before repeating part of the call "Òriṣà ibe(jì)" and later completed it. The incomplete structure "Òriṣà ibe..." in the call was truncated by the lead vocalist. Though the full structure is grammatical, because of the truncated final lexical item "ibe...", the structure outside the semiosphere of *orin kete* performance does not make a complete sense. Considering the surface structure of the full statement, the statement may be seen as a noun phrase. This is due to the fact that the three lexical items in the statement are nouns, the truncated noun "ibeji" could be seen as a qualifier to the headword "Òriṣà" in the noun phrase "Òriṣà ibeji". Going into its deep structural level, the statement has a complete sense. This is when the deleted verb "jé" or "ni" (be or is) in the deep structure is retained: Táyélolú jé/ni Òriṣà ibeji (Táyélolú is the god of twins). With this, Táyélolú, therefore, becomes the subject of the predicate "...jé/ni Òriṣà ibeji" in the sentence.

"Èéèéeee" as used above has either a semiotic or musical relevance. Musically, this ideophonic item is intentionally selected by the chorus to maintain the rhythm of the song as started in the call. However, "èéèéeeee" might sound nonsensical, but its consideration as totally nonsense might not be validated if it is seen as a poetic form of "e", a dialectical variant of "hen" (yes) in some Yorùbá sub-region (mostly among Ìlorin Yorùbá). So, èéèéeee as used in the above poetic performance may be considered as a dicent, a sign confirming the lead singer's statement. This is the reason why the statement can be replaced with "Béè ni" (it is so/yes) though with a little distortion of the rhythm but having its meaning established. Let us consider the recast lines of the song as shown below:

Lílé: Táyélolú, Òrìsà ìbe... Call: Táyélolú, the god of

...

Ègbè: Béè níiiiii Response: Yes

Òrìṣà ìbejì o The god of twins

At the semantic level, the lyric of this *kete* song conforms to the original version discussed before it. As said earlier, the rhythm of the new version does not conform to its original version.

In *orin agbè*, examples of this form of complementary call and response are found in the following excerpts:

1. Lílé: Omó on Mia la... Call: Indigenous people of Ìmia,

we...

Ègbè: Èròò Mia lawá Response: Indigenous people Ìmia

we are

Lílé: Omó òn Mia la... Call: Indigenous people of Ìmia

we...

Ègbè: Èròò Mia lawá Response: Indigenous people Ìmia

we are

2. Lílé: Ọbá ò pé a má ṣaà... Call: King did not say we should

not...

Ègbè: Oba ò pé a má ṣaré

Response: King did not say we

should not perform

Lílé: Obá ò pé a má şa... Call: King did not say we should

not...

Ègbè: Qba ò pé a má ṣaré Response: King did not say we

should not perform

Response: There is one very short

3. *Lílé: Ènìyàn gbóngbó kẹn...* Call: There is one very short...

Ègbè: Ènìyàn gbóngbókengbó

person *Lílé: Ènìyàn gbóṅgbó kẹn...*Call: There is one very short...

Ègbè: Ènìyàn gbóńgbókengbó Response: There is one very short

person

4. Lílé: Rírí dàrérémo... Call: This spectacle has turned

to...

Ègbè: Òrò yìí dàrérémoré Response: This spectacle has

turned to play

Lílé: Ríri dàrérémo... Call: This spectacle has turned

to...

Ègbè: Òrò yìí dàrérémoré Response: This spectacle has

turned to play

Lílé: Rírí dàbádámo... Call: This spectacle has turned to

make...

Ègbè: Òrò yìí dàbádámọdá Response: This spectacle has

turned to make-believe

In the examples above, like in the *orin kete* analysed earlier, the lead vocalist did not complete the last words of the calls, he deliberately omitted the final syllables of the last word. In the responses to the call, the chorus repeated the lead vocalist's part and added the omitted final syllable. Because the lead singers' lines were completed by the chorus, it makes the response statements a little longer than the calls. In many communication, the semiotic implication of this type of call and response is that it shows the level of cohesion and rapport between the lead singers and the chorus. In the Yorùbá discourse culture, some utterances are sometimes intentionally left uncompleted for the listeners to complete. When the listeners are able to complete this kind of statement, it shows that he listener has been following the speaker. It also indicates the listener's ability to decode the speech received. This corroborates the Yorùbá proverb "Ààbò òrò là á sọ fún omolúàbí, tó bá dé inú è, yóó di odidi" (The virtuous is addressed with uncompleted speech, that will become a whole when digested).

Some signs need critical attention and explanation in the third and fourth excerpts of *orin agbè* quoted above. These are "gbóńgbókengbó", "àrérémọré" and "àbádámọdá". The word "gbóńgbókengbó" is a sign generated from the root "gbóńgbó ken" (one short). Gbóńgbó could also mean club. When this nominal qualifying phrase is partially reduplicated, it results in "gbóńgbókengbó". Alternatively, "ènìyàn gbóńgbókengbó" can also be derived from an underlying statement "Ènìyàn gbóńgbó ken tí ó gbó" (one short old/important man). If the relativiser "tí" and the pronoun "ó" are deleted and the remaining words are contracted, it becomes "ènìyàn gbóńgbókangbó". So, the meaning of the underlying structure, "a short person that is important" is retained in the derived nominal phrase. If the word is, however, seen as a derivation of the underlying statement already pointed out above, then the satirical meaning of the word becomes relegated to the background while the important meaning becomes foregrounded.

In the above song, where the word is used, if the chorus should repeat only the lead vocalist's part as a response to the call, there would not be tonal counterpoint and as well as the conformity of the lyric to the rhythm of $agb\grave{e}$ song. The song, as explained by the Bàbá Oba of Ìmia, Chief John Adégòkè, is usually a way of satirising short people in their performance arena. The vocalist intentionally chose " $gb\acute{o}ngb\acute{o}$ " among other Yorùbá words which can mean very short. Examples of " $gb\acute{o}ngb\acute{o}$ " synonyms are " $k\acute{u}k\acute{u}r\acute{u}$ " (to be short), " $r\grave{a}r\acute{a}$ " (dwarf) or even " $k\acute{e}ker\acute{e}$ " (small). As an oral artist, the

lead vocalist chose "gbóńgbó" instead of other words to mean short person because of the phonoaesthetic reduplicated word "gbóńgbókengbó" he/she aimed at.

"Àrérémoré" as featured in the performance context of the above lyric is traceable to the root (seme) ré (to jump from one place to another as it is used to describe the monkeys' jump from one tree to another "ré láti orí igi kan sí òmíràn" (to jump from one tree to another). "Ré" could also mean "to fall", or "falling from a high place". The verb "ré" can occur with either an animate or inanimate subject like in "Mo ré" (I jumped or I fell) and "Iná ré" (the light fell). The verb "ré" was reduplicated to give us "réré" and was nominalised with the prefix "à-" to give "àréré". The two syllabic word "...moré" in "àrérémoré" is "mo ré" (I jumped or I fell). When it is subsequently appended with "àréré" (àréré + moré), we have "àrérémoré". This was used to label an acrobatic performance where the performers jump from one place to another in orin agbè. As in the case of "olóbìírípobírí" discussed earlier, "àrérémoré" is an idiophonic indexical signifier of a jumping acrobatic display during the performance of orin agbè. Once the vocalists start singing the lyrics, the identification of the next acrobatic performance becomes possible. Also, the fact is that the lead singer has initiated the performance of the dancing style as indicated by his declaration "Rírí dàrérémo..." (The spectacle has turned to ...). The performance, it should be noted, is what the lead singer metonymically identified as "rírî" i.e. what is required to watch- the performance.

Like "àrérémoré", "àbádámodá" is also traceable to the seme, àbá (suggestion). "Àbâ" usually collocates with the word "dâ" (to make) as in "dâ àbâ" (make a suggestion). There is a charm of make-believe in Yorùbá incantatory tradition called àbámodá (the charm of make-believe or magic). "Àbádámodá" is generated from the underlying sentence "Àbá dídá ni mo dâ" (It is the suggestion of make-believe that I made). This sentence is a focus reconstruction form of "Mo dâ àbá dídâ" (I make a suggestion). To create a phonoaesthetic idiophonic word, the initial syllable "dî" of "dídâ" (a partial reduplicated form of dâ) and the focus construction particle "ni" are deleted to have the newly contracted form "Àbádámodá". However, while "àrérémoré" is an indexical signifying a type of acrobatic performance; "àbádámodá" also signifies indexically, magical display. Similarly, if "rê" is assumed to mean a move from one place to another, in the semiosphere of àbámodá performance, àrérémoré then signifies the state of the performance changing from one style of performance to another as in the example of change from the acrobatic to the magical.

5.1.4.2.1.3 **Different leads-chorus parts**

In all collected data, we did not come across examples of the different lead-different chorus patterns of call and response in the religious type of *orin kete*. The call and response in the religious type of *orin kete* is usually simple and very short sentence. Most times, in *orin kete*, especially the religious type of the song, the chorus repeats only the lead vocalist's part. However, in the secular type, there is also the possibility of having the different calls different chorus pattern. The reason this pattern is not common in *orin kete* is that the song in its background is a religious worship song of Alárá-Igbó in which most of the performers were women and children. So also, *orin kete* audience at the inception were children. These types of performers and audiences need no complex pattern of call in order to make them respond appropriately. A simple call and response pattern would also help the chorus to key into the tune of the song without hindrances. As a matter of fact, the call and response pattern in which the chorus gives different responses to the lead vocalist's calls need experts who have a complex musical skill like the practitioners of modern àpàlà, wéré, àwúrèbe, fújì, among others to perform.

Contrary to that of *orin kete*, the different call and different response pattern is common in *orin agbè*. The reason for this is that *orin agbè*, as mentioned by Àlàbá (1985), is multimodal in nature. An example can be found in the excerpt below.

Omíyanjú: Lábálá-òjé ará òron kèèkee. Elégbè: Éèé! Eégúngún-un déé!

....

[Enì kan: O sé é o] [Òjó: Agbè! Agbè] [Alágogo kan: Agogooo!]

Òdùọlá:Injó tá a jó fáwun akòwé tó ti relé.Elégbè:Òrò mírè la fò yí fáwun-un tíṣà o.

[Awon alágbè: Ééè! Baba, mo kí o!]

Òdùolá:Injó tá a jó fáwun akòwé tó ti relé.Elégbè:Òrò mírè la fò yí fáwun-un tíṣà o.Òdùolá:Akúrúyejó o, máa jó níta akòwé.

Elégbè: Kòkòrò máa jó níta akòwé.

•••

Omíyanjú: *Lábálá-òjé*, the very citizen of heaven Chorus: Hurrah! The maquerade is here!

/Somebody: Thank you very much!/

[Òjó: Play the agbè! Play the agbè!] [One agbè-player: Play the metal gong!]

Odùolá: The performance we used to give to our late husbands. Chorus: Here we are with other novel utterances for teachers.

[The agbè-players: Hurrah! Greetings to you, our fathers!]

Odùolá: The performance we used to give to our late husbands. Chorus: Here we are with other novel utterances for teachers. Odùolá: O Akúrúyejó, dance on in front of our husband's

house.

Chorus: *Kòkòrò*, dance on in front of our husband's house.

....

(Àlàbá, 1985:256-257)

The excerpt above is an antiphonal singing interspersed with speech drawn from Àlàbá (1985). The major concern is the form of call and response that occurs in the poetic lines. In the first call and response, the lead vocalist made a call but the chorus responded with a statement different to the call. Though structurally, the noun phrases of the call and response are different, they are semantically refer to the same entity. As a noun phrase, "Lábala-òjé..." is the headword qualified by "...ará òrun kèèkee" (the very citizen of heaven), explicating the identity of "Lábala-òjé". Among the Yorùbá, egúngún lábala are masquerades that display colourful costumes while dancing. *Ojé* added with *lábala* also identifies the masquerade with $Ol\hat{u}$ - $\partial j\hat{e}$ lineage. The call is meant to identify and also eulogise either the masquerade himself or the members of the family who are custodians of the masquerade present in the performance arena. The response to the call is a constituent mainly of a declarative sentence preceded by an expression of joy, announcing the arrival of the masquerade or the said member of the family. If it is the member of the family, then egúngún is used as a metonymic symbol for the person. It is therefore clearly seen that the response by the chorus complements the lead's call. Although, said in different ways, bot the call and the response, however, refer to the same person. Also in the interspersed sentences in the response, all the sentences within are different from the calls.

In the second call and response, the chorus decided to say something not similar to the call. Odùolá, who was the lead vocalist, compared the present performance with those they used to perform for the late "akòwé" (a literate person/a secretary). "Akòwé" cannot mean a secretary in the performance context of the song. This is made clear when in the response, the chorus complemented the call, saying other things about the poetic object ("...àwun-un tíṣà...", (the teachers), but that it is also closely related to them. In "Òrò mírè la fó yí fáwun-un tíṣà" (Here we are with other novel utterances for teachers), the "tíṣà" (the teachers) are the "akòwé" (the literate people) pointed out in the call. "Akòwé" and "tíṣà" are among the names the Yorùbá housewives adopted to call the literate brother and sister inlaws to avoid calling them by their personal names.

The third call and response in the lyric also reveals a lead different from chorus part. It is a repetition of the second call and response. In the fourth call and response, the lead vocalist called on another poetic object "Akúrúyejó" (a person whose shortness makes him/her fit to dance) to continue to dance at the front of the akowé's house. The chorus varied part of the call as a response, this is in the substitution of "Akúrúyejó" with "Kòkòrò" (an insect). Kòkòrò as it is used to call the poetic object has a semiotic implication in the semiosphere. Kòkòrò heuristic meaning is insect. Retroactively, it is a symbolic signifier of perfection in dancing skills among the Yorùbá. So, someone that has skills in or mastery of dance can be called $K \partial k \partial r \partial$. This is culturally supported as shown in some utterances that are used to describe masters of dance skills, including " \acute{O} " ń jó bíi kòkòrò" (he/she is dancing like an insect), "Kòkòrò ni omobìnrin náà" (The girl is an insect), to mean the girl dances like an insect. Insects are believed to be good dancers in Yorùbá socio-cultural milieu. The reason behind this is the instinctive feature general to all insects in which both their hands and legs move every second continuously. The busy nature of insects in which parts of their body move every second is termed to be dance-styles by Yorùbá people. Thus, people that are masters of dance skills are referred to as Kòkòrò. Kòkòrò in the Yorùbá dance semiosphere symbolically signifies a skilful dancer. This is referenced in one şàkàrà song to show how skilful the dancers of sàkàrá are.

Lílé: Bẹ bá finú jo tán Call: After you might have

danced to it with stomach E tún fệyìn jó

Also dance it with your

back

Ègbè: Kòkòrò lọmó ajóṣàkàrá ó Response: Ajóṣàkàrá children

are insect

Lílé: Bẹ bá fìnú jo tán

Call: After you might have danced to it with stomach

E tún fệyìn jó

Also dance it with your

back

Ègbè: Kòkòrò lọmó ajóṣàkàrá ó Response: Ajóṣàkàrá children

are insect

Ajóṣàkàrá children called themselves *kòkòrò* in the above poetic lines. The idea being passed to the audience is that they were not just dancers but skilful dancers.

5.1.4.2.2 Mono-refrain call and response pattern

As observed by Olúkòjú (1985), the mono-refrain type of call and response is the most common antiphonal form of Yorùbá song. The lead vocalist, being the master of his/her song, varied his/her own part, bringing new ideas each time to which the chorus sang a constant refrain. They repeated the same refrain from the beginning to the end of the song. Examples of this in *orin kete* include the following:

1.	Lílé:	Táyélolú níhìn-ín o	Call:	Táyélolú, come over here	
	Ègbè:	Àrà níhìn-ín	Response:	Special child, come over here	
	Lílé:	Níhìn-ín o	Call:	Come over here	
	Ègbè:	Àrà níhìn-ín	Response:	Special child, come over here	
	Lílé:	Kệhìndé níhìn-ín o	Call:	Kéhìndé, come over here	
	Ègbè:	Àrà níhìn-ín	Response:	Special child, come over here	
	Lílé:	Èjìré níhìn-ín	Call:	Twins, come over here	
	Ègbè:	Àrà níhìn-ín	Response:	Special child, come over here	
	Lílé:	Qmọméjì níhìn-ín o	Call:	Twins, come over here	
	Ègbè:	Àrà níhìn-ín	Response:	Special child, come over here	
	Lílé:	Táyélolú níhìn-ín o	Call:	Táyélolú, come over here	
	Ègbè:	Àrà níhìn-ín	Response:	Special child, come over here	
2.	Lílé:	Ìyá Ìbèjì ń wò mí kòtòpò		wins' mother is looking at me her hollow eyes Yes, she is looking at me with her hollow eyes wins' father is looking at me his hollow eyes	
	Ègbè:	Wòmí wòmí wò mí kòtòpò	Response:		
	Lílé:	Baba ìbejì ń wò mí kòtòpò			
	Ègbè:	Wòmí wòmí wò mí kòtòpò	Response:	Yes, he is looking at me with his hollow eyes	
	Lílé:	Ìyá Ìbèjì ń wò mí kòtòpò		vins' mother is looking at me er hollow eyes	
	Ègbè:	Wòmí wòmí wò mí kòtòpò	Response:	Yes, she is looking at me with her hollow eyes	
	Lílé:	Baba ìbejì ń wò mí kòtòpò		vins' father is looking at me is hollow eyes	
	Ègbè:	Wòmí wòmí wòmíkòtòpò	Response:	Yes, he is looking at me with his hollow eyes	

Both excerpts are drawn from the *orin ìbejì*, a religious type of *orin kete*. What is similar to both is that the lead singers made different calls while the chorus repeated the refrain. In the lead's part of the first lyric, "*Táyélolú níhìn-ín o*" is a call on the poetic object Táyélolú (the first of the twins). The underlying structure of the sentence is "*Táyélolú wá níhìn-ín o*" (Táyélolú, come over here). The predicator "*wá*" (to come) was deleted resulting in "*Táyélolú níhìn-ín o*". In the response to the song, the chorus substituted

Táyélolú with "àrà" (special person). It is this "àrà" that makes the difference between the call and the response. They have the same structures. This is an indication that Táyélolú, who is the poetic object, is the person being referred to as "àrà" in the response. The lead singer also called on Kéhìndé and substituted the name with "àrà" like that of Táyélolú. This is a must because the Yorùbá people believe that whatever is done for Táíwò must also be done for Kéhìndé. The names "èjìré" and "omoméji" called by the lead vocalist are generic names for twins.

"Àrà" could signify different things as used in the text. The vocalists may be pointing to the birth of these two children⁴⁶ at a time as *ohun* àrà (a miraculous incident). He/she could also be pointing to the performance of *orin* ibèjì as àrà. This is shown in the sentence, "Àrà níhìn-ín" (spectacular styles are happening here) in which he/she invited the twins to participate. In the religious context of *orin* ibėjì performance, different sets of twins are invited whenever the performance is about to start. When the performance begins, many children may not have a fore knowledge of the performance. When they sing the song, they respond instantly to it by moving closer toward the performers calling on them. So, àrà in this regard signifies the performance of *orin kete* which the twins could not afford to miss. It should be note that a good performing artist will always come up with different àrà (style) to sustain the interest of his/her audience. The term *art* is used in one *orin agbè* to refer to *agbè* performance as shown below:

Lílé:	Ijó ìn bá jó lo jó	Call:	You have dan	nced the	step I w	anted
			to dance			
	•			_		

*Ègbè: Àrà ìn bá dá lo dá*Response: You have performed the style I wanted to perform

Lílé: Ijó ìn bá jó lo jó Call: You have danced the step I wanted to dance

*Ègbè: Àrà ìn bá dá lo dá*Response: You have performed the style I wanted to perform

In the performance context of the above lyric, two *agbè* dancers danced the same step; to draw the attention of the audience to this, the vocalists sang the above song. As revealed in the song, *àrà* signifies a dance step in the performance *orin kete*.

The refrain, "Wòmí wòmí wòmíkòtòpò", as the response to "Ìyá Ìbejì ń wò mí kòtòpò" in the second song translated as "...looking at me with hollow eyes" has a

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⁴⁶ Yorùbá people considered multiple births as a special and miraculous occurrence, as a result, they made them gods and worshipped them. In the Eastern part of Nigeria, precisely among the Calabar, one of the twins was considered evil, because the people (Okoyong) could not identify which of the twins was affected, both children were left to die in the bush (Umoren, 2018). The missionary intervention of Mary Slessor between 1888 and 1915 put an end to this.

meaning that goes beyond its surface meaning. It should, however, be noted that during the performance of the song, the performers, including the dancers, the vocalists and other participating members of the audience, will be staring at one another with widely opened eyes as a dramatisation of the statement in the response "Wò mí kòtòpò". In this context, the song becomes an indexical signification of the dramatisation. It is, in fact, hypogrammatically vituperative. For example, the expression features in "Kòtòpò kotopo bí ojú òkú" and "Ó sojú kòtòpò bí ojú òbo". These can be translated as "His/her eyes are as hollow as the sucket of a corpse" and "His/her eyes are as hollow as a monkey's eye" respectively. There is the use of simile which draws the image of what the poetic character's eyes look like in these expressions. The eyes of the addressee are being compared to the sucket on a dead person's skull. Looking at the anatomy of a monkey, one realises that it has a circular and hollow sucket deeply rooted in its skull. These images are foregrounded in the song. It may, however, not be for abusive or derisive purpose. "Ojú kòtòpò" in the context of the twins' mother may be seen as symptomatic of malnutrition. Though, in many oral performances, including indoor games like ayò game among the Yorùbá people, light humourous context like the "ojú kòtòpò" performance and some other derisive/vituperative language are used but are not taken to heart; instead, they are merely joked at. Attention should be drawn to the Yorùbá performance tradition where derisive and vituperative expressions used are not taken to heart. They are instead taken lightly in the àwàdà (jest), àpárá/yèyé (joke) sense. Examples include the traditional festival performance contexts such as Okèèlbàdàn and Edì at Ifè, where derisive and abusive references are made to the private organs of passers-by, who would respond with joy and joke, and intentionally join the ongoing musical banter (Ògúndèjì, 1991). In the agbè performance context, the two senses of the light humour and the health humour significations may be seen as binarily fused; though opposing, yet complementary.

Though "ojú kòtòpò" itself is not used by Àtàrí Àjànàkú (2004) in his poem "Ebi", the first triology poem of "Àwòrán Ìgbà", the sense is generated when he paints the character of malnourished poor man with his "ojú jinnú" (eye is deep). An alternative form of this is "ojú kóónú" as shown in the below excerpt:

Orí níńlá
bíi ti lákátabú
Ojú jinnú
bíi òfifo agolo mílíìkì
Èèké súnkì

Big head
like that of elephant
The eye is deep
like an empty tin of milk
The cheek is deformed

The features of a hungry or malnourished person (the poor) mentioned by Àtàrí Àjànàkú above show that the sunken eyes are the symptomatic sign of malnutrition. So, the refrain "wòmí wòmí wòmí kòtòpò", which could be directly translated as "looking at me with her hollow eyes" generates a system of signs that signifies that Ìyá Ìbejì is unhealthy as a result of malnutrition and stress occasioned by the high attention that her children's care demands, which makes her lose weight.

There are a lot of examples of this call and response style in *orin agbè*. Most *orin agbè* lyrics follow this pattern. As observed by Ògúndèjì (1979) and Àlàbá (1985), many of the sentences in *orin agbè* are simple repetitive sentences that allow mono-refrain responses. Examples of these are below.

respoi	ises. Ex	amples of these are below.		
1.	Lílé:	Ewúrę́ jeٜ je̞ je̞ Ó wolé	Call:	When a goat flocks about It returns home
	Ègbè:	Je je je	Response:	Yes, it does
		Àgùtàn jẹ jẹ jẹ	Call:	When a sheep flocks about
		Ó wọlé		It returns home
	Ègbè:	Je je je	Response:	Yes it does
		Àjęèwálé belédè jé	Call:	Flocking without returning home is the pig's flaw
		Kộlộkộlộ şẹnu wúyệ		The masticating fox
		Ta lo bá lónà tó ò kí o?		Who did you meet on the road that you did not greet?
	Ègbè:	Òrộ léledìye sọ o	Response:	It is the fact that the fowl's owner says
	Lílé:	Léledìye	Lílé:	That the owner says
	Ègbè:	Òrò léledìye sọ o	Response:	It is the fact that the fowl's owner says
	Lílé:	Léledìye	Lílé:	That the owner says
	Ègbè:	Òrò léledìye sọ o	Response:	It is the fact that the fowl's owner says
2.	Lílé:	Ó dęléyọ-èyọ	Call:	When we talk of outshining one another
		Èyọ màrìwò ò		As the palmfrond sprouts out
	Ègbè:	Èyò-èyọ	Response:	Shooting, shoot out
		Èyọ màrìwò	-	As the palmfrond sprouts out
	Lílé:	Bộgàn bá yọ nígbó	Call:	When the anthill emerges in the forest
		Mo șe bí í ta wọn yọ		It definitely outshines other things
	Ègbè:	Èyò-èyo	Response:	Shooting, shoot out

Èyo màriwò As the palmfrond sprouts

out

Lílé: Egbé mi bá wọn Call: My group meets them

Yọọ ta wọn yọ It will outshine them

Ègbè: Èyò-èyo Response: Shooting, shoot out

Èyọ màrìwò As the palmfrond sprouts

out

The first excerpt is a caustic satirical comment. The dual sentences of the first two calls are parallel sentences. The only difference is in the subjects of the sentences, "ewúré" (a goat) and "àgùntàn" (a sheep). The mono-refrain response to these calls is the triplicated form (je je je) of the main verb of the call "je" (to flock about). The third call is longer than the first two parallel sentences, it stands in a counterposing relationship to the parallel calls before it. The response to this third call is a complement to the last interrogative sentence of the call. It is from this complement that the fourth and the fifth calls are drawn. It is this complementing response that is repeated as a response to the fourth, the fifth and the remaining calls of the song. There is an interconnection between the sentences of the call and the sentences of the response in this lyric of orin agbè. The first two parallel calls have the same sentence structure with the positive sentential idea. In other words, the animals mentioned in both sentences usually return home after flocking about. This positive idea is counterposed in the third call for the fact that the animal mentioned, "elédè" (pig), does not return home like "ewúré" and "àgùntàn" mentioned in the first two calls. Another discussion was started in the middle sentence and last of the third call about "kòlòkòlò" (fox) which was alleged of masticating and defying Yorùbá greeting protocol. This allegation was complemented in the response to this third call when the chorus authenticated the allegation made by the fowl's owner against $k \partial l \partial k \partial l \partial a$ as genuine. The last two calls and responses are either full or partial repetition of the sentence "*Òrò léledìye so*" (It is the fact that hen's owner states).

It should be noted that the poetic text of the *orin agbè* under discussion employs different animal imagery. The animals can be grouped based on their wildness. They can be grouped into two; domestic and wild animals. *Ewúré*, *àgùtàn* and *elédè* are domestic while fox is wild. *Ewúré* and *àgùtàn* are said to return home after flocking but *elédè* which is supposed to return home did not. The ideal attitudes of *ewúré* and *àgùntàn* which make them return home after flocking about may be seen as signifying gratitude. On the other hand, the deviant attitude of not returning home of *elédè* after flocking about signifies ingratitude. There is a Yorùbá saying to back up the ideal attitudes of

ewúré and àgùtàn to their owners. The proverb "Ewúré kì í gbàgbé olóore, àgùtàn kì í gbàgbé eléèrî" butresses this point. This implies that goat and sheep always show gratitude to their owners for feeding them. Elédè in the context of the song text is then a symbolic signifier of an ingrate while ewúré and àgùntàn symbolically signify the grateful person.

The third animal, $k \partial l \partial k \partial l \partial$ (fox), though not described as either returning or not returning home after flocking because it is a wild animal, may be grouped with $el \dot{e} d \dot{e}$, pig (it is mentioned immediately after $el \dot{e} d \dot{e}$ in the same call) on the basis of its deviance. The poet in the call accuses $k \partial l \partial k \partial l \partial$ of masticating (jije enu $wiv\dot{e}wiv\dot{e}$) and refusal to respond as appropriate to the greeting protocols (Smith, 2017). Another animal through the word $el \dot{e} d \dot{i} y \dot{e}$ (fowl's owner) is referred to in the response to the last call. The fowl is also a domestic animal that normally returns home after flocking. The poet, is however, not much concerned with the attitude of $ad \dot{i} y \dot{e}$ in this text, but rather with authenticating the truism in $el \dot{e} d \dot{i} y \dot{e} \dot{e} s$ statement. $el \dot{e} d \dot{i} y \dot{e} \dot{e} s$ statement is not explicitly given; it is, however, implicitly derivable. There is always a relationship among $el d \dot{i} y \dot{e} \dot{e} k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e} l \partial k \dot{e}$

The scenario created in the song text is that of a fowl's owner who is searching for his/her fowl and meets Mr Fox on the way. Mr Fox is unable to observe the ideal Yorùbá greeting protocols when meets the fowl's owner primarily because he still has his mouth full of the fowl's flesh which he is still chewing and secondly because of his guilty conscience. It is apparent that the first part of the poetic analogy in the imagery of goat, and sheep in contrast to that of the pig is a ground preparation for the caustic satirical comment on Mr Fox, the fowl thief and devourer. $El\dot{e}d\dot{e}'s$ deviant behaviour is foregrounded upon the ideal behaviours of Mr Goat and Mr Sheep. Mr Pig's deviance is referenced ultimately to corroborate that of Mr Fox. From the habit of $k\dot{\rho}l\dot{\rho}k\dot{\rho}l\dot{\rho}$ as shown above, $k\dot{\rho}l\dot{\rho}k\dot{\rho}l\dot{\rho}$ is also, a signifier of immorality, stealing and non-adherence to Yorùbá greeting protocols to be specific. These are the social deviant behaviours being condemned. Anyone in Yorùbá society engaged in such deviant behaviour becomes the signified. It is, however, not impossible that in rendering this lyric, the singers (especially the lead singer) have a particular person in mind whom they are satirising.

The second poetic excerpt is a benevolence incantation. The poets in the excerpt deploy the incantation for the purpose of outshining their rivals. In doing this, the lead singer adopted the metaphor of the palmfrond (mariwo) and anthill (ogan) that grow higher than other trees and grasses respectively in their surroundings. The attribute of growing very high characterised by màriwò and ògán over plants around them is qualisign. In this context, the lead poet adopted this quality to pray for his group's success. The refrain "Èyò èyo" is a stylistic duplication of "èyo" derived from the prefixation of "è-" to the root verb "yo" (to sprout). The lead vocalist selected this symbolic word usage in the manner of the Yorùbá incantatory poetry (Olátúnjí, 1984) and applied it to the performing context. The first and the second calls and responses have two prominent features of assertive statements found in $g(\hat{\rho})$; these are positive and conditional assertions. However, the sentence of the first call which was fully repeated by the chorus "Ó deléyo-èyo, èyo màrìwò ò" could be directly translated as "It has turned to an issue of outshining, like how palmfrond sprouts" is an adapted form of the positive assertion "Èvo èvo ni màrìwò ń vo" (It is in a quick manner that palm-frond sprouts). The positive assertion marker rooted in the deep structure is "ni" (translated as "that") which indicates the constant truism, of which the supernatural power behind is summoned by the user to solve his problem. The second call is a conditional assertive statement mentioned in Olátúnjí (1984). This is "Bógàn bá yọ nígbó, mo se bí í ta wọn yo" (When the anthill emerges in the forest, it definitely outshines other things). Palmfrond and anthill as used here are symbolic representamen of outshining which the vocalists aspired. They can also be considered as the symbolic signification of the performers who compared themselves with the items mentioned. Another prominent feature of ofò is the application of the assertions mentioned above. This is featured in the third call of the lyrics. The lead vocalist prayed that just as the palmfrond and anthill tower very high against other items around them, so might he and his team of performers outshine others: "Egbé mi bá wọn; Yóó ta wón yọ" (My group meets them; It will outshine them). This lyric representation in agbè performance semiosphere is a qualisign because the qualities of the items mentioned are employed to solve the performers' problem. Because mono-refrain leads to repetition of the sentence of the response, as shown above, mono-refrain call and response in orin kete and orin agbè is, therefore, an indexical signifier of a repetitive call and response style.

5.1.4.2.3 Repetitive call and response pattern

Yorùbá oral poetry flourishes in repetition (Adélélè, 2020). However, repetitive call and response is common in most of Yorùbá songs. When repetition occurs in call and response, the chorus can repeat what the lead says either fully or partially.

5.1.4.2.3.1 Full repetitive call and response pattern

When the chorus is made up of full statements of the call, the full repetitive call and response style of Yorùbá antiphonal singing occurs. Here, the chorus quotes the lead singer verbatim. This style of call and response is more prominent in the religious type of *orin kete* than in its non-religious type.

1. Lílé: Tètè ààtàn mo rò Call: It is the refuse disposing

site $t \note t \ e^{47}$ I cooked Omo bá mi je é Child, eat it with me Omo bá mi jé Child, eat it with me

Egbé mi My group

Tètè à àtàn mo rò It is the refuse disposing

site *tètè* I cooked

Ègbè: Tệtệ ààtàn mo rò

Response: It is the refuse disposing site tètè I cooked

Omo bá mi je éChild, eat it with meOmo bá mi jéChild, eat it with me

Egbé mi My group

Tètè à àtàn mo rò It is the refuse disposing

site *tètè* I cooked

2. Lílé: Gbàyè ń jó Call: Gbàyè is dancing Alákànmú ń jó Alákànmú is dancing

Ikú ò mà níí torí è penìkan o Death will not as a result

kill any of us

Ègbè: Gbàyè ń jóResponse:Gbàyè is dancingAlákànmú ń jóAlákànmú is

akanmu n jó Alákánmu 18 dancing

Ikú ò mà níí torí è penìkan o Death will not as a result kill any of us

The first excerpt of *orin kete* is a religious song of Alárá-Igbó. It was sung by worshippers soliciting children from the deity, or mothers asking for protection, long life, and good health for their children from the deity. This song could also be sung during the worship of the deity of Ìbejì, Ìrókò and Qbàtálá. Mothers in the song are

⁴⁷ This is a kind of vegetable common among Yorùbá people, spinach, it is nutritious and has medicinal value.

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persuading their children to stay and enjoy with them the nutritious $t\acute{e}t\acute{e}$ soup they have prepared. $T\grave{e}t\grave{e}$ $\grave{a}\grave{a}t\grave{a}n$ (refuse disposing site $t\grave{e}t\grave{e}$) generates different semantics in the poetic text. $T\grave{e}t\grave{e}$ that grows in a refuse disposing area will be biologically more nutritious than the ones grown in other areas. The reason is that the refuse disposing site is rich in soil nutrients because of the decayed refuse dumped there over time. In this regard, $t\grave{e}t\grave{e}$ $\grave{a}\grave{a}t\grave{a}n$ is, therefore, both a natural sign and a qualisign which is expected to add to the nutritional balance of the poetic persona, "omo". Secondly, $t\grave{e}t\grave{e}$ $\grave{a}\grave{a}t\grave{a}n$ may also signify poverty. The soil on which the plant is grown, $\grave{a}\grave{a}t\grave{a}n$, when socially considered is a solitary space, where waste is dumped. By all standards, and especially the modern and contemporary ones, one would not normally pick things to eat from such a place. $\grave{A}\grave{a}t\grave{a}n$ is also referred to as dunghill. So, for the poet to prepare a soup of $t\grave{e}t\grave{e}$ $\grave{a}\grave{a}t\grave{a}n$ for his/her meal indicates that he/she has no other better alternative. Hence, she needs to persuade the child to kindly eat what he/she could afford.

The second excerpt is a secular type of *orin kete*. The lead singer in the excerpt named the poetic personas dancing to his song. These are Gbàyè, a short version of Adégbàyè and Àkànmú. Àkànmú was poetically called Alákànmú in the lyric. To generate Alákànmú, "*oní-*", a nominaliser indicating possession is added to the name Àkànmú (*oní-* + Àkànmú = Alákànmú) (the owner of/one who bears the name Àkànmú). Alákànmú, therefore, still means Àkànmú as it refers to the same person. It, however, tends to show more sense of passion and endearment than just Àkànmú. The lead singer prayed that the two dancers should live long. "*Enikàn*" in the performance context of this lyric means "anyone". An abridged version of "*enikankan*," referring to the second person which could be either one of the two dancers or other members of the audience. In the two examples, the chorus quoted the lead vocalist verbatim and this makes the call and response pattern a full repetition of the lead singer.

In *orin agbè*, several examples of this style of call and response are observed. The two excerpts below are representative:

1. Lílé: Kèngbè mi Call: My gourd Kèngbè mí ò My gourd

Amúnim Òyó-Ilé That makes one know Òyó's

homestead

Ègbé: Kèngbè mi Response: My gourd

Kèngbè mí ò My gourd
AmúnimÒyó-Ilé That makes one know

Òyó's homestead

Lílé: Kèngbè mi Call: My gourd Kèngbè mi ò My gourd

Amúnimòyìnbó That makes one know the white people

Ègbè: Kèngbè mi Response: My gourd Kèngbè mí ò My gourd

> Amúnimòyìnbó That makes one know the

> > white people

Ma gbé kèngbè mi rÒyó I will take my gourd to Qyo Lílé: Call:

Ègbè: Akérémoba... Response: One that knows the

king at a tender age

2. Lílé: À ń saré aléré We perform for people Call: Wòn n bè wá lówè ò People invite us to perform

Wòn h bè wá lówè ò

Ántorí ara wa Not to talk of our own performance

Ègbé: À ń şaré aléré We perform for people Response:

People invite us to

performance Ántorí ara wa Not to talk of our own

performance

Lílé: À ń jíjó oníjó Call: We dance for people

Wòn h bè wá lówè ò People invite us to perform

Ántorí ara wa Not to talk of our own performance Ègbé: À ń jíjó oníjó We dance for people Response:

People invite us to perform Wòn h bè wá lówè ò Ántorí ara wa

Not to talk of our own

performance

The poet in the first poetic excerpt briefly eulogised his gourd for making him popular and making him to visit the king at Oyó-Ilé and also know Europeans. As in the previous examples, the chorus responded to the call by repeating what the lead singer said verbatim. It is expedient to know that the names "amúnimỳyó-ilé" and "amínimòyìnbó" which agbè was called is as a result of the performers' exposure had on the account of agbè art. They visited Òyó-Ilé, the imperial capital and seat of the Aláàfin of Òyó Empire and also met, for the first time, the Europeans. This earned the performer(s) an acronym Akérémobá (One-who-knows-the-king-at a tender age) used in another responsorial song usually rendered along with the present one. In the second example of orin kete, the chorus also repeated the lead vocalist's part in full.

Generally, the response in this pattern of calls and responses of *orin kete* and *orin* agbè does not in any way add to the semantic or thematic ideology established by the calls. However, the semiotic significance of this repetitive call and response pattern is to emphasise the thematic contents of the call. There is no doubt that it also adds to the flow of the rhythm and melody of the song.

5.1.4.2.3.2 Variable-full repetitive call and response pattern

This is a form of full repetitive call and response style predominant in *orin agbè*. The style is discussed under full repetitive pattern of call and response because the response line is merely a structural repetition of the sentence of the call. What actually makes difference between variable and full repetitive call and response patterns is that, the variant or the opposite of sentence initial word in the call is used to replace it in the response. This makes it possible to say the theme of the sentence of the call in another form which results in having a variable semantic repetition. The pattern of response in general, is semiotically emphasising the theme of the poetic discussion started by the lead singer. Let us consider the following examples of *agbè* songs.

1. Lílé: Sísà máa jệ ò Call: The used charm should function Gbogbo ệ lòògùn ò All are charms
Ègbè: Àìsà máa jệ ò Response: Unused charm should function
Gbogbo ệ lòògùn ò... All are charms

2. Lílé: Omó on Mia la(wá) Call: Indigenous people of Ìmia we (are) Ègbà: Èrò o Mia lawá Response: People of Ìmia we are Omó on Mia la(wá) Indigenous people of Ìmia we (are) Lílé: Ègbà: Èrò o Mia lawá Response: People of Ìmia we are Obá ò pé a má sa... Call: The king did not say we should Lílé: not...

Ègbè: Oba ò pé a má ṣaré

Response: The king did not say we should not perform

The prominent call and response in the above excerpts is a variable full repetitive call and response style. In this, the chorus lines are slightly varied from the lead singer's calls. In other words, the chorus lines are modified versions of the leader's lines. This is possible because the structures of the sentences of the calls are repeated. This also makes it possible for the sentences of calls and responses to parallel. That is "Sísà máa jé δ " and "Àisà máa jé δ " in the first lyric are parallel, also is call, " $Qm\phi$ on Mia la(wa)" and response, "Èrò o Mia lawa" of the second lyric. In this regard, "sísà" and "àisà" contrastively co-occur, likewise is " $om\phi$ " and "èro". Both words are merely opposite/synonymous to each other. The people that are called $om\phi$ are also the one called ero. What also suggests the variable full repetition of this call and response pattern is the repetition of the second sentence of the call by the chorus in the first example. Similarly, the last call of the second example that seems to be a stylistic variant of the full sentence version was repeated and completed by the chorus. The lead singer decided not to complete the predicate "sare" (to perform); instead he said "sa..." for aesthetic

purpose and left it for the chorus to complete. Though the full sense of the sentence is not completed by the lead singer, he did so just for aesthetics; he could complete it if he actually wished to. This is one of the reasons the pattern is called variable full repetitive.

Qmo and *èrò* in the second excerpt need critical semiotic analysis. Another word that is usually used as an alternative to *omo* in the above lyric is *ará* (people). In the semiosphere of *omo* (child), there is no doubt about the referent of the word. The word directly refers to the indigenous people of Ìmia. But in the case of *èrò* (people or crowd), the word can mean both the indigenous and non-indigenous people of Ìmia but who are members of the performance group. People who are not indigenes of Ìmia, the people of Ìṣémi, a neighbouring town of Ìmia join *the agbè* performance group. According to Chief John Adégòkè, the Bàbá Qba of Ìmia and the grand patron of the song at Ìmia, sometime during their performance, segregation might occur between the people of Ìmia (the indigenous performers of the song in the area) and Ìṣémi people (those who join the group). To show the latter that the genre belongs to Ìmia, they change the song to below lyric.

Lílé: Omó on Mia la(wá) Call: Indigenous people of Ìmia

we are

Ègbà: Èrò o Mia leyín Response: People Ìmia you are

The lyric in the first usage is a sign of identification and the affiliation of the performance group to the king but it signifies segregation and discrimination in the last usage.

5.1.4.2.3.3 Partial repetitive call and response pattern

The chorus in the partial repetitive call and response pattern did not quote the lead singer verbatim. They only repeated part of what the lead singer sang. The reason for repeating only a part of the lead vocalist is to maintain the perfect rhythmic effect in the song. Quoting the lead singers fully may affect the smoothness of the rhythm of the songs. This type of call and response is common in *orin kete*. It also occurs in *orin agbè*, but usually as a form of mono-refrain. This is shown in the examples below.

1. Lílé: Òròdóròdó àkàrà èrì⁴⁸
Call: Òròdóròdó, bean cake of èrì
Òròdóròdó àkàrà èrì
Öròdóròdó, bean cake of èrì
I will buy for my child Àkàrà erì o
The bean cake of erì

-

⁴⁸ This is a bean cake used as an item of sacrifice to Alára-Igbó, Ìrókò and Ọbàtálá deities purposely on children's matters.

Ègbè: Òròdóròdó àkàrà èrì Òròdóròdó. Response: bean

cake of èrì

Lílé N ó rà lómó lówó I will buy for my Call:

child

Àkàrà erì o The bean cake of erì Response: Ègbè: Òròdóròdó àkàrà èrì

Response: Òròdóròdó. bean

cake of erì

TÒba Ólórùn ò bá pa wá o 2. Lílé: Call: If God, the King, does not

kill us

TÒba Ólórùn ò bá pa wá o If God, the King, does not

kill us

If we do not die Ba ò bá kú

A ó sòrò o We shall talk Ègbè: TỘba Ólórùn ò bá pa wá o Response: If God, the King, does

not kill us

Lílé: Ba ò bá kú If we do not die Call: A ó sòrò o We shall talk

Ègbè: TỘba Ólórùn ò bá pa wá o Response: If God, the King, does

not kill us

In the first *kete* lyric above, the chorus repeated the first sentence (*Òròdóròdó àkàrà èrì*) of the call. Though this sentence was repeated twice by the lead vocalist, it was said once as the response to the call. The same manner, the second sentence, "N ó rà lómó lówó àkàrà erì o" (I will buy for my child, the àkàrà èrì) was not said in the chorus. For the fact that it is only a part, not the full lead vocalist's part that the chorus repeated, this pattern of call and response makes a partial repetition. The repetition of "Òròdóròdó àkàrà èrì" by the lead singer as done above is a communicative indexical signification, notifying the chorus about the part they were to sing as a response to the call. The poetic phrase "Òròdóròdó àkàrà èrì" is the surface structure of the relative clause "Àkàrà èrì tí ó rí ròdóròdó" (Àkàrà èrì that looks attractive). To emphasise the adverb, it was nominalised and moved to the initial position of the relative clause. The relativiser "ti", the pronoun "\(\delta\)" and the verb "\(ri\)" were deleted to derive the poetic phrase.

We need to pay close attention to the ideophones "ròdòròdò, ròdòrodo and ròdóròdó". These are stylistic variants of "ròdòròdò" (very attractive). These lexical items do not have dictionary meaning, rather, they can only be traced to the seme "ròdò" (attractive). "Ròdò" is an ideophonic adverb that describes the attractiveness of an object. When "ròdò" is reduplicated, it becomes "ròdòròdò" which gives the sense of a higher attractiveness than others. "Ròdó" and "ròdóròdó" are stylistic alternative of "ròdòròdò". "Ròdóròdó" as said means "very attractive". The grammatical status of the word changes from adverb to noun when "ò-", a prefix, is added to nominalise it and

makes the word sound nonsensical at the superficial level. Considering its root and context of usage, however, $\partial r \partial d \sigma \partial d \sigma$ as a verbal sign signifies attractiveness. It is in this wise a qualisign.

This second lyric of *orin kete* is just like the first; the lead vocalist intentionally repeated the first sentence of the call for the chorus to make the response. Since the sentence is only what the chorus repeated of the lead vocalist's part, the call and response pattern is regarded as partially repetitive. This kete lyric is a prayer and as well as a promise premised on the conditional sentence made by the lead singer to assure his audience that he would continue to sing if God spared his life. The lexeme used by the poet to express songs he promised his fan is $\partial r \partial$ (word/speech) as shown in "Ba ∂ bá kú, $a \circ s \circ r \circ o$ " (If we do not die, we shall talk) above. Truly, $\partial r \circ o$ could mean song because a song is made up of $\partial r \partial$ (words). We should also be aware that $\partial r \partial$ could also mean a complex, non-ordinary, deep and meditative utterance. In the poetics of Yorùbá music, the message, made up of the verbal component is given equal prominence as if not more than the melodic component. Hence, there is a world of difference between "orin lásán" (ordinary songs with no message) and "ijinle oro" (songs with a deep message). The proverbial sayings, "òrò lomo elétí ń je" (only the one with a sense of understanding can discern the deep utterance) forms the basis of what Yorùbá song-poetics points to. Thus, *òrò* which is used in the second lyric above is not an ordinary word, but a word with deep and connotative meaning. $\hat{Q}r\hat{Q}$ can also signify the truth. This is traceable to Yorùbá expressions to authenticate the truthfulness of speech made, "òrò lo so, o ò paró" (you said the truth, you did not lie), "òdodo òrò!" (true talk) among others. In this sense, the poet in the above excerpt indicated that if God spared his life, he would continue to say the truth. This becomes a pledge on the part of the poet. The following Yorùbá sayings as pointed out by Ògúndèjì (2013) show the intricacy involved in being outspokenly truthful: "olóòótó kì í lénî", "olóòótó ìlú níkà ìlú". By implication, the poet promised to continue standing for the truth despite all odds.

5.1.4.2.3.4 Poetic combat between the lead singer and the chorus

This is a situation whereby call and response turn to poetic altercations between the lead singer and the chorus. The lead singer in this kind of call and response style can either challenge, ask a question or vituperate the chorus and the chorus replies the singer according to the challenge posed. There are examples of this in *orin agbè*. The collected data on *orin kete* do not show this example. If *orin kete* should have this example of call

and response style, such possibility will occur more in the secular type of *kete* song than in the religious type where the songs are strictly for religious thematic issues. The combat call and response style is highly possible in *orin agbè* because of the contemporary secular nature of the genre. Besides, the songs have a high number of performers, not smoothly organised and involved more physical activities than *orin kete*. Examples of combative call and response in *orin agbè* are the ones below.

1. Lílé: Oníjó yìí o Call: Oh you, the dancer Ègbè: Elègbè o Response: Oh you, the chorus Lílé: Orin lónìí o Call: Today is for song Ègbè: Elègbè o Response: Oh you, the chorus Àwon èèvàn mi ò My people do not respond to the Lílé: gberin bí àtijó mó song like in the olden days Ègbè: Àwon èèyàn mi ò Response: My people do not lead the song kọrin bí àtijó mó like in the olden days 2. Lílé: Şe ó le è dúró o èeè? Call: Can you (chorus) wait? Ègbè: E ò le è dúrò o èeè? Response: You (lead vocalist) cannot wait? Lílé: Se ó le è dúró be Call: Can you (chorus) wait when you hear the sound of the gourd? gbóhùn agbè o? Ègbè: E ò le dúró be Response: You (lead vocalist) cannot gbóhùn agbè o wait when you hear the sound of the gourd

In the first lyrics of the *orin agbè*, the performers (lead singers/lead vocalists and chorus) were involved in an argument on whether each performer could still perform excellently like the olden days *agbè* performers did. When the lead singer said the chorus could not respond to the song like the olden days performers did, they also retorted that the lead singer could not as well sing as the historical singers of *agbè*. The semiotic significance of this argumentative call and response is to achieve a better performance. The lead singer, through his insinuation, indirectly challenged his chorus to put in their best. The chorus replicated the same signification. The whole altercation is taken in the playful context of "àwàdà" (joke).

The second excerpt is also a challenge. The lead singer asked the chorus whether they would be able "to wait when they hear the sound of the gourd" as a metaphorical signification of whether they would be able to cope with the rigours of the performance. The chorus did not repeat the question, instead, they did not waste time to quickly declare by using the same imagery, that the lead singer could not cope with the rigours of the performance. The generation of the semiotics of metaphor of waiting on hearing the sound of the gourd when beaten could be traced to the historical deployment of the genre

as a war song (Àlàbá, 1985) at which sound the cowardly enemies usually flee. Thus, the *ohùn agbè* (gourd sound) in both the lead singer and the chorus lines is, therefore, a qualisign. A sign of quality of the strength of the warriors the gourd was usually played for. *Ohùn agbè* could also be an indexical signification of war which cowards may not be able to withstand when it comes.

It should be noted that the lead singer's insinuation in this second example is indirect because it is cast in a question form. The direct answer to the question should have been "A ó le è dúró bá gbóhùn agbè ò" (we will be able to wait on hearing the sound of the gourd). Because the chorus understood the underlying insinuation, they responded affirmatively that it was the lead singer that would be unable to wait on hearing the sound of the gourd. Insinuating that it was the lead singer and not them, the chorus, that would not be able to meet up with the demand of the performance. This agrees with the Yorùbá standard of "fífi àbàrá kékeré gba nínlá" (striking mildly to receive a vicious one). The verbal combat though inherently entertaining also has a mild ethical significance. It drew attention to the disadvantage of an arrogant posture. From the performative perspective, however, the semiotic significance of the argumentative call and response pattern as already implied is entertainment and to encourage the performers to put in more effort. Besides, it also creates an interesting situation for sustaining the audience's interest.

5.1.4.3 A semiotics of thematic preoccupations of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*

In this section, the thematic contents of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are discussed. By thematic content, we mean topics of discussion in the genres. The main themes identified by Ògúndèjì (1979) and Àlàbá (1985) in *orin agbè* include homage, supplication, initial self-introduction, panegyric and praise, entertainment and didacticism, discussion of social and political issues ongoing in society, satirical discussions, and cracking jokes etc. Besides, the main themes in *orin kete* include homage, adoration, supplication, children care, women advocacy, family planning, political and social comments, satirical discussion and jokes.

5.1.4.3.1 Semiotics of themes of homage and adoration in *orin kate* and *orin agbè*

Paying homage (*ìbà*) is very important and it is the first thematic preoccupation of discussion in Yorùbá oral poetic performance (Ògúndèjì, 1991, Ọpádoṭtun, 2002, Rájí,

Adéolá, Òjó, Táíwò & Àjùwòn, 2009). There are a lot of Yorùbá wise sayings that show the importance of paying homage and adoration. Among the Yorùbá, statements that show the importance of paying homage are as follow:

negatively affects a child Paying homage before doing things does not
2. Ewúré tó wọlé tí ò kágò A goat that strays into a house without paying homage
Ó deran àmúbofá Becomes a sacrifice to Ifá
Àgùtàn tó wolé tí ò kágò A sheep that strays into a house without paying homage
Ó deran àmúbôpèlè Becomes a sacrifice to Òpèlè 49
3. <i>Omo ò níí réni júbà kíbà hunmo</i> A child will not after paying homag gets into trouble
4. Béerin bá jí nínú igbó When an elephant wakes up in the forest
A şèbà fÓlú-Igbó It pays homage to Olú-Igbó
Béfòn bá jí lódàn When a buffalo wakes up in the savannah
A şèbà fÓlú-Òdàn It pays homage to Olú-Òdàn
Bárògìdìgbà jí lálệ odò When a giant catfish wakes up in the river bed
A şèbà fÓlúweri It pays homage to Olúweri

All these sayings show how important paying homage is in any activity a Yorùbá person wants to embark on, especially when elders are present. Oral artists who do not pay homage to the deities and elders are usually made to regret it. This is applicable to *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. The first thematic content in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* is a homage. Homage is paid to Olódùmarè and the deities related to childbearing, most especially Obàtálá and Alárá-Igbó in *orin kete*. Elders, both the physical and the spiritual, are greeted. The importance of homage paying in *orin kete* has a religious motive since the songs are meant to persuade deities, request for children and appeal to them. Homage in *orin kete* may be compared to praise and worship songs in the Christian worship context. In chapter four, we discussed extensively the importance of homage and adoration in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* from a structural point of view. Hence, *ìbà* (homage) is discussed from the thematic point of view and not from the structural point of view in this chapter. The main theme of the excerpt of *orin kete* below is homage.

⁴⁹ This is a chain cast by Ifá priests to consult Ifá oracle for different issues and solutions to them.

Lílé: Rírán la rán mi wá Èmi kộ mo ránra mi Àṣẹ dọwộ ẹni tó rán mi wá

Ègbè: Rírán la rán mi wá Èmi kộ mo ránra mi Àse dowó eni tó rán mi wá...

Ìṣàré: Afọlábí Omọyeni E kú ilé lọnà ibè yen

> Olúrìn Apènà Apènà Ògbóni Ijèní àgbé omo Bàvamù

Olóólà tí í mùkọ abẹ

Lábándé aríké-ewu-mábe

Ògùngùn lợsà

Ògùngùn lệbọ

Qmọ òkòlà kan òkòlà kàn

Òkòlà tí ò mò yín

Ní í gbowó ilà lówó èyin

Omóyeni

Omo onígèlèdé ará Ìbàrà

Qmo èjìré abé ìràwé...

Omoyeni

Má a bá mi sàmí àse Ọmọ ikú ayé Àbèní

Àbíyè ló jéya mi...

Qmo ewújù tí í je lábé èèkan

Òrẹ́ Ifá Àdùbí Ọmọ Olúrìn, hùn

Mo wá jubà fún un yín

Orin: Yòdoyòdo Yééyeèyéé Ọmọ Olúrìn o Omo tó o bí ò lè kú o Call: I was sent here
I did not send myself
Homage is due to the one
that sent me

Response: I was sent here
I did not send myself
Homage is due to the one
that sent me

Chant: Afolábí Omoyeni

I greet you to announce my

arrival

The Olùrin Apènà

The Apènà of Ògbóni cult Ìjèní agbé, the offspring of

Bàyamù

One who circumcises and

drinks a corn meal Lábándé, one whose hunchback fits while

holding circumcision knife One who has a cure in

lagoon water

One who has a cure in

making sacrifice

The offspring of the one

who circumcises

Only the circumciser who

does not know you Collects circumcision charges from you

Omóyeni

The offspring of gèlèdé

practitioner of Ìbarà

The child of twins under

dry leaves Omóyeni

Join me to say amen

Offspring of earthly death,

Àbèní

My mother is Àbíyè

Offspring of rat that roams

under the plants

The friend of Ifá Àdùbí Offspring of Olúrìn,

(humming)

I pay homage to you

song: *Yòdoyòdo Yééyeèyéé*

> Offspring of Olúrin Your children cannot die

Omo Olúrin o Offspring of Olúrin

Ègbè: Yòdoyòdo Response: Yòdoyòdo Yééveèyéé Yééveèyéé

Omo Olúrin o Offspring of Olúrin

Lílé: Ó yá ma gbÓgèdè jó o Call: Now I want to dance with Ògèdè 50

Omo Olúrin o Offspring of Olúrin

Ègbè: Yòdoyòdo Response: Yòdoyòdo Yééyeèyéé Yééyeèyéé

Qmo Olúrin o The offspring of

Olúrìn

At the beginning of the excerpt, the poet clarified that it was someone that sent him. If these should ask these questions; who sent the poet and to where was he sent? The song is an Ifá song sung by Ifá priests to pay homage to Olódùmarè (God), the creator of the universe. According to Dáramólá and Jéjé (1967), Olódùmarè has different names, among these are Akódá (The First Being), Aṣèdá (The Creator), Elédàá (The one who creates) and Orí (The inner head). So, the one who was referred by the poet to have sent him is Olódùmarè, the God that creates and the one that sends both humankind and the deities to the earth. Other spirit beings the poet might also be referring to in the poem are Alárá-Igbó, Ọbàtálá and Òrúnmìlà. The reason for this is that Daramola and Jéjé (1967) state that these two deities helped Olódùmarè both in moulding human structure (Ọbàtálá) and in choosing destiny (Òrúnmílà). If we relate this to *orin kete*, Ọbàtálá is among the deities the song is used to praise. As a result, the spirit beings being referred by the poet, to that have sent him/her, and to whom he/she is paying homage to are Olúdùmarè, Alárá-Igbó and Ọbàtálá.

In the sentences of the song, the poet foregrounded the fact that he was sent by Olódùmarè. The first two lines are repeating the same idea. The central idea that constitutes the lines is located in the predicator "rán" (to sent). The surface sentence structure "Rírán la rán mi wá" is a focus reconstruction form of "A rán mi wá ni". Likewise, "A rán mi wá ni" is an emphatic form of "A rán mi wá". To derive the surface structure "Rírán la rán mi wá," the gerundive and the partial reduplicated form of the verb "rán" (rírán) is moved to the initial stage of the sentence and the focus

⁵⁰ This is a Yorùbá name for an ape (i.e. chimpanzee) who is believed to be a drummer as reflected in the proverb, *gbogbo igi tí elégbèdè bá fowó bà dídún ló ń dún* (all trees *elégbèdè* beats produce sound). In the performance of *the gèlèdé* genre, there is a wooden masquerade named *ògèdè* (another name for *elégbèdè*). During *gélédé* festival, different *ògèdè* masquerades are displayed in the broad daylight for the festival celebration.

attention/emphatic marker "ni" is used to pay focus attention to it. The process is illustrated below.

A rán mi wá
 I was sent to come (Deep structure)
 A rán mi wá ni
 I was sent to come (Emphatic form)
 Rírán ni a rán mi wá
 It was sent I was sent to come (Focus reconstructure form and the surface structure of "I was sent to come")

It is, therefore, clear that the poet through the choice of the emphatic sentence structure and semantic repetition is reiterated the fact that he is a messenger, acting on the order of the sender. From the Yorùbá performance ethics perspective, paying homage is the key to having a successful performance. Homage is, therefore, a religio-cultural sign of respect in the performance of *orin kete*. The poet did not only pay homage to the beings that sent him, but he also adored the elderly Alárá-Igbó worshipper (Afolábí Omoyeni) on the seat. He praised her and revealed that her family belonged to the *Ìjèní Àgbé* lineage and referred to her compound (Olúrin Apènà) panegyrics. As one of the features of Yorùbá praise poetry, the relation of the figure in focus in the performance (her friend; Ifá Àdùbí) is mentioned. The last part of the excerpt is a song used to pray for her. The two words that start this song require critical attention. These words are "Yòdoyòdo and Yééyeèyéé". Both words are nonsensical idiophonic codes because they do not have lexical or dictionary meanings. It is, however, possible to trace these systems of signs (hypogram) to the roots (seme) from which they were generated. Yòdoyòdo is a reduplicated variant of yòdò as it is used in jàgíní yòdò 51. Yòdò is also traceable to an adverbial expression used to show human behaviour after eating sweet meat, "Ó ń jenu yòdò" (He is chewing enjoyably). From this point of view, yòdò signifies the manifestation of an action that one is pleased with. Reduplicating the word indicates a high manifestation of action that one is totally pleased with. The mid-tone on the second and fourth syllables of the reduplicated word is a tonal counterpoint device introduced to foregrounding creativeness.

The second word "Yééyeèyéé" is traceable to the seme, "yéè." "Yéè" is also an ideophonic lexicon used to express either pain or pleasure depending on the way the

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⁵¹ This is an idiophone to express the high-level celebration of victory, happiness and jubilation.

expression is said. A sharp saying of "yéè" signifies pain and dissatisfaction while a soft saying signifies pleasure and satisfaction. Reduplicating "yéè" gives a tonal counterpointual effect as done by the poet is an attempt to make the word fit into the musical-poetic rhythm of the song. The word is also deployed to achieve a tonal balancing of the hypogram (yòdoyòdo) preceding it.

Homage is also very important in *orin agbè*. Whenever the performers of this genre present their performances, despite the fact that the genre is not religiously related, homage and adoration are paid to Olódùmarè, God in Yorùbá belief, deities and as well the elders around. Below is an example of homage paid whenever the performers embark on a performance in another town. Immediately they arrive the venue or at the early stage of their performance, they sing the song:

Lílé: E jệ n bééré wó ò Call: Let me ask E jệ n bèèrè wò o Let me ask

 $\dot{E} \not\in ti \ i \ se \ nile \ yii \ o?$ What are your traditions in this

town?

E jệ n bèèrè wò Let me ask Ègbè: E jệ n bééré wó ò Response: Let me ask E jé n bèèrè wò o Let me ask

 $\dot{E} \not\in ti \ i \ se \ nile \ vii \ o?$ What are your traditions in this

town?

E jé n bèèrè wò Let me ask

In the foregoing, the poet clarified that he and his performers' group were strangers in the town where they were performing. As a result, he asked the people of the town about their traditions so that he would not make mistakes and incur unwarranted hostility. This is an aspect of homage paying in the Yorùbá socio-cultural setting. The fact is evident in the statement, "Àjèjì kì í mộ ón rìn bí onílè" (Strangers do not understand the terrain of the land like the indigenes). Understanding the terrain of a town means knowing the dos and don'ts of the people in a community. The semiotic significance of asking this question is to avoid being punished in case the performers break any customary code of the land. This is because they have initially declared their not being accustomed to the traditions of the land.

The language used in presenting the above *orin agbè* suggests more than the heuristic and the first /grammatical meanings of the usage. The first, second and the last sentences are full sentential repetition. As a Yorùbá proverb, when a statement is being repeated many times, there are always deep meanings underlying the repetition. This is the reason an adage says "Bí alágbède bá ń lu irin lójú kan, ó lóhun tó fé fà yọ" (When

the blacksmith is hammering the metal on the same spot, there is something he wants to fabricate). The underlying meaning the performers wanted to establish is to emphasise their ignorance of the traditions of the community. This is otherwise considered a metaphorical manner of paying homage. The tonal counterpoint on $b\acute{e}\acute{e}r\acute{e}$ and $b\grave{e}\grave{e}r\grave{e}$ as shown in the excerpt is note worthy. $B\acute{e}\acute{e}r\acute{e}$ is a nonsensical variant of $b\grave{e}\grave{e}r\grave{e}$ (to ask). $B\acute{e}\acute{e}r\acute{e}$ does not have dictionary meaning. Its total nonsenticality would have been glaring if $b\grave{e}\grave{e}r\grave{e}$ is not used to replace it in the second sentence. Hence, $b\acute{e}\acute{e}r\acute{e}$'s meaning depends on $b\grave{e}\grave{e}r\grave{e}$ is the root $b\acute{e}\acute{e}r\acute{e}$ can be traced to. The poetic effect $b\acute{e}\acute{e}r\acute{e}$ creates in the usage is a tonal counterpoint and without it, the statements would not have sounded poetic. The same thing applies to " $w\acute{o}$ " and " $w\grave{o}$ ", the former is just the poetic variant of the latter but it is in the former the poetic creativeness lies. The Fig. 5.2.i and Fig. 5.2ii. below illustrate the significations existing in the sentences of the song.

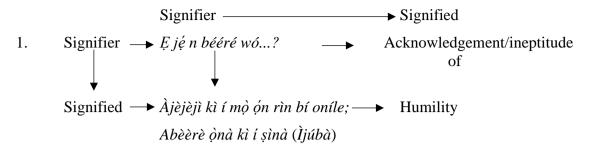


Fig. 5.2i. Ìkágò signification

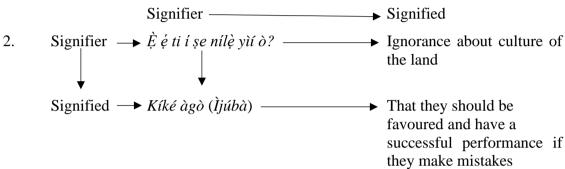


Fig. 5. 2ii. Ìkágò signification

What Figures 5.2. i. and 5.2. ii. above indicate as explained before is the demonstration of one's ignorance in a bid to pay homage and get favour supposing the rules of the land are broken.

5.1.4.3.2 Semiotics of themes, praise, status, position and worth of poetic characters in *orin kate* and *orin agbè*

Orin kete and orin agbè artists praise and boast of themselves during the performance (Àlàbá, 1985). Likewise, they praise personalities that are present at their performances. As Yorùbá people say, "Òbùtí làgbà" (One who distributes wine to others is the one to take first), the performers of kete and agbè songs usually praise themselves early at the beginning of the performance. They do this to introduce themselves and to make people know their worth. This is evident in the excerpt of kete songs below.

1. Lílé: Kódékódé lorin tiwa
Kò lè rè wá òòò
Kódékódé lorin tiwa
Kò lè rè wá ooo
Kò le rè wá oòòò
Ba bá dójú aré
Kò lè rè wá òòò
Ba bá dójú aré
Kódékódé lorin tiwa
Kò lè rè wá oòòò
Ègbè: Kódékódé lorin tiwa

Kodekode torin tiwa
Kò lè rệ wá òòò
Kódékódé lorin tiwa
Kò lè rệ wá ooo
Kò le rệ wá o
Ba bá dójú aré
Kò lè rệ wá oò
Ba bá dóju aré o
Kódékódé lorin tiwa
Kò lè rè wá ooo

2. Lílé: Bááyán bá daṣọ bóra Ìrệ lògá oòòò Bááyán bá daṣọ bóra Ìrệ lògá oòòò A han lórí alé

> Ìrệ lộgá oòòò A han lórí alé ooo

Bááyán bá daṣọ bóra Ìrệ lògá oòòò Call: Our song is always intact
We cannot get tired
Our song is always intact
We cannot get tired
We cannot get tired
When we are performing
We cannot get tired
When we are performing
Our song is always intact
We cannot get tired

Response: Our song is always intact
We cannot get tired
Our song is always intact
We cannot get tired
We cannot get tired
When we are performing
We cannot get tired

When we are performing Our song is always intact We cannot get tired

Call: Even if the cocroach is clothed
The cricket is its superior
Even if the cocroach is clothed
The cricket is its superior
Among those that stridulate at

night

Cricket is the superior

Among those that stridulate at

night

Even if the cocroach is clothed

Cricket is its superior

Ègbè: Bááyán bá daṣọ bóra Response: Even if the cocroach is clothed Ìrệ lògá oòòò The cricket is its superior Bááyán bá daso bóra Even if the cocroach is clothed Ìrè lògá oòòò The cricket is its superior A han lórí alé Among those that stridulate at night Ìrè lògá oòòò Cricket is the superior A han lórí alé ooo Among those that stridulate at night Bááyán bá daso bóra Even if the cocroach is clothed Ìrè lògá oòòò Cricket is its superior

In the first song, $k\acute{o}d\acute{e}k\acute{o}d\acute{e}^{52}$ is employed to show the stability of the performers' performance. The hypogram " $k\acute{o}d\acute{e}k\acute{o}d\acute{e}$ " is the reduplicated variant of $k\acute{o}d\acute{e}$; $k\acute{t}$ \acute{o} $d\acute{e}$ (that it should face down). " $D\acute{e}$ " (face down) is the *semes*, the root word. Because facing down is the sign of perfection in playing the $\grave{o}k\grave{o}t\acute{o}$ game, the word " $k\acute{o}d\acute{e}k\acute{o}d\acute{e}$ " (to mean it must face down) is employed by the performers in the above excerpt to show the perfection and the quality of their performance. As a result, " $k\acute{o}d\acute{e}k\acute{o}d\acute{e}$ " is a sign of quality, a qualisign which shows the quality of the song and therefore the performance of this $orin\ kete$ group. In the same vein, " $d\acute{e}$ " could mean "arrive". The word " $d\acute{e}$ " as it was reduplicated as $k\acute{o}d\acute{e}k\acute{o}d\acute{e}$ (a consistent act of arriving) is, therefore, signifies the consistency in the performance of the kete group. This is more evident if the sentence " $K\grave{o}\ l\grave{e}\ r\grave{e}\ w\acute{a}\ o\grave{o}\grave{o}\grave{o}$ " (We cannot get tired) and other sentences of the song are considered.

The second song depicts the quality of the performance and the status of the performers. Two images of insect are comparatively deployed for this purpose. The two insects are the cockroach and the cricket. The common feature for comparing the two insects as implicit from the lines of the song is their being winged insects. The wings are symbolically signified as clothes, making the imagery as personification since humans are the ones who wear clothes. The cricket is regarded as superior of the two because, in addition to covering its body with the winged-clothings, it also stridulates with it, producing a shrilling sound metaphorically described as "híhan". This also doubles as personification like the imagery of clothing.

The retroactive meaning of the word *híhan* (stridulation) in relation to the performance semiosphere of *orin kete* is the "song" the performers sing. The performers of *orin kete* in this wise referred to other performers as *aáyán* which claims to have a

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⁵² This is a word used to explain the perfect playing of $\partial k \partial t \delta$. $\dot{O}k \partial t \delta$ is a broken shell of a snail from the head side to the centre, leaving the object open. This is thrown to roll on the ground and was made to face down to show the perfection of the player.

complex set of wings as its covering but which cannot be made to stridulate like that of the cricket that are not complex compared to cockroach's wing. By implication, the *orin kete* performers metaphorically signifies themselves as the cricket and all other performers as cockroaches; meaning they are master/lead performers ($ir\dot{e}$) above all while others are followers ($a\acute{a}y\acute{a}n$).

Furthermore, in *orin agbè*, performers of the genre in the extract below showed their worth, they also boasted of the kind of performers they are:

1. Lílé: Báwa ti ń șe láàfin rè é ò Call: This is how we do at the

palace

Ègbè: Bàà ti ń şe láàfin rè é o Response: This is how we do at the

palace

2. *Lílé:* Àwa laláré ò Call: We are entertainers

Laláré oba òòò The king's entertainers

Àwa labèrà We are abèrà ⁵³

Àláré oba là á șe

The king's entertainers we

are

Ègbè: Àwa labệrà Response: We are abệrà

Àláré oba là á se The king's entertainers we

are

In the first and the second poetic extracts, the performers revealed their status and worth. They linked their performance to the palace. Palace in the Yorùbá traditional socio-cultural setting is the place of traditional authority. It is from the palace Yorùbá cities/towns and the environs are governed. As a result, people who have affiliations with palace are much more respected even when such people are king's slaves. $Agb\dot{e}$ artists are aware of this, so they make it known to people who might not know or who underrate them. Making this kind of announcement is a systematic way of requesting the honour that the king deserves from their audience. The palace is a semiosphere, signifying power, authority, royalty and honour, and there is a tendency that anything attached to it is accorded the same or nearly the same honour that the king is accorded.

In the second poetic line, the artists called themselves $al\acute{a}r\acute{e}$ oba (king's entertainers) and $\grave{a}b\grave{e}r\grave{a}$. Going down to the deep meaning of $\grave{a}b\grave{e}r\grave{a}$, if someone is called $\grave{a}b\grave{e}r\grave{a}$, it is to show how valuable such a person is. After the customer, who wants to hire him is ready to pay the full cost, he/she still needs to plead with him. Thus, $\grave{a}b\grave{e}r\grave{a}$ is a qualisign that depicts the valuable status of $agb\grave{e}$ artists and their performances. The

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⁵³ This is a short form of *eni tí a bè rà* (one who is persuaded before hiring him/her).

repetition of the utterances and the elongation of vowel sounds in both poetic excerpts are evidence of the emphasis laid by the poets on the issue.

When praising the personalities and dignitaries among their audiences, kete and agbè artists use different styles of language to represent the status of members of their audience, position and worth. This could be shown in the following example of orin kete:

Ìṣàré:	Kábíyèsí	Chant:	Kábíyèsí 54

I will go to my father N ó to bàbá mi lo

I move close to the king Mo sún móba níwòn egbèje within the space of one four hundred thousand

measure

N bá jìnnà sóba níwòn egbèfà I should have stayed away

from the king wthin the distance of one thousand two hundred measure

Aróbafín loba pa je The king kills whomever

disrespects him

Òtáòbálá n ó ki bàbá mi daadaa Òtáòbálá, I will praise my

father well

Drum voice: It is the king that I Èrù oba ni mo bà Ohùn ìlù:

fear

Oba tó King is expected to be

feared

Èrù oba ni mo bà It is the king that I fear Qba tó King is expected to be

feared

Orin: Oyèérògbà ni bábá ò Song: Oyèérògbà is the father That is ruling over us

Tó ń solórí wa

Ayé ilé

Oyèérògbà ni bábá ò Tó ń solórí wa

Bórí-adé se pò tó ò nì ò

Ègbè: Oyèérògbà ni bábá ò Response: Oyèérògbà is the

father

Tó ń solórí wa.. Baba Olúyemí Lílé:

Oyèérògbà ni bábá ò

Tó ń solóri wa

Ayé ilé

Oyèérògbà ni bábá ò

Tó ń solórí wa

Bórí-adé se pò tó ò nì ò

That is ruling over us

In this homely world Oyèérògbà is the father

That is ruling over us

As many kings as there are

The father of Olúyemí Call:

Oyèérògbà is the father That is ruling over us In this homely world Oyèérògbà is the father That is ruling over us

As many kings as there are

⁵⁴ This is an abbreviation of the clause, "Ká bi ó kờ sĩ" (You are not subjected to query or no one can query you). Yorùbá people refer to king this way to honour king's authorities. The word is another name for Yorùbà king (Qbà).

Ègbè: Oyèérộgbà ni bábá ò Response: Oyèérộgbà is the father

Tó ń solóri wa.. That is ruling over us

At the beginning of the song, the vocalist revealed how fearful and respectful the poetic character (Òtáòbólá called Òtáòbálá) was. This is even revealed through the tune of the drum. The interchanging of drum tune and chant as shown above is a sign of cooperation that exists between vocalists and drummers in Yorùbá oral poetry. The numerals (egbèje and egbèjà) used to show the The closeness and the relationship the vocalists had with the king is hyperbolic expression. It is deployed to show how fearful the king is. It is not that the vocalist in an actual sense moves close or stays away from him in the measure of the distance mentioned. The inconsistency in the position of the poet of getting close to and getting far away from the king is a sign of the unpredictability of very powerful people, including kings who are believed to have access to metaphysical powers.

Òtáòbólá is the family name of the poetic character whose worth is revealed in the above excerpt while his personal name is Oyèérògbà. Oyèérògbà who is also called the father of Olúyemí was the king (The Olú of Igbó-Orà) during the time the record of *kete* song in which the excerpt was drawn was released. The lead vocalist in his style of revealing the identity and worth of this character pointed to the fact that, among the kings of the communities in Igbó-Orà area, Oyèérògbà, the Olú of Igbó-Orà, is the leader of them all. The lead vocalist did not call the kings in Igbó-Orà *Oba* directly, rather, he called them *Ori-adé*. *Orí-adé* in this sense is a short form of "*Ori ti ó ń dé adé*" (The head that wears the crown). Crown is a sign of royalty as showns in the saying, "*Adé-ori la fì i mobà, ìlèkè la fi i mòjòyè*". This is to mean "Kings are identified by the crown on their heads while chiefs are identified by the beads they wear". It should be noted that identifying the king as "*orí-adé*" is metonymic signification.

While praising the poetic character in the *orin agbè* below, the worth of a poetic character, a member of the audience, is revealed.

1. Lílé: Bínré lolórí alédé Call: Bínré is the leader of

kings

On your neck is the royal

bead

Akínfémi, the king of Ìmia

Response: Bínré is the leader of

kings

You wear king's beads Akínfémi, the king of Ìmia

Ìlèkè ọba ní ń bẹ lórùn rẹ ò Akínfémi Ọba ìlú Ìmia

Ìlèkè oba ní ń be lórùn re ò

Akínfémi Qba ìlú Ìmia

Ègbè: Bínré lolórí alédé

2. *Lílé: Akínfémi baba wa ló lagbè* Call: Akínfémi, our father, owns the gourd

Ègbè: Tá a fì ń jó

Response: That we play and dance

Lílé: Adéwùmí baba wa ló lagbè Call: Adéwùmí, our father, owns the gourd

Ègbè: Tá a fi ń jó... Response: That we play and dance to

3. *Lílé: Baba ó fèwù tọrẹ* Call: Father will give a cloth away

Baba ó fi láwàní tọre Father will give turban

Ègbè: Baba ó fèwù tọre Response: Father will give cloth

away

Lílé: Baba ó fi láwàní tọre

Call: Father will give turban

away

Ègbè: Baba ó fèwù tọre Response: Father will give cloth away

In the first excerpt, the poetic character is Bínré. Bínré is a short form of Bámiré. He is called the leader of other kings. It is, therefore, not surprising that he wears royal beads. He is called Akínfémi, the king of Ìmia. During our interview with Chief Ojóawo, the Baàṣègùn of Ilùà, we were made to know that among the kings in the Kájolà Local Government, the Onímia probably has the longest historical tradition. This is the reason, the incumbent Onímia, King Akínfémi, is called the leader of the kings. Identifying Akínfémi as the leader of kings is not an overstatement. The statement, "On your neck is royal beads" or "It is the royal beads you wear" is an affirmative statement depicting the quality of the beads King Akínfémi wears. Like adé (crown), kings can also be identified with $il\dot{e}k\dot{e}$ (beads). The quality of royal beads is a qualisign that shows levels even among kings. For Akínfémi to wear such beads means he is a king of the high cadre.

In the second excerpt, Akínfémi and Adéwùmí are listed as pioneering practitioners of agbè performance. They are adulated as having owned the gourds which the artists play. This is a respect of the highest order. What the statement suggests is that the two progenitors were themselves masters of agbè performance who had trained generations of performers after them, including the current ones.

There are partial sentential repetitions in the second and third excerpts above. The name Akínfémi and Adéwùmí could replace each other in the sentence structure. Also, èwù and láwàní can substitute each other in the first and second sentences of the

third song. As $\dot{e}w\dot{u}$ can feature in the position láwàní features, Akínfémi can Adéwùmí can also feature in each other's position as shown in the sentence frame below.

- i. #(Akínfémi or Adéwùmí) baba wa ló lagbè#
- ii. #Baba ó fi(èwù or láwìní)..... tọrẹ#

It is evident in the examples above that the sentence structures "#......... baba wa ló lagbè#" of the second excerpt is repeated. Because the noun "Akínfémi" is substituted with "Adéwùmí" in the second call of the song, the sentence is not full but partially repeated. This also occurs "#Baba ó fi(èwù or láwìní)........................ tọrẹ#." The substitution of "èwù" and "láwàní" in the sentence makes these sentences partial sentential repetition.

Èwú and láwàní have a unifying feature. Both of them are fabric materials, they are clothing. Èwù is worn to cover the body while láwàní is tied round the head. Láwàní is a religious sign. It is the Yorùbá borrowed form of "rawanni" (turban in the Hausa language). Turban is a native head tie of different tribes in the Middle East and the Arab world. Nigerian and African Muslims follow this tradition because their prophet (Muhammad) is claimed to be fond of wearing of turban. Some people of northern Nigeria and nationalities of countries like Niger, Mali, Somalia, Sudan, Chad and many others have been coming to Yorùbáland to beg for money, clothes (to include láwàní) and food items a long time ago. So, the hypogram "Baba ó fi láwàní tore" can be traced to these people's style of begging adopted by agbè artists to solicit gifts during their performances. The poetic character in this excerpt is shown to be a philanthropist who gives charity to the needy.

5.1.4.3.3 Religious thematic semiotics in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*

Many Yorùbá oral poems are religiously related. Among oral genres in this category are $iy\dot{e}r\dot{e}$ $if\dot{a}$, $\dot{e}s\dot{a}$, $r\dot{a}r\dot{a}$ $\dot{S}\dot{a}ng\dot{o}$ and $ij\dot{a}l\dot{a}$. We have discussed this in chapter two. Apart from being religiously related, the theme of religion is discussed in many Yorùbá oral poems. For example, in $ek\dot{u}n$ $iy\dot{a}w\dot{o}$ (nuptial poem) as shown in $\dot{O}p\dot{a}d\dot{O}$ tun (2002), the bride asks her family to put any item of food they eat on the ground to sacrifice her Ort^{55} (inner head) after her departure to her matrimonial home. Since religion, as an

taking the meal together with but not present at the particular point in time.

⁵⁵ Orí is believed to be a deity. Dáramólá and Jéjé (1976) believe that Orí is another name for Elédàá (The Creator). One of the ways Orí is worshipped is *ìyánlè*. This is a religious practice whereby food items are thrown on the ground in respect of someone's inner head, mainly, somebody that one is supposed to be

integral part of the Yorùbá people, cannot be separated from their everyday's life, religion as a theme is therefore represented in Yorùbá secular poetry.

Orin kete is a religiously related poetry but not only restricted to a religious context. It is also performed on secular occasions. In religious aspects of the genre, orin kete is a means of soliciting the help of the deities to which the genre is related. The deployment of kete ensemble is an inclusion of the voice of Àyàn, the drum's deity, in the religious practices of Ọbàtálá, Alárá-Ìgbó, Ìbejì and Ìrókò worships. The religious themes discussed in orin kete include praise of the deities, the importance of adhering to the religious articles of faith, thanksgiving, request and prayer, boasting about being a member, and the relevance of religious practices. Examples are in the extracts of orin kete below.

nere i	ociow.			
1.	Lílé:	Músò o	Call:	Músò o (hurray!)
	È - 1- \	E bá mi dá músò fAráagbó	Daama	Join me to praise Ará-Igbó
	Egbe:	Músò o	Kespo	nse: Músò o (hurray!)
		E bá mi dá músò fAráagbó		Join me to praise Ará-Igbó
2.	Lílé:	Lónìí lòsè Obàtálá	Call:	Today is Ōbàtálá's weekly day of worship
		Ę jòwó ę má jiyò o		Please, do not eat salt
	Ègbè:	Lónìí lòsè Obàtálá	Respo	nse: Today is Ōbàtálá's weekly day of worship
	Lílé:	Ę jòwó ę má jiyò o	Call:	Please, do not eat salt
		Lónìí lòsè Obàtálá		nse: Today is Obàtálá's
	Ü		-	weekly day of worship
	Lílé:	Ìyá ní n má jiyọ̀ o	Call:	Mother says I should not eat salt
	Ègbè:	Lónìí lòsè Obàtálá	Respo	nse: Today is Ōbàtálá's weekly day of worship
	Lílé:	Lónìí lòsè Obàtálá	Call:	Today is Obàtálá's weekly day of worship
		Ìyá ní mo tún gbadùn o		Mother says I am healed
	Ègbè:	Lónìí lòsè Obàtálá	Respo	nse: Today is Obàtálá's weekly day of worship
	Lílé:	Ìyá ní n má jiyọ̀ o	Call:	Mother says I should not eat salt
	Èghè:	Lónìí lòsè Obàtálá	Respo	nse: Today is Obàtálá's
	-6-0		P	weekly day of worship
	Lílé:	Ę jàré ę má jiyò	Call:	Please, do not eat salt
		Lónìí lòsè Obàtálá		nse: Today is Obàtálá's
	2,000	20 1,3,¢	respo	weekly day of worship

In the first excerpt, the worshippers praised Alárá-Igbó. A call of hurray was made as a sign of praising and showing respect to her. We have discussed earlier that *músò* is used

as an exclamation of joy by worshippers of Alárá-Igbó to call one another to order, especially when they are singing Alárá-Igbó songs of worship. To sing a new song, the singer calls: "E da múso o" (Let say hurray) and other worshippers respond "Múso o" (Hurray!). In this context of using múso, the word is an indexical sign of maintaining orderliness during Alárá-Igbó religious performances. But in the above song, múso o is used to mean praise rather than expressing excitement, pleasure or approval of satisfaction with Alárá-Igbó.

The second excerpt is a worship song of Obàtálá. As revealed in this study, many Alárá-Igbó worshippers do not worship the deity in isolation, they worship it along with other deities related to children like Obàtálá, Ìbèjì, Ìrókò, Kórìkóto and Òṣun. This is evident in the description of the location of the Alárá-Igbó's shrine discussed earlier. The thematic focus in the above Obàtálá song is an Obàtálá religious taboo. Obàtálá worshippers do not eat salt mainly on their weekly worship day (Ojó Òsè Obàtálá). As a sign, the song serves as a reminder of the taboo. Singing about the religious article of faith such as this is a veritable strategic means of coping and inculcating religious tenets in all world religious homes. The religious thematic preoccupation in *orin agbè* is minuscule. This is because *orin agbè* is primarily a secular song. The religious discussion in the genre surfaces in the homage, especially when the homage is to Yorùbá deities.

5.1.4.3.4 Women-children thematic semiotics in *orin kate* and *orin agbè*

Women and children-related issues are major thematic preoccupations in *orin kete*. As said earlier, *orin kete* is sung during the worship of children related deities like Obàtálá, Alárá-Igbó, Òrìṣà Ìbèjì and Ìrókò Olúwéré. Because Obàtálá is the moulder of human beings, the Yorùbá people worship him and solicit children from him. Likewise, Alárá-Igbó is worshipped mainly by women. Women and children issues are among the themes found in *orin kete* used in the worship of the above mentioned deities. Special attention is not paid to women and children issues in *orin agbè*. This is, however, not to say that they are not discussed at all. There are cases in *orin agbè* where women are satirised as a result of social vices like promiscuity, greed, covetousness and disloyalty. Comparing the frequency of thematisation of issues related to women and children in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*, it is clear that women and children are more discussed in *orin kete* than in *orin agbè*. Women and children are discussed from both religious and social perspectives in *orin kete* while they are mainly discussed from a social perspective in

orin agbè. Discussions on women and children take different dimensions in orin kete. Sometimes it is discussed from the point of women's needs and requests; in other words, women's eagerness to have children of their own. This occurs when women are barren and are making religious requests for children to any of the aforementioned deities. The excerpt below demonstrates the foregoing viewpoints.

Lílé: Ìràwé mò ń gbá lójú-egbé Call: It was dry leaves that I was sweeping at the shrine Lomo fò mómi láso Then a baby jumped at my wrapper Ègbè: *Ìràwé mò ń gbá lójú-ęgbę* Response: It was dry leaves that I was sweeping at the shrine Then a baby jumped at my wrapper Lílé: Lọmọ fò mộmi lásọ Call: Ègbè: *Ìràwé mò ń gbá lójú-egbé* Response: It was dry leaves that I was sweeping at the shrine Lílé: Lomo fò mómi láso Call: Then a baby jumped at my wrapper Ègbè: *Ìràwémò ń gbá lójú-egbé* Response: It was dry leaves that I was sweeping at the shrine Lomo fò mómi láso Then a baby jumped at my wrapper Response: It was dry that leaves I was Ègbè: *Ìràwémò ń gbá lójú-egbé* sweeping at the shrine

The song above was rendered by a formerly barren woman whose prayer was answered because of the sacrifice she made at ojú-egbé, which is an outer shrine of Alárá-Igbó. It is a place surrounded by banana trees. It is usually leafy and always needs to be swept by worshippers. The worshipper who sang the song was testifying to how her barrenness was cured. Hence, the theme discussed in the song is the theme of procreation. The emphatic clause "Lomo fò mómi láso" which we translated as "Then a baby jumped at my wrapper" is an idiomatic expression. The semantic incongruity in the subjectpredicate association indicates that the expression is idiomatic. It is impossible for a newborn baby to jump at all let alone of jumping at the woman's wrapper. The circumstances leading to the song and its semiotic space are noteworthy. Considering "Omo fifò mó láso" (a child jumping at someone's wrapper) is a signification of getting pregnant. There is another version of the song where the barren woman was struggling with other women in the same condition and appealed to her mate, to get out of her way so that the unseen babies believed to be at ojú egbé would notice her. As a result, her prayer might also be answered.

Ìràwé mò ń gbá lójú-egbé It is dry leaves that I am sweeping Lílé: Call: at the shrine E kóbè kómo rí mi Get out of the way so that babies

can see me

Ègbè: Ìràwé mò ń gbá lójú-egbé Response: It is dry leaves that I am sweeping at the shrine

Lílé: E kóbệ kómọ rí mi Call: Get out of the way so that babies

can see me

Ègbè: Ìràwé mò ń gbá lójú-ęgbę Response: It is dry leaves that I am sweeping at the shrine

Lílé: E kóbè kómo rí mi Call: Get out of the way so that babies

can see me

Ègbè: Ìràwé mò ń gbá lójú-egbé Response: It is dry leaves that I am

sweeping at the shrine

Lílé: E kóbè kómo rí mi Call: Get out of the way so that babies

can see me

Ègbè: Ìràwé mò ń gbá lójú-egbé Response: It is dry leaves that I am

sweeping at the shrine

Though the thematic focus of the above piece is also procreation, its presentation differs from the earlier version. The semiosphere of the two differs slightly. The desire of the first poetic character to procreate has been fulfilled, hence the song is a testimony. The second woman's desire is yet to be fulfilled, hence the appealing tone to her mates to make room for the babies to see her. "E kóbệ kómọ rí mi" (Get out of the way so that babies can see me) should be retroactively read as a prayer that she may also get pregnant.

Apart from this, there are examples of social discussion of women in *orin kete*. Most of such discussions are satirical songs about women. This is an example;

Lílé: Bóbìnrin ó kọkọ yóó rojó o Call: When a woman wants to divorce,

she will complain

Bóbìnrin ò koko yóó rojó o When a woman wants to divorce,

she will complaint

Bó bá setán tí ó lọ But when she is ready to leave Kò ní ì wí fénìkan ò She will not inform anybody

Ègbè: Bóbìnrin ó kọkọ yóó rojó o Response: When a woman wants to

divorse, she will complaints

In this *kete* song, women's behaviours towards divorce are satirised. The Yorùbà believe that women are hypocrites. This is reflected in the proverb, "Èké lobìnrin, òdàlè lobìnri, bóbìnrin lóko méjì, a fikan pamó". This is to mean "Women are hypocrites, they are traitors; when women have two husbands, they hide one". The poets in the above song pointed to the behaviours of women when they are about to divorce their husbands. The first of the two behaviours mentioned is that women put forward a lot of complaints. The second behaviour is that when they have made up their minds, they will not inform anybody before they pack out of their matrimonial homes. The act of not informing anyone before packing out of one's matrimonial home is hypocritical behaviour. The essence of not informing or telling anybody is that people will not intervene to settle the

issue. The theme discussed in the song above is the act of hypocrisy women display when planning to divorce.

Women's involvement in child care, family planning and child development are represented in *orin kete*. The reason *orin kete* is so concerned about women and children is that childbearing and curing of barrenness are what brought about *orin kete*. Let us consider the following examples of *orin kete* where the theme of child care and family planning are mentioned.

•	U			
1.	Ègbè:	Abímomáto Òrò é dòla	Respo	You that do not train children nse: Your regrets will come tomorrow
		Abímomáto	Call:	You that do not train children
	Ègbè:	Òrò é dòla	Respo	nse: Your regrets will come tomorrow
2.	Lílé:	Àwé lẹ wé o	Call:	It is the pregnant of the second child you concieved
		Lọmộ dòròrò kalệ		That the first child is deformed
	Ègbè:	Àwé lẹ wé o	Respo	nse: It is the pregnant of the second
	O	•	1	child you concieved
		Lọmộ dòròrò kalệ		That the first child is deformed
	Lílé:	Lọmộ doròrò kalệ ò	Call:	That he/she suffers malnutrition
		Lọmọ dòròrò kalệ o		That he/she suffers malnutrition
	Ègbè:	Àwé lẹ wé o	Respo	nse: It is the pregnant of the second child you concieved
		Lọmọ dòròrò kalệ ò		That the first child is deformed

 In *orin agbè*, women and children issues are also explored. Ìyáwó Agbè in the performance of *orin agbè* satirises women's seductive behaviours in order to entertain and educate the audience. Though Ìyàwó Agbè's heuristic signification in *orin agbè* performance surrounds female beauty and dancing skills, her satirical castigation as reflected in the lyrics of the song below calls for a retroactive signification reconsideration. The call and response as reflected in Ògúndèjì (1979) is as follow:

Lílé: Ìyàwó agbè ò Call: The wife of àgbè Ègbè: Bó ṣe dára tó kò lómó Response: As beatiful as she is, she has no breast

The practice of cross-dressing was not a social menace in traditional Yorùbá society as it has become now. It will, therefore, not be right to see Ìyàwó Agbè as a commentary on the issue. It can, however be seen as a commentary on women who use fake breasts (pads) as breasts and those who use padded pants to make their buttocks and heaps look bigger than their natural gifts, all in an attempt to seduce men.

The contemporary version of the Ìyàwó Agbè lyrics lays more emphasis on the heuristic meaning than on the retroactive meaning:

_	Ìyàwó agbè ò	Call:	The wife of <i>àgbè</i>
Ègbè:	Bó șe dára ló mộ ón jó	Response:	As beatiful as she is, she can also dance
Lílé:	Ìyàwó agbè ò	Call:	The wife of <i>àgbè</i>
	Bó se dára ló mộ ọn jó	Response:	As beatiful as she is, she can also
	2	~ ·	dance
Lílé:	Àșoo le tàkìtì o	Call:	So, you cannot
.	7	_	perform acrobatics
Egbè:	Ijó lo mộ ọn jó	Response:	It is only dance that you can perform
Lílé:	Àșoo le tàkìtì o	Call:	So, you cannot
			perform acrobatics
Ègbè:	Ijó lo mộ ọn jó	Response:	It is only dance that
1 (16)	Ó yá, Ìyàwó agbè ò	Call:	you can perform
_			The wife of àgbè
Egbè:	Bó ṣe dára ló mộ ọ́n jó	Response:	As beatiful as she
			is, she can also
			dance

Chief John Adégòkè, the Bàbá Ọbà of Ìmia, was asked why the song was modified during an interview session had with him. He explained that the song was modified

because it seemed they were abusing themselves as people continued to deploy the song to abuse the performer of Ìyàwó Agbè even after the performance. The version of the lyrics also castigates Ìyàwó Agbè because she cannot perform acrobatics. The vocalists as members of the performance group were already aware of the fact that all that made Ìyàwó Agbè to have a feminine outlook were fake. They knew if Ìyàwó Agbè should try acrobatics, all what she used to make the fake breasts and buttocks would fall apart. This is another satirical element on the part of Ìyàwó Agbè's role. This as a sign is an iconic signification of the fragility and perishability of fake body parts which many female celebrities and some men cross-gender spend millions on plastic surgery to have female body parts in contemporary time.

5.1.4.3.5 Semiotics of socio-political themes in *orin kate* and *orin agbè*

Since literature is part of the social life of African people, there is inseparable relationship between literature and society. Social and political issues are discussed in oral African literature. In *orin kete* and *orin agbè*, the case is not different. In *orin kete*, many social behaviour and issues are depicted apart from the theme of women and children discussed above. For example, during the installation of the new Olú of Igbó-Orà on the 25th of May, 2019, the performers warned the newly installed king to be careful of people, most especially his rivals because people do not really love the head that wears the crown. This is evident in the song below.

Lílé: Aṣóróolú máa bèrù èèyàn Call: Fear human beings,

Așóróolú

Aṣóróolú máa bệrù èèyàn Fear human beings, Asóróolú

Ayé ò féni pèlú adé o Human beings do not love

one with crown
Asóróolú máa bệrù èèyàn
Fear human beings,

Asóróolú

Ègbè: Aṣóróolú máa bèrù èèyàn Response: Fear human beings, Aṣóróolú

Aṣóróolú máa bệrù èèyàn Fear human beings,

Așóróolú Waria de la companya
Ayé ò féni pèlú adé o Human beings do not love one with crown

Aşóróolú máa bệrù èèyàn... Fear human beings,

Aṣóróolú

Lílé: Máa bệrù èèyàn Call: Fear human beings

Èèrà ò fé pòpórò dénú o The ants do not truly love

the straw

Aşóróolú máa bèrù èèyàn

Ègbè: Ayé ò féni pèlú adé o

Aşóróolú máa bệrù èèyàn

Fear human being, Aṣóróolú Human beings do not love one with crown Fear human beings, Asóróolú

Asóróolú dynasty is one of the ruling houses in Ìgbó-Ora. King Jimoh Olájídé Títíloyè Asoróolú was not the only contesntants for the position. Since he was the one installed as the king, he was strongly warned by the singers to be careful because some were not happy with him for attaining the new position. In the Yorùbá kingship system, the system of making the king is usually open to contestants who have equal rights to the throne. Mostly in Yorùbá land, the contestants for kingship position are male children of the family. When one of them is finally selected, it may lead to underground rivalry. One Yorùbá proverb says "Orí ikú lorí ade, orun ìjàgbòn lorùn oyè" which means "the head that wears the crown is prone to death, likewise the neck that wears chieftaincy beads is prone to serious trouble". *Orí adé* (literally head of crown) and *orùn ìlèkè* (literally neck of beads) are iconic signs. Ori adé iconises a king or kingship position while orun ilèkè (neck of beads) iconises a chief or chieftaincy position. The first identification feature of a Yorùbá king is the crown. Similarly, Yorùbá chiefs wear beads as a means of identification. Since chiefs in Yorùbá land wear only beads and not crowns, they are also referred to as *orun ileke* (neck of beads). It should be noted that the king wears beads in addition to the crown and other regalia of his office.

Moreover, the expression " $\grave{E}\grave{e}r\grave{a}$ \grave{o} $f\acute{e}$ $p\grave{o}p\acute{o}r\grave{o}$ $d\acute{e}n\acute{u}$ o" translated as "The ants do not truly love the straw" is a metaphoric signification. The metaphoric comparison is between $\grave{e}\grave{e}r\grave{a}$ (the ants) and $p\grave{o}p\acute{o}r\grave{o}$ (the straw), on one hand, and the subjects and their king, on the other hand. The code of signification which is the similarity between the king and its subject is the metaphoric meaning of $p\grave{o}p\acute{o}r\grave{o}$ and $\grave{e}\grave{e}r\grave{e}$. Just as the $p\grave{o}\acute{o}r\grave{o}$ houses the $\grave{e}\grave{e}r\grave{a}$, the king is also responsible for the well being of the subjects (houses them). In the same manner, just as the ants feed and destroy the $p\grave{o}p\acute{o}r\grave{o}$, some, if not all the subjects, are not happy with the king and always work in opposition to his leadership. The thematic focus of the above poetic lines is that of warning against the havoc that the rivalry between the contestants for kingship can cause.

Obà (the king) is considered the head of a Yorùbá community's political and social affairs. The following excerpt also reveals a political theme that reflects the status of the Yorùbá king.

Lílé: Qba ò Call: The king

Oba aláṣe The authoritative king

Qba The king

Kí lệ ń foba pè? To whom do you compared

the king?

Ègbè: Oba ò Response: The king

Qba aláse The authoritative king

Oba The king

The above song is a popular song adapted by oral artists. The song reveals the importance and the worth of a king. It is mentioned in the song that a king is authoritative. The answer to the rhetorical question in the last line of the song is that the king is the ruler with authority and the leader of society.

The socio-political economic situations of Nigeria are depicted in the lyric of *orin kete* as shown below.

Ìṣàré: Eyin ará ibí Chant: O you people

Mo tún dáyẹn dúró ná I stop going in that

direction

Méwàá lohùn lénu mi I have ten different voices Igba aṣo ní ń be lára alágemo Chamelon changes to two

hundred colours

Omo Láselé The offspring of Láselé

Mo tún dé I'm back

Èyin òṣèlú You, the politicians *N ó bi yín lọrọ kệ ẹ gbọ* I want to ask you

something and you should

listen

*Eyin òmòwé*You, the elite

Nó bi yín lórò ké e gbó

I want to ask you

something and you should

listen

 $N \acute{o} b\acute{a} a y\acute{n} l\acute{o}r\grave{o}\grave{o}\grave{o}$ I want to ask you

something

N ó bá a yín lộrộ kệ e gbộ I want to ask you

something and you should

listen

E fetí sílè ké e gbóBe attentive and listenNjó ye ká lépoShould we have crude oilKá jìyà epò?And still suffer for it?Àwa làwa lépoWe have crude oilÀwa làwa ń jìyà epoAnd we still suffer for itNjó ye ká tún lépoShould we have crude oilKá tún jìyà epoAnd still suffer for it?

Our leaders

Go and think about it

 $\grave{E}gb\grave{e}: \ E \ l\grave{o}\acute{o}\acute{o}\ f\grave{e}r\grave{o}\ s\acute{o}$ Response: Go and think about it

Olórí ìlú wa

E lòó fèrò sí o

E lòó fèrò sí ò Go and think about it Eyìn olómòwée wa You, the elite E lòó fèrò si Go and think about it Lílé: E lòó fèrò sí ò Go and think about it E lòó fèrò sí ò Go and think about it Ègbè: Eyìn olómòwée wa You, the elite E lòó fèrò si Go and think about it Orin: Ó ye ká rórí jinlè Song: We need to deeply think Ká sohun rere And do good Èyìn òşèlú You, the politicians Ìioba The government E jé ká ronú jinlè Let us think deeply Ká se daadaa And do good E jé ronú jinlè You had better think deeply Ká sohun rere And do good E jé ká ronú jinlè Let us think deeply Ká sohun rere And do good Èyin òmòwé wa ní Nàìjá Our elite in Nigeria E wógbón dá Apply a functional strategy Èyìn òsèlú wa ní Nàijá Our politicians in Nigeria E wógbón dá Apply a functional strategy E jé ká ronú jinlè Let us think deeply Ká sohun rere And do good Ègbè: È bá jé á ronú jinlè I plead, let us think deeply Ká sohun rere And do good E bá jé ká ronú jinlè I plead, let us think deeply And do good Ká sohun rere Èyin òmòwé wa ní Nàìjá Our elite in Nigeria E wógbón dá Apply a functional strategy Èyìn òsèlú wa ní Nàijá Our politicians in Nigeria E wógbón dá Apply a functional strategy E jệ ká ronú jinlè Let us think deeply Ká sohun rere And do good Lílé: Sáú REP ńkó? Call: How is Sáú, the Representative (at Federal House of Representatives) Şó ń be lálàáfià ara Is he fine? Bíléèdì The razor blade Ègbè: È bá jé á ronú jinlè Response: Let us think deeply Ká sohun rere And do good E bá jé ká ronú jinlè Let us think good Ká sohun rere And do good Èyin òmòwé wa ní Nàìjá Our elite in Nigeria E wógbón dá Apply a functional strategy Èyìn òsèlú wa ní Nàijá Our politicians in Nigeria E wógbón dá Apply a functional strategy E jệ ká ronú jinlè Let us think deeply

And do good...

Ká sohun rere...

The above is a piece of advice to political stakeholders in the country. The poet started by arresting the attention of his listeners and telling them that he wanted to say something new and important. In the statements "Méwàá lohùn lénu mi" (I have ten different voices) and "Igba aṣo ní ń bẹ lára alágemo" (Chameleon changes to two hundred colours), there are idiomatic and metaphoric clarifications that indicate the competency of the poet in discussing different topics germane to the society. Having ten different voices is evidence of this claim and also comparing oneself with alágemo signifies this. Alágémo (chameleon) biologically changes to different colours. Alágemo in this regard is a physical sign of quality and capability. Relating this to how the poet compared himself to it, this signifies the quality of having the potential and capability of discussing different themes, including the politics.

The lead singer continued by asking politicians why his country which is proud of having *epo* (crude oil) still suffered fuel scarcity. Generally, *epo* is the Yorùbá word for oil. The word can take a qualifier usually appended to narrow down the meaning as in *epo pupa* (red/palm oil) and *epo bentiróò* (petroleum). Crude oil could just have been *epo ròbì*. The synechdocal use of *epo* instead of *epo ròbì* in the musical performance semiosis would, therefore, be retroactively understood. The singers warned politicians who they believed are in control of the nation's economy to critically review the situation, restrategise and make corrections. The warning and advice are, however, not restricted to politicians, the elite called *olómòwé/òmòwé* are included. The *òmòwé* referred to in the song are bureaucrats and top government officials who are involved in the country's political and economic decision making, not necessarily the academics, who are known by the nomenclature. Nevertheless, as used, *omòwé/olómòwé* does not exclude them. An alternative generic term that would have served the purpose is *alákòwé* (the educated or literate ones).

As shown by Ògúndèjì (1979:51-52), the death of General Murtala Muhammed and his succession by Lieutenant General Olúṣṣ́gun Ọbásanjó made the topic of *agbè* song stated below.

Lílé: Olóyè kú folóyè sílè o Call: A chief dies leaving other chiefs behind

Ègbè: Àlùjenrenkújen Response: Àlùjenrenkújen

Lílé: Bíná bá kú a férú bojú Call: When fire is out, ashes are left

behind

Ègbè: Àlùjenrenkújen Response: Àlùjenrenkújen

Lílé: Ògệdệ kú fọmọ ệ rópò Call: The plantain tree dies replacing

itself with its young ones

Ègbè: Àlùjenrenkújen Response: Àlùjenrenkújen

Lílé: Múrítàlá folóyè sílè o Call: Múrítàlá left behind chiefs

Ègbè: Àlùjenrenkújen Response: Àlùjenrenkújen

Lílé: Olúségun e kúùlédèèè Call: Olúségun well done, for holding

the fort

Ègbè: Àlùjenrenkújen Response: Àlùjenrenkújen

As Ògúndèjì (1979) notes, the aborted *coup d'etat* that led to the demise of the late General Murtala Muhammed and how Lieutenant General Olúṣṣ́gun Ọbáṣanjó succeeded him was captured in the above lyric of *orin agbè*. The thematic focus is political. Attention needs to be paid to the style by which the theme was presented. The singers adopted the Yorùbá folkloric song structural style. In the storyline of the folktale from which the song is adapted, the existing drought in the animal kingdom makes dog to take its mother to heaven and hide her when other animals have killed and eaten theirs. Dog goes to its mother to eat and is not affected by the drought. He yields to tortoise's fervent plea and goes with it to eat a meal with its mother in heaven. Tortoise and its family go behind dog to mimick dog's entrance song to its mother's heavenly house. The song's response is "*Àlùjenrenkújen*", as used in the above song. Whenever dog sings the song, its mother throws a long rope by which it ascends the heaven. Because the weight of the tortoise's family is too heavy for the rope, dog's mother releases, the rope snaps. Tortoise and its family members fall, cracking and breaking shells (Babalolá, 1973).

The artists adopted this style of folkloric song for a purpose. This folkloric song was deployed to relay the political situation of Nigeria during the time General Murtala Muhammed was assassinated. Besides, the political instability and the grievances of some military men, including inter-ethnic rivalry as a result of the Biafra war which memory was still fresh as at the period of General Murtala Muhammed's rule served as the background for the political theme inherent in the song. The Nigerian situation at the historical period was characterised by hardship, drought and loss of lives and property.

The word "Àlùjenrenkújen" is a nonsensical code as it lacks dictionary meaning. Despite its nonsensical status, some *semes* (root words) are traceable to this sign. These are "lù" to mean "to beat"; "je" meaning "to eat"; "eran⁵⁶" meaning "meat or animal" and "kú" which means "to die" or "fond of". In "Àlùjenrenkújen", there exist some verbal phrases. These are "lu eran kú" (beat animal till death) and "je eran kú" (eat animal/meat till death or eating too much of meat). Both of these verbal phrases indicate

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⁵⁶Animals are otherwise called *eran* by the Yorùbá people. If we consider the background folktale, all aminal killed and eat the meat (*eran*) of their mothers.

the situation of things in the background folklore. All the animals except the dog beat their mothers till death and eat them. In the case of " $\grave{A}l\grave{u}jenrenk\acute{u}jen$ ", both phrases are combined as " $lujenrenk\acute{u}je$ " which becomes the nonsensical phrase " $l\grave{u}jenrenk\acute{u}je$ ". This verbal phrase is nominalised with " \grave{a} -" (\grave{a} - + $l\grave{u}jenrenk\acute{u}je$ n) to become " $\grave{A}l\grave{u}jenrenk\acute{u}je$ n".

It should be noted that the victims of the actions in the background folktale suffered terrible and premature death because the perpetrators of the action killed them in cold blood. As a result, the meanings suggested by which the words and phrases in the hypogram "Àlùjenrenkújen" are related to hardship, death and situational imbalance. So, with the word (Àlùjenrenkújen), the vocalists employed the hardship, situational imbalance of life of animals in the storyline to portray the socio-political imbalance of Nigeria during the regime of General Murtala Muhammed which actually led to his death.

Orin agbè was performed at the political campaign of the candidate of the All Progressives Congress, who was aspiring for the post of the House of Representative, Ìbàràpá Central and North Federal Constituency during the 2019 general elections. The political campaign was held at the Old Motor Park, Ìbèrèkòdó, Ìgbó-Ọra on the 22nd of February, 2019. Honourable Adémòlá Ọbáfémi Òjó of the All Progressives Congress was predicted as the candidate that would emerge as the winner in the *orin agbè* below.

Lílé: Bí e pò o Call: If you are many

Bí e pò bí esú ó You are as many as locust

Ègbè: Adémólá ní ó wolé Response: Adémólá will win the election

Lílé: Bí e pò ó Call: If you are many

Bí e pộ bí eṣú ó You are as many as locust Ègbè: Adémólá ní ó yege Response: Adémólá will succeed

Adémólá's opponents are the referent of the pronoun "e". Their number is compared with locust. The artists stated that even when Adémólá's opponents were as many as locusts, Adémólá would still emerge as the winner. Locust is a word used to express a high number of people or things. *Eşu* (locust) in this regard is a sinsing, a physical sign that portrays a high number of people or things.

⁵⁷ Though not syntactically correct but as a base of the nonsensical code.

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5.1.4.3.6 Semiotics of theme of prayer and curse in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*

Because *orin kete* and *orin agbè* performers are members of society, they share the same beliefs with other members of society who constitute their immediate audience. As a result, theme of prayer, curses and abuse feature in their songs. Prayer is made in *orin kete* firstly to God and deities that are related to children. This is exemplified in prayer feature in the excerpts of *orin kete* below.

1. Àríké fìrù yó wá ó Use tail to embrace us Àríké Lílé: Òtun lojó ń vo ò Day breaks anew Àríké ibi ó ré lọ nílè yìí Àríké, may hazard disappear from this land Èébúdolá ìbà òòò Èébúdolá, homage is due to you Ègbè: Kílè má yò wá Response: May we not fall while treading on the slippery ground Òtun lọjó ń vọ ò Day breaks anew... Totally and completely Lílé: Gbáágbààgbááá Call: Gba kúrò lára mi ò Sweep it away from my life Gbágbàgbááá Totally and completely Sweep it away from my life Gba kúrò lára mi ò Ibi ó lo nílè vìí May hazard disappear from this land Èébúdolá ìbà òòò Èébúdolá, homage is due to you Ègbè: Gbáágbààgbáàà Response: Totally and completely Gba kúrò lára mi òòò Sweep it away from my life 2. Call: Èèwò ò Call: It is an abomination Èèwò fún wa lóde èèwò It becomes an abomination in our outing Qkộ ò ní bebè é rojó The hoe will never quarrel with the ridge Ègbè: Èèwò Response: An abomination Èèwò fún wa lóde èèwò It becomes an abomination in our outing Lílé: Qkó ò ní bebè é rojó The hoe will never quarrel with Call: the ridge

The first excerpt is a prayer even though it was used as an opening homage $(ib\grave{a})$ during the main performance of *orin kete*. The first sentence " $\grave{A}r\imath k\acute{e}$ fir \grave{u} y\acute{o} w\'{a} \acute{o} " ($\grave{A}r\imath k\acute{e}$, use tail to embrace us" is symbolic). The act of using a tail to embrace one's child is an instinct found among cat and dog families. They use their tails to touch their young ones to show care for them. This is adapted by the performers, asking $\grave{A}r\imath k\acute{e}$, their dead mother to use her tail to embrace them. By expansion, the expression means to show love and

Response: An abomination

our outing

It becomes an abomination in

Ègbè: Èèwò

Èèwò fún wa lóde èèwò

care. It is, however, a symbolic signification of showing love to the dearest one(s). The performers also prayed that hazard should not happen to them and that they should not fall while treading on slippery grounds. Falling on the slippery ground has spiritual connotations among the Yorùbá. It portends death or a very serious calamity. Thus, they prayed against it. So, falling on slippery ground in this sense is not restricted to its denotative meaning. Connotatively, it means a spiritual fall as a result of grievance from Ilè (the god of land) and Ògún (the god of iron). The expression "Òtun lójó n yọ" (Day breaks anew) is a positive assertion from ofo (the Yorùbá incantation). The word "ni" of the verb-nominal "lójó" (ní ojó) constitutes the positive assertive marker of the ofò statement found in ofò (Olátúnjí, 1984 and Ògúndèjì, 1991). So, the expression "Òtun lójó n yọ" is metaphoric. The daybreak under reference points to the performers of the song, the power behind the breaking forth anew of the day is summoned to make them come out the way day breaks forth afresh every morning. The word "gbáágbààgbáá" in the stanza of the same song is nonsensical code. This code can be traced to the semes (root word) "gbá" (meaning to sweep, to slap or to kick). The word "gbá" is reduplicated with tonal lengthening and contrast on the final vowel of the sounds thrice to generate "gbáágbààgbáá". The word may be seen as a nonsensical variant of "gbá" intentionally deployed to make the root word $(gb\acute{a})$ conform to the tune of *kete* song. It, nevertheless, adds an emphatic sense to the componential meaning of gbá.

The second song is a supplication. It has characteristic features of $\varrho f \varrho$. The word $\varrho e \varrho w \varrho$ is an example of a lexical item found in $\varrho f \varrho$. It indicates a marker of negative assertion of an incident that will remain negative forever. Furthermore, the string of words "... ϱe^{i} ni...", is a negative assertion marker (Olátúnjí, 1984). The vocalists are employed agrarian metaphoric analogies that as it is not possible for the hoe to query the ridges it has made, so shall it be impossible for anyone to query them. Hoe is used to clear weeds or make ridges. These two objects are nonliving things and are incapable of querying each other. Hoe and ridges as used in this song are representamen of physical realities (a sinsign), a metaphoric representation of the singers who cannot be queried by the ridges (a metaphoric representation of members of the singers' audience). The message the singers used the negative assertions in their lyrics to make is that there would be no misunderstanding among them and members of their audience.

Prayers are also made for poetic subjects in *orin agbè*. Many a time, the performers pray for themselves. Let us consider the examples below:

1. Lílé: Olófin gbà wá o Call: Protect us. Olófin

> Ká má ferí solè ò That we may not fall headlong Ègbè: Òkè Ìlùà Response: The mountain of Ìlùà

Ká má ferí solè o... That we may not fall headlong

Lílé: Òsóòsì gbà wá o Protect us, Osóosì Call:

Ká má derí kodò ò That we may not fall headlong Ègbè: Òkè Ìlùà Response: The mountain of Ìlùà

Ó mà dowó e ò That we may not fall headlong

2. Lílé: E tóyin wò ò Taste how sweet honey is

Ègbè: Òrò mí ó dùn joyin lo Response: My situation will be

sweeter than honey

E tóyin wò ò Taste how honey is sweet Ègbè: Òrò mí ó dùn joyin lo

Response: My situation will be

sweeter than honey

In the first of the two excerpts above, the singers prayed that Olofin, otherwise known as Odùduwà and Òkè Ìlùà should protect them from falling headlong. That implies that, the deities mentioned should protect them from accidents. In the second excerpt, the singers of orin agbè also prayed for themselves. The analogy employed is between the sweetness of the honey and the life of the performer. The singers asked their listeners to compare the sweetness of honey to how their lives will be sweet. This is rooted in the sentence " $E t \dot{\phi} v i n w \dot{\phi}$ " (Taste how honey is sweet). Having created the imagery of how their lives would be in the audience's mind, the performers then established that their lives will be sweeter than honey. Honey, as employed in the lyrics, is a qualisign because of its natural sweetness. This feature of sweetness is, therefore, adapted by the Yorùbá people when observing a prayer. There are proverbial sayings that back up this claim. The Yorùbá people say, "Dídùndídùn là á bálé olóyìn" (Beehives always produce sweetness) and "A kì í foyin sénu ká rojú" (No one tastes honey and frowns). The sweet nature of honey mentioned in the second excerpt is employed through the process of expansion. By implication, sweetness as used above does not mean a good taste in the real sense, as in the situation of honey but a sweetness enjoyed in the state of well-being that was aimed by the performers.

The performers of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* sometimes also curse their enemies and the enemies of their allies. This is evident in the excerpt below.

1. Lílé: Eni tó pé n má rérè oba je o Call: Whoever says I should not

enjoy the dividends of

kingship Ègbè: Wệrệwệrệ ni ó rìn wọmi lọ o

Response: It is in earnest he will walk into the waters

Lílé: Eni tó pé n má rérè oba je o Call: Whoever says I should not

enjoy the dividend of kingship

Kingsn

Ègbè: Wệrệwệrệ ni ó rìn wọmi lọ o Response: It is in earnest he will walk into the waters

2. *Lílé:* Eni póun ó gbàṣe mi ṣe o Call: Whoever wants to take over my responsibilities

Ègbè: Wèrèwèrèe ni ó rìn wọmi lọ o Response: It is in earnest he will walk into the waters

Lílé: Eni póun ó gbàṣe mi ṣe o Call: Whoever wants to take over my responsibilities

Ègbè: Wèrèwèrèe ni ó rìn womi lo o Response: It is in earnest he will

walk into the waters

The first excerpt is from *orin kete* while the second is from *orin agbè*. The texts of the two songs are versions of the same lyrics. They differ slightly in their calls while their responses are the same. As shown by Ògúndèjì (1979) and Àlàbá (1985), *orin agbè* sentence structures are usually simple. The present study supports the fact that *orin agbè* call is usually a simple sentence while the response may be a repetition of the call or a complement to the call. The responses to the first and second songs above are complement of the calls. The song is, therefore, more likely to be an original *agbè* song which was adapted by *orin kete* singers. This is possible because both songs are found in the same geographical location with the same cultural value. Besides, the songs could be sung on secular occasions. The first song was performed at a coronation ceremony while the second was sung at a burial ceremony. Finding one's contents in another is possible, mainly if the interpolated element is a social discourse.

The singers of the songs cursed whomever wanted to disturb them from either enjoying kingship dividends or taking their responsibilities. They mentioned that the person would enter into the waters in wèrèwèrè (in earnest) manner. The word wèrèwèrè is an ideophone. Because it does not have a dictionary meaning, it becomes a nonsensical code. Wèrèwèrè as a system of signs can be traced to the adverbial ideophonic variants: wéréwéré (with ease or gently) or wàràwàrà (quickly or in earnest). Both words are reduplicated forms of their root words wéré (wéré + wéré = wéréwéré) and wàrà (wàrà + wàrà = wàràwàrà). The word wèrèwèrè is supposed to indicate gentleness by the virtue of its word characters which are close to wéréwéré. Considering the low tones on the syllables of the word, wèrèwèrè is, however, influenced by wàràwàrà and this actually accounts for its meaning (quickly or in earnest) in the usage. The vocalists

decided to use wèrèwèrè instead of wàràwàrà purposely because /ɛ/ as in wèrèwèrè is a sonorous sound, it adds more rhythmic vibration to the lyric compared to /a/. Wèrèwèrè, is therefore, a stylistic variant of wàràwàrà. The performers of orin kete and orin agbè implied that whoever wished them evil would be overtaken by trouble so they would be left alone to enjoy their lives. However, water in the semiosphere of the above songs is a symbolic signifier of trouble. The songs have also become prayers for the performers but curses for the performers' enemies.

5.1.4.3.7 Semiotics of satirical themes in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*

Yorùbá oral poems have ways of satirising bad behaviours and activities that are against the norms of society. This is often done during traditional festivals where songs are rendered. For example, according to Ògúndèjì (1991), during *Opelu* festival in Kàbà, Kogi State, songs are used to satirise abnormal behaviours in the society. Apart from festival songs, one of the prominent themes in *ìjàlá* is witty statements purposely composed to lampoon social vices. As shown by Ládélé and Fáníyì (1979), there are witty expressions and abusive statements in *ękún ìyàwó*, Yorùbá nuptial poetry. Similarly in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*, jests and jokes are made purposely to satirise abnormalities in society.

Since *orin kete* is women related, women are extensively satirised in the genre. The promiscuous attitudes of some women, improper child care, improper family planning, abnormal dressing and some other bad attitudes of women towards their families and society are satirised in order to correct such vices. Satirising women in *orin kete* is mainly what the main dancer of the genre, *aboyèrì* (*yèrì* wearer) stands for. When women's private parts are mentioned in *orin kete*, the *yèrì* wearer twerks, shakes his artificial buttocks and dances seductively like women. The following examples performed at *ìbejì* ritual performance of *orin kete*:

1.	Şéyúnşéyún lọmọ yín lọ rà	It is abortion medicine your child went to
		buy
	Kò mÈkó o	She does not understand Lagos
	Şéyúnşéyún lọmọ yín lọ rà	It is abortion medicine your child went to
		buy
	Kò mÈkó o	She does not understand Lagos
	Kò mèkó ò	She does not understand Lagos
	Okó ló lọ dó	It was sex she went to have
	Kò mèkó ò	She does not understand Lagos
	Okó ló lọ đó	It was sex she went to have

Şéyúnşéyún lomo yín lo rà

Kò mÈkó o

It is abortion medicine your child went to buy

She does not understand Lagos

2. Bẹ bá rómọ Ọlóṣun
E ó màmà fẹ
Bẹ bá rómọ Ọlóṣun
E ó màmà dó
Èyin tệ é wé láwàní àbòsí
Èyin tệ ẹ wé láwàní rìkíṣí o
Bẹ bá rómọ Ọlóṣun
E ó màmà dó

If you see daughter of Òṣún worshipper You will marry her If you see daughter of Òṣún worshipper You will have sex with her You that tie a hypocritical turban You that tie a hypocritical turban If you see daughter of Òṣún worshipper

You will have sex with her

The second song is directed at some Muslim clerics that wear big turbans. The performers of *orin kete* in the song alleged these clerics that the wearing of turbans as a sign of their Islamic religious piety did not disturb them from marrying daughters of Òṣun worshipper whom they had castigated in their sermons for worshipping idols. The point the performers of the song seemed to be making here is that inasmuch as the Òṣun worshippers were detestable to them, Òṣun worshippers' daughters should also be disdainful to them. The fact that this was not so and the clerics were ready to mary Òṣun worshippers' daughters portrays them as hypocrites. *Láwání*, as it is used in the song, is an iconic index of the Islamic clerics.

Covetousness is another bad societal behaviour that forms the content of satiric songs in the performance of *orin kete*. The below is an illustration:

1.	Lílé:	Àgbàlagbà ń fiwò	Call:	An old man is setting hook and line
		Abòkúdòn léèké		The one with covetousness
		Bó bá rélubú		If he falls into the deep
		Ekún èké ni n ó sọn		It is crocodile tears I will shed
	Ègbè:	Ekún èké ni n ó sọn ò	Respo	onse: It is crocodile tears I will shed
	Lílé:	Ekún èké ni n ó sọn	Call:	It is crocodile tears I will shed
	Ègbè:	Ekún èké ni n ó sọn ò	Respo	onse: It is a crocodile tear I will hed
2.	Lílé:	Ó rà fún tilé Àyánsọlá ò áà	Call:	He buys for the one living at Àyáṣọlá's household, ah!
		Ó rà fún tilé Àyánsọlá		He buys for the one living at Àyáṣọlá's household
		Ó rà fún tilé Àyánsọlá ò		He buys for the one living at Àyáṣọlá's household
		Ó rà fún tilé Àyánsọlá		He buys for the one living at Àyáṣọlá's household
		Kò màmà rà fún ti Ládòkè o		He does not buy for the one living at Ládòkè's household
		Tilée Ládòkè rojú		The one from Ládòkè's household frowns
	Ègbè:	Tilé Ládòkè rojú ò		The one from Ládòkè's household frowns
		Òrò aṣéwó tenu bèjè o		The case of the whore makes one's mouth stains of blood
		Tilée Ládòkè ń rojó		The one from Ládòkè's househould complains

The satire in the first song is about an old man who was not strong and agile enough to stand on his feet but was fishing with a hook line. The singers stated that if he fell into the river and he was drowned, they would only shed crocodile tears.

There is hypogram that needs explanation in the excerpt. This is the adjectival phrase, "Abòkúdọn léệké". First, the word "òkúdọn" (greed or covetous person) in "Abòkúdọn léệké" (The one with covetousness) is the Ìbàràpá people's dialectic form of "òkúdùn" of the standard Yorùbá language. The phrasal expression "Abòkúdọn léệké" which is translated as "one with covetousness" is a noun phrase derived from "A bi òkúdọn ní ệèké" (The one who has covetousness in his cheek). The word òkúdún is synonymous with òkánjúà (a covetous person). Òkúdùn can be traced to the root of the

idiomatic expression, *kún dùn* ⁵⁸. *Òkúdùn* as used in the song signifies a high level of covetousness and greed.

The theme of the second lyric is equity and injustice. An instance of a man who has two wives is given in the song. The man is not just and he fails to pay equity between his two wives. He bought a cloth for the one living at \dot{A} yànsolá's house but does not buy for the one living at Ládòkè's house which makes her to protest. Injustice and inequality are inherent in this story. The statement ($\dot{Q}\dot{r}\dot{Q}$ $as\dot{q}w\dot{Q}$ tenu $b\dot{q}\dot{Q}\dot{Q}$ O; The case of a whore makes one's mouth stained with blood) shows that the wife at Ládòkè's house is a promiscuous woman because she is identified as an $as\dot{q}w\dot{Q}$ (a whore). The expression "...tenu $b\dot{q}\dot{Q}$ O" (makes one's mouth stained of blood) is a metaphorical idiomatic iconic signification of violence that whores are known for. Blood, as used here, iconises accident or injury which could be sustained by the performer supposed he gets himself involved in the case. The sentence as well signifies the abstinence of the speaker from the issue; consequently, he uses blood which is iconising violence and injury to explicate his decision. Thus, it is not only the husband that is satirised, the wife living at Ládòkè is as well lampooned. In the first instance, she is said to have protested; in the second, she is called a whore and in the third, she is presented to be violent.

Apart from the performance of Ìyàwó Agbè and unlike in *orin kete*, women's issues are not a major subject of satire in *orin agbè*. Satire in *orin agbè* dwells more on other social issues than on women's issues. Below are examples of satirical songs in *orin agbè*.

1. Lílé: Ijó ìn bá jó lo jó Call: You have performed the dancing style I wanted to perform

Ègbè: Àrà ìn bá dá lo dá

Response: You have performed the style I wanted to perform

Lílé: Ijó ìn bá jó lo jó Call: You have performed the dancing style

I wanted to perform

Ègbè: Àrà ìn bá dá lo dá Response: You have performed the style I wanted to perform

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⁵⁸ It should be noted that the component $k\hat{u}$ of the verb phrase $k\hat{u}$ $d\hat{u}n$ is a dialectical variant of $k\hat{u}n$ which means to be filled up. $D\hat{u}n$ may be seen as a short form of the gerund $d\hat{u}n$ or its nominalised form, $a\hat{u}\hat{u}n$. The underlying meaning of $a\hat{u}n$ we suggest is likely to be $a\hat{u}n$ (the one that is fond of sweet things). When the prefix $a\hat{u}n$ is added to the verbal phrase and made a noun, it becomes $a\hat{u}n$ but $a\hat{u}n$ but $a\hat{u}n$ in the $a\hat{u}n$ in the $a\hat{u}n$ dialect. The word is mostly used to refer to the people whose covetousness or greed has become their habitual character.

There is an anecdote about an ∂k úndùn who killed a cricket. Cricket is a small insect which tastes good if properly smoked. Òkúndùn killed the cricket and started smoking it. As he was smoking the cricket, the cricket got into the fire and Òkúndùn because of the high level of covetousness dipped his hand into the fire to bring the cricket out. Òkúndùn was able to bring it out but his hand got burnt. This was what brought about the saying, "Òkúndùn ní ó pàrè, ìrè ni yóó fọwó Òkúndùn jóná" (It was Òkúndùn that will kill the cricket and likewise it was the cricket that will make Òkúndùn's hands got burnt).

Àrángbó: Bó o dá lápá Speech mode: If you break your hand N ó wó o délé I will drag vou home Bó kán lésè If you break your leg Mo mòògùn rè I know its cure Èyìn èkùlé nìyá rẹ wà Your mother is at the backyard Ni wón sọ pé olóore lọ Then they say a generous person has gone Lílé: Ijó ìn bá jó lo jó Call: You have performed the dancing style I wanted to perform Ègbè: Àrà ìn bá dá lo dá Response: You have performed the style I wanted to perform 2. Lílé: A ó para wa láyò Call: We shall see who will win this dancing competition Ègbè: Óléńlé Ólénlé Response: Lílé: A ó para wa láyò Call: We shall see who will win this dance competition Ègbè: Óléńlé Response: Óléńlé... Lílé: Níbo nìvàwó lo Call: Where does the bride go? Ó roko pákí ni She goes to the cassava farm Ó filèkè sí bèbèré-idí She puts on waist beads Fenu fàlù ya One whose mouth can tear a drum 3. Lílé: Òké gbowó kò gbàwé mó Oké collected the penalty and did Call: not collect the divorce certificate Ègbè: Òké méjìlá gèlè yeyeye Respond: Two hundred and four thousand worth of money is gone yet she ties a flamboyant headgear Lílé: Èké gbowó kò gbàwé mộ Call: The hypocrite collected the penalty and did not collect the divorce certificate Ègbè: Òké méjìlá gèlè yeyeye Respond: Two hundred and four thousandworth of money is gone yet is a lot of debt 4. Lílé: A béwúré gbélé Call: One has a goat as a neighbour O sì lóun ò mọni And claims it does not know one Ègbè: Bí ò moni kó máa lo Respond: If it does not let it go Lílé: A bágùtán gbélé Call: One has a sheep as a neighbour O sì lóun ò mọni And claims it does not know one Ègbè: Bí ò mọni kó máa lọ Respond: If it does not let it go Fèsó se Behave gently Lílé: Call: Alásàbí fèsò You, Aşàbí, behave gently O má telè tí ò wò So that you will not tread on wrong ground Behave gently Ègbè: Fèsó se Call: Alásàbí fèsò Alásàbí, behave gently

The first song is a joke made among the performers of *orin agbè* to mock and make lampoon of one another. The lead singer/vocalist while singing $Ij\acute{o}$ n $b\acute{a}$ $j\acute{o}$ lo $j\acute{o}$ ⁵⁹ (You have performed the dancing style I wanted to perform) satirised a dancer who was dancing forcefully to display his skills. This is what is clearly revealed in the lead vocalist's speech mode of the song. The lead vocalist said if the dancer broke his hand, he would take him home and if he broke his leg, he knew the cure. He concluded the speech mode poetry by reminding the dancer that he was motherless. The Yorùbá people have a proverb that warns a motherless child not to get involved in any scuffle which will make him/her incur a wound at the back for he/she has no mother to help him/her nurse it (Omo ti ko niyaá ki i degbo evin). Despite that the lead singer promised to take the dancer home and even help him if he broke his leg or hand, he warned him by reminding him that he had no mother. Hence, the lead singer indirectly brought the alluded proverb into focus. It should be noted that "egbo evin" (a wound at the back) in the proverb is a metaphoric symbol of any serious problems in life which one cannot handle by oneself.

The statements "Èyìn èkùlé nìyá rẹ wà; Ni wón sọ pé olóore lọ" (Your mother is in the backyard; Then they say a generous person has gone) is a religious hypogram. The expression "Èyìn èkùlé nìyá rẹ wà" (Your mother is in the backyard) has its full meaning in the Islamic tradition of burying the dead ones near their homes in Yorùbáland. Except when one dies abnormally⁶⁰, the Yorùbá traditional religious worshippers bury the remains of their dead people inside their houses while Christians bury theirs in the graveyard. This is referred is the Ifá song below.

Babaláwo sunlé Ifá priests sleep inside the house Onímòle sùnta Muslims sleep outside

Ìgbàgbó ò ríbi sùn Christians do not have a place to sleep

À finú igbó Except in the bush

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⁵⁹ This is a dance style in *orin agbè* where two dancers are dancing in the same style. This is like a dancing competition. The first dancer can begin a new style of dance, expecting the second to try it if he can. The second dancer will also begin another style of dance and requests the first to join him to test the level of his skill in dancing to *agbè* rhythm. When the vocalist observes this, they will begin to sing the song. Sometimes, the song comes first and the dancers when hearing the song start to imitate one another's dance styles.

⁶⁰ In Yorùbá society, the corpses of people who were killed by *Orò* (a bull roaring deity), pregnant women, lepers, hunchbacks, and someone who was drowned among others are not buried like an ordinary person.

The hypogramatic reference here is to the earlier explained Islamic burial rites. The mother mentioned in the song is not the living but the dead mother buried in the backyard. This is affirmed by the last line "Ni wón sọ pé olóore lọ (Then they say a generous person has gone)." "Olóore lọ", which is the complement of the adverbial phrase "...pé olóore lọ" is a tribute to mourn the death of a good person. The statement is traceable to a Yorùbá dirge below.

Ìyá àwá lọOur mother has goneOlóore lọA generous person has goneKò màmà pọnmi òkè rú todòShe did not cause disharmonyOlóore lọA generous person has gone

Thus, the statements "Èyìn èkùlé nìyá rẹ wà; Ni wón sọ pé olóore lọ points to the fact that the dancer's mother is dead.

The second song was sung towards the end of *orin agbè* performance at Ilùà. The last part of the song is a satire made to lampoon a woman who was called *ìyàwó* (a bride or a housewife). The person is reported to have gone to the cassava farm, put on waist beads and as someone whose mouth could tear a drum. The statement "Fenu fàlù ya" (One whose mouth can tear a drum) has heuristic and retroactive meaning. Its heuristic meaning is the meaning put in the parenthesis above. What the statement actually means is that the woman's teeth are long and sharp, capable to tear the membrane of a drum. The hypogram "Fenu fàlù ya" is no doubt vituperative.

The third song is also a jest made on a divorced woman (Oké) who after collecting the penalty charged her husband for divorcing left without collecting the certificate of divorce. This is what the singers of the song called *ìwé*. *Ìwé*, as used, is a short form of *ìwé èrí* (a certificate). The amount she collected was *oké méjìlá* (two hundred and four thousand worth of money). She was expected to collect the divorce certificate immediately after the fine was paid, hence, she was called a hypocrite. Her displayed hypocrisy lies in the fact that she initially expressed displeasure with the divorce. Her attitude toward receiving the penalty given to her revealed the contrary. She is also reported to have bought and put on a flamboyant headgear, probably bought with the money collected to celebrate the gain made.

The fourth song is a satirical warning against the poetic character, Àṣàbí. The zoomorphic metaphor of $ewúr\acute{e}$ (goat) and $\grave{a}g\grave{u}t\grave{a}n$ (sheep) is used to reveal their antisocial behaviour of not according due respect to the poetic addresser. The female poetic character is warned idiomatically not to tread on dangerous grounds (o $m\acute{a}$ $tel\grave{e}$ $t\acute{t}$ \grave{o} $w\grave{o}$).

Thus, $ewúr\acute{e}$ and $\grave{a}g\grave{u}t\grave{a}n$ in the performance semiosphere of the lyrics of $orin~agb\grave{e}$, therefore, become zoomorphic metaphoric signifiers of dishonour and disrespect. The sentence " $O~m\acute{a}~tel\grave{e}~t\acute{i}~o~w\grave{o}$ " (So that you will not tread on the wrong ground) is an idiomatic expression intentionally used by the vocalists. This is because if the vocalists decide to say it in different and direct manners like "... $m\acute{a}~h\grave{u}w\grave{a}~k\acute{i}w\grave{a}$ " (do not misbehave), "... $m\acute{a}~tel\grave{e}~t\acute{i}~o~d\acute{a}r\grave{a}$ " (do not step on wrong grounds) or "... $m\acute{a}~k\acute{o}~s\acute{i}~w\grave{a}h\grave{a}l\grave{a}$ " (do not get into trouble), the expressions will be too direct and not be poetic as the one used.

5.2 A comparative performance semiotics of non-verbal performances in *orin* kete and orin agbè

In this subsection of this chapter, non-verbal performances in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are discussed. These include instrumentation styles, dancing styles, and acrobatic and magical displays.

5.2.1 Semiotics of styles of *kete* and *agbè* instrumentations

Kete ensembles, like the other Yorùbá membranophone musical instruments, are played with hand and drumstick. Kete drum is played with ordinary hands while $b\dot{e}hb\acute{e}$ is played using a drum stick ($k\rho k\rho g\acute{u}n/\dot{\rho}p\acute{a}il\grave{u}$). While playing kete, the performers can play the instrument with one hand, using the other hand to control the tune. At times, both hands are used to play the instrument and at the same time used to control the tune. $B\dot{e}hb\acute{e}$ is played using a drumstick on the main face of the drum and an ordinary hand on the other face to control the tune. Both kete and $b\dot{e}hb\acute{e}$ can be played in fast and slow tempos.

Agbè ordinarily as mentioned earlier is played in two major ways. These are by beating or by shaking. When agbè is shaken, the rattling sound is more prominent than when it is beaten. There are different modes of agbè instrumentation. The obvious among them are: leg-raising of iyá agbè instrumentation, squatting/kneeling style of agbè instrumentation, combining instrumentation with dancing, round-off style of playing gourd, throwing up of iyá agbè, directing the dancer using iyá agbè and interchanging the position of iyá agbè during instrumentation.

5.2.1.1 Leg-raising style of *ìyá agbè* instrumentation

This is a style of playing $agb\grave{e}$ whereby the player of $iy\acute{a}$ $agb\grave{e}$ raises a leg and throws the $agb\grave{e}$ underneath it with one hand, using the other hand to catch it. The player in this mode of playing $agb\grave{e}$ does more than one thing at a time. First, he continues to play the gourd; second, he dances to the music and lastly, he performs an acrobatic display. Doing more than one thing in a performance is a sign of the performer's expertise. It is in this sense a qualisign; a sign signifying the quality of technical knowhow.



Plate 5.3i. Raising leg to play gourd beneath



Plate 5.3ii. Playing the gourd beneath the raised leg



Plate 5.3iii. Another attempt of beating gourd beneath the raised leg

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Onímia palace, Ìmia on 8/9/2018.

5.2.1.2 Squatting/kneeling style of agbè instrumentation

Agbè instrumentalists kneel or squat to play the musical instrument. This is usually done when the performance has become tense. It mostly occurs at the utmost stage towards the tail end of the performance when it seems the performance should continue. The agbè instrumentalists at this point put the dancer in the middle of the circle made and start beating the gourd heavily. They also dance to the tune and systematically go down in a style, telling the dancer to also dance to reach the ground. When they get to the ground, they squat or kneel and continue playing agbè while the dancer dances heavily. This is illustrated in Plate 5.4 below.



Plate 5.4 Squatting or kneeling to play *agbè* The picture was taken by the researcher at Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Òkè-Ìṣṭrin, Igbó-Ọrà on 4/8/2018.

Whenever a dance performance is held in the Yorùbá socio-cultural setting, the dancers tend to prove their expertise through the squatting dance style (àjówolè). A Yorùbá adage says "àjówolè ni ti òkòtó 61" (òkòtó must roll to reach the ground). Similarly, there are some other related utterances used in motivating dancers in the Yorùbá social context. An example of this is "kó o mólè" (dance to reach the ground). Àkómólè (Dancing to reach the ground) cannot be the only factor for testing a dancer's skilfulness. The ability to interpret the tune of the song and the musical instruments into dance movements are also crucial. Considering àjówolè/àkómólè as one of the standards for determining good dancing is a long time agreeable statement in the Yorùbá dancing semiosphere. This however makes this standard of determining best dancing a cliché.

5.2.1.3 Combining instrumentation with dancing

We shall discuss this fully under <code>fiwájújó-feðyìnjó</code> (forward and backwards) dancing styles in <code>orin agbè</code>. The instrumentalists are the ones involved in <code>fiwájújó-feðyìnjó</code> more than any other performers. The point to note is that the instrumentalists while performing <code>fiwájújó-feðyìnjó</code> are combining two art performances at the same time, dancing and instrumentation. This is believed to call for extra efforts and show a high level of instrumentation skills. Therein lies the signification of having a high skill in <code>agbè</code> instrumentation.

5.2.1.4 Throwing up and catching *ìyá agbè*

Depending on the level of the competence of the performer, the player of the mother gourd may at times throw up *ìyá agbè* into the air. When the gourd is thrown up in this way, the player catches and beats it with both hands simultaneously. The sound produced during this time is actually more sonorous than when beaten with one hand. At the end of every throw, the dancer responds by punctuating his dance appropriately.

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⁶¹ This is an object made of the cone of small species of snails, played in a children's game to roll on the ground. The rolling of $\partial k \partial t \delta$ is metaphorically compared to a dance in the saying. This is because as it is rolling, the tip of the cone will be gradually sinking into the sandy ground until it stops rolling.





Plates 5.5i. & 5.5ii. Mother gourd players throw $agb\grave{e}$ at different occasions to count $agb\grave{e}$ $jij\acute{a}$ for the dancer(s)

Both pictures were taken by the researcher; the first at Onímia palace, Ìmia on 8/9/2018 and the second at Atakóró's house, Ilùà on 7/9/2018.

In Plates 5.5i. and 5.5ii. above, the *ìyá agbè* are in mid-air with the instrumentalists' hands stretched out to catch and beat it simultaneously. The left leg of the dancer backing the camera in plate 5.5ii. was raised and ready to punctuate the instrumentation appropriately. The throwing up and catching of the *ìyá agbè* at regular intervals is a performance sign usually translated into an appropriate sequence of dance punctuations by the dancer. It is therefore a sign of reason; an argument.

5.2.1.5 Using *ìyá agbè* to direct the dancers

The *ìyá àgbè* instrumentalists sometimes deploy the instrument to indicate the direction towards which the dancer should jerk during the performance. The frequency of jerking and dance punctuation is usually on a count of one, two or three. The pointing of the *ìyá agbè* towards an expected direction for a dancer is a sign or mechanism of translating messages (nonverbal) into action within the Yorùbá cultural semiosphere. As a sign of communication, it is an index. An example of this style of playing gourd is shown in the Plate 5.6 below.



Plate 5.6 Pointing the gourd toward the place at which $agb\grave{e}\,j\acute{i}j\acute{a}$ should be directed

The picture was taken by the researcher at Atakóró's house, Ilùà on 7/9/2018.

On Plate 5.6 above, the $iy\acute{a}$ $agb\grave{e}$ instrumentalist directed the dancer with his musical instrument towards his left-hand side, hence the left leg and hands of the dancer were stretched in that direction. It can be observed that there is eye contact between the dancer and the instrumentalist, indicating that there is communication between them. This further enhances the communication existing between both $agb\grave{e}$ performers.

5.2.1.6 Interchanging the position of *ìyá agbè* during instrumentation

In this instrumentation style of $iy\acute{a}$ $agb\grave{e}$, the instrument is held either upright or upside down while it is being beaten with one hand at its base. The beating may be in a frequent of 1 to 3 counts to direct the dancer to punctuate the dance. Suddenly after the dance punctuation, the instrumentalist interchanges the position of the $agb\grave{e}$ systematically so that if it had been upright, it will now be upside down. The instrumentalist then continues to beat the $agb\grave{e}$ base. It should be noted that whether the $agb\grave{e}$ is held upside or upright, it is the base of the $agb\grave{e}$ that is beaten. In plate 5.7i., the $iy\acute{a}$ $agb\grave{e}$ instrumentalist held the $agb\grave{e}$ uprightly, in plate 5.7ii., he attempted to switch it to an upside position and finally in plate 5.7iii., he has switched it over to an upside position.



Plate 5.7i. Holding the *agbè* in an upright Plate 5.7ii. Attempting to switch *agbè* to position an upside position



Plate 5.7iii. $Agb\grave{e}$ held in an upside-down position

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Onímia palace, Ìmia on 8/9/2018.

Ordinarily, gourds are played in an upright position. It might also be held horizontally. Holding it upside down is a signification of displaying competence and skilfulness in $agb\grave{e}$ instrumentation. However, interchanging the $\grave{i}y\acute{a}$ $agb\grave{e}$ during instrumentation is also a qualisign of instrumentation skill possessed by the player.

5.2.2 Semiotics of dancing styles in orin kete and orin agbè

According to Sandri (2012), in West Africa, the language and history of the people are deeply connected with dance. Traditional dances of African people play specific roles in events organised for religious and socio-cultural purposes. By this, some dances are considered religious (Ògúndèjì, 1991) while some are socio-cultural and secular. By implication, dance could either be religious or secular. Religious dances have more religio-cultural significations than secular dances. Thus, religious dances perform two functions at a time; the religious and entertainment functions. Significations in secular dances are more socio-culturally oriented than being religious. Considering the number of people doing dance performances in Yorùbá oral poetry, there could be a mono-performer dance, bi-performer dance and multi-performer dance. Dance is many times named after the drums, songs, or the circumstance that leads to it (as in religious dance). For example, we have bàtá dance, dùndún dance, àpèsì dance, sèkèrè dance, kete and agbè dance. We also have ijó fújì (fújì dance), ijó régè (reggae dance) and ijó pàkeke (dadakúàdà/pàkeke dance). In each of the dances identified, there also exists some intrastyles of dance depending on the technical know-how of the dancer. Below are the semiotic analyses of dance and dancing styles in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*.

5.2.2.1 *Ìlù jíjá/agbè jíjá* (dance punctuation)

Dance punctuation is a situation whereby a part of the body is turned or twisted to correspond to the tune of the musical instruments in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. This dancing style is common in Yorùbá dancing in general but more prominent in *bàtá* dance to the extent that the whole of the *bàtá* dance is described as *bàtá jíjá* (*bàtá* tune punctuation dance). *Ìlù jíjá* (drum punctuation) dance occurs in all styles of *orin agbè* dancing; though not all styles of *kete* dancing require it. This is a result of the fact that *the agbè* (gourd) instrumentation style harmonises perfectly with the *ìlù jíjá/agbè jíjá* dance style. If the dancer does not follow *the agbè jíjá* rhythm, the performance will be distorted. Even the instrumentalists in *orin agbè* participate in the *agbè jíjá* dancing steps. In essence, the instrumentalists, especially the mother gourd players, dance along

with the dancer. Ìlù jíjá also occurs in *orin kete* when the player of the master drum (either of *kete* or *bènbé*) plays ìlù jíjá style for the dancers. Ìlù jíjá in both *orin kete* and *orin agbè* usually requires the count of three beats of the musical instrument before dancers take *the ìlù/agbè jíjá* dance step. At times, it requires just one count, and sometimes more than three, i.e. seven. This depends on the expertise and technical know-how of the dancer. The Plates 5.8i. to 5.8iv. showing demonstration of *ìlù/ágbè jíjá* dance in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*.



Plate 5.8i. Ìlù jíjá while kneeling in orin kete



Plate 5.8ii. Ìlù jíjá with legs in the air in orin kete

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Igbó-Qrà, the first at the coronation of Olú of Igbó-Qrà on 25/5/2019 and the second at Arúnlè compound on 17/6/2018.



Plate 5.8iii. Agbè jíjá with both right and left leg (Igbó-Qrà)



Plate 5.8iv. $Agb\grave{e}$ lead instrumentalist directing the dance (Ilùà)

The pictures were taken by the researcher; the first at Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Igbó-Qrà on 22/07/2018 and the second at Atakóró's house, Ilùà on 7/9/2018. In the Plate 5.8i. above, the main dancer knelt on his right knee, moving forward and twisting his upper body to perform the $il\dot{u}$ $jij\dot{a}$ dance style. The man and woman at the performance arena were dancing the style while standing. In the Plate 5.8ii., though the dancer whose arms were down and his right leg up to the count of the $il\dot{u}$ $jij\dot{a}$ was not the main dancer, he was an audience, yet he tried his best to dance the style just to direct peoples' attention to him.

In *orin agbè*, where it said that *ìlù jíjá* is more prominent than in *orin kete*, almost every step requires *agbè jíjá*. As already noted in *orin kete*, not only do the dancers move to *agbè jíjà*; both the dancers and the instrumentalists are involved. The instrumentalists move their shoulders to the tune as they play the instruments. During the performance, the player of the master gourd as the director of the dance and the master of instrumentalists at times points the gourd towards the direction he wants the dancer to dance. These are illustrated in Plates 5.8iii. and 5.8iv. above. The main dancer in Plate 5.8iii. above danced *agbè jíjá* style with the left hand and leg while the player of the mother gourd directed the dancing style. In the same vein, in the Plate 5.8iv., the dancer of *orin agbè* directed both his hands and right leg to dance *agbè jíjá* style towards the place the player of master gourd pointed it to.

It should be noted that $il\hat{u}jij\hat{a}$ dance style in both genres signify different things. In *orin kete*, $il\hat{u}jij\hat{a}$ dance is a sign of the quality of the technical know-how of the dancer in understanding the rhythm of the genre and beat of the drum. Hence, it is a qualisign. In addition to this, *the* $il\hat{u}jij\hat{a}$ dance-style does not only signify the quality of the performers' knowledge but also signifies the fitness of the dancer. So, in *orin agbè*, jerking dance signifies both the technical know-how (qualisign) and the physical fitness (sinsign).

5.2.2.2 *Ìdòbálè/ìyíkàá* (prostration/kneeling down) dance-style

This is a situation whereby a dancer dances and ends it with prostration. Based on the dancing skill of the dancer, the dancer may continue to dance while prostrating. In the Yorùbá cultural context, prostration is used by a younger male performer to greet the elders. Prostration dance style may, therefore, be done by performers of oral poetry, mostly dancers, to pay homage to deities and elders at the performance ground. The Plates 5.9i., 5.9ii. and 5.9iii. below illustrate prostration dance-style in *orin agbè*.





Plate 5.9i. *Orin agbè* prostration dance-style (Ilùà)

Plate 5.9ii. Another *orin agbè* prostration dance style (Igbó-Qrà)



Plate 5.9iii. *Orin agbè ìyíkàá*⁶² prostrating dance-style variant (Igbó-Ọrà)

The pictures were taken by the researcher; the first at Atakóró's house, Ilùà on 7/9/2018, the second and the third at Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Igbó-Ọrà on 22/07/2018.

⁶² Ìyíkàá is a type of prostration whereby the person doing it rolls to both right and left sides while on prostration. This is to show that the person prostrating is totally submissive to the reciever. Ìyíkàá is mostly done in traditional religious activities and it is also offered to kings because kings are considered semigods in Yorùbá socio-cultural context.

The dancer of *orin agbè* in Plate 5.9i. prostrated himself as directed by the mother gourd player. This prostration is also performed to dance *ìlù jíjá*. In this wise, the *ìlù jíjá* is not ordinary *ìlù jíjá* but is performed along with prostration dance style. The *agbè* dancer in Plate 5.9ii. also did the same thing. In Plate 5.9iii., the dancer did not only prostrate himself but also performed *ìyíkàá ọtún àti tòsì* (turing to the right and to the left) while on prostration. So, both dancers in the above pictures danced *agbè jíjá* before going to prostration positions and continued to dance while on prostration.

Furthermore, in *orin kete*, instead of prostrating himself, the dancer kneels and touches the ground with his shoulder, rolling to both sides to show the sign of *ìyíkàá* to the goddess of Alárá-Igbó, Obàtálá, Ìrókò/Olúwéré, Òrìṣà Ìbejì, Kórìkóto and some other deities related to women and children in Yorùbá religio-cultural belief. In Yorùbá greeting culture, while men prostrate themselves to show respect, women kneel to do the same. The dancer in *orin kete* kneels to pay homage because the dancer is considered a female. The *yèrì* (*kete* dance skirt) which the main dancer wears iconises women. When the wearer of *yèrì* kneels in *orin kete*, songs that are related to the deities mentioned above, Alárá-Igbó in particular, are rendered. The Plates 5.9iv. and 5.9v. below show prostration dance styles in *orin kete*.





Plate 5.9iv. & 5.9v. Orin kete prostrating/kneeling dance-style variant

Taken by the researcher at Arúńlę compound, Okè-Odò, Igbó-Qrà on 17/6/2018.

In the plates above, the dancer's one kneel on the ground, one shoulder touching the ground as he stretched the second leg which he used to roll around as a sign of prostration/kneeling down for the deity, Alárá-Igbó. There is a circular line drawn on the ground by the dancer while rolling. This is a religious sign of Alárá-Igbó. Alárá-Igbó and affiliated deities' shrine is often located at the backyard surrounded by $agbo \ \dot{\phi}g\dot{\phi}d\dot{\phi}$ (banana trees), the open but round space within these banana trees where the shrine is located is called $oj\dot{u}-\dot{e}gb\dot{\phi}^{63}$. This is what the dancer iconises during the performance.

Prostration, in both *orin kete* and *orin agbè*, may be seen as legisigns. In this wise, it is a representamen that is made up of both the cultural and religious laws. In *orin kete* it is an icon of *ojú egbé*, a shrine of Alárá-igbó and affiliated deities. Prostration or kneeling down in Yorùbá religio-cultural situation is used to pay homage as a signifier of respect. This is done to seek refuge, protection, guidance and to seek blessing for the smooth running of the performance.

5.2.2.3 *Yopáyosè/elèyo-èyo* dance-style

The yopáyosè or eléyo-èyo dance style is found only in orin agbè. It is referred to as yopáyosè or eléyoèyo because the dancer moves hand and leg both in correspondent or zigzagged manner when performing it. In this situation, the dancer correlates the stretching-out of a leg and a hand at the same time. The right hand may be stretched out first and the right leg follows it. In another variant of the same dance style, the right hand and the left leg are stretched out simultaneously. Likewise, the left hand and the right leg then follow. A zigzag movement pattern of the legs and hands are revealed. This type of dance is stimulated by the way the gourd is played. The dance style may also be regarded as continuous agbè jíjá. There is no time count like in other agbè jíjá dance styles. In Ìmia and Ilùà agbè performances, the ìyá agbè instrumentalist at this juncture also perform his peculiar eléyo-èyo movement. He stretches out a leg and throws the ìyà agbè underneath from one side, catching it from the other side. He can also point agbè to different directions he wants the dancer to stretch hand and leg toward. There is orin agbè that points to this dancing style.

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⁶³ A place where worshippers of Alárá-Igbó and affiliated deities meet to worship. Place where the faces of *egbé* (group of people who worship Alárá-igbó and affiliated deities) worshippers meet or see one another.

Lílé: Ó deléyo-èyo Call: When we talk of outshining one another

Eyo màriwò ò As the palmfrond sprouts out

Ègbè: Èyò-èyo Response: Shooting, shoot out

 \vec{E} yo $m \hat{a} \hat{r} \hat{i} \hat{w} \hat{o}$ As the palmfrond sprouts out

Lílé: Bógàn bá yọ nígbó Call: When the anthill emerges in the forest

Mo se bí í ta wọn yọ It definitely outshines other things

Ègbè: Èyò-èyo Response: Shooting, shoot out

Eyo màriwò As the palmfrond sprouts out

Lílé: Egbé mi bá wọn Call: My group meets them

Yọọ ta wọn yọ It will outshine them

Ègbè: Èyò-èyo Response: Shooting, shoot out

Eyo màrìwò As the palmfrond sprouts out

Looking closely at the meaning of this song, there is no doubt that it can be given two interpretations. The interpretation of this lyric has earlier been expatiated, taking the assertive and utilitarian statement "Bógàn bá yọ nígbó; Mo se bí í ta wọn yọ" and "Egbé mi bá wọn; Yóó ta wón yọ" into consideration. The competition meaning is clearly implied in this interpretation of the song as already earlier analysed. If the performance context is, however, taken into consideration and eléyo-èyo is strictly seen as instrumentation and dancing style, the meaning of èyo in eléyo-èyo will be seen as referring to stretching out movement of the hands and legs in different patterns as explained above. An alternative translation of the first leader's line in the excerpt and the chorus will, therefore, go thus:

Lílé: Ó deléyo-èyo Call: When we talk of the stretching

out limps

Èyo màrìwò ò As the palmfrond sprouts out

Ègbè: *Èyò-èyo* Response: Shooting, shoot out

Eyo màrìwò As the palmfrond sprouts out

The stretching out of hands and legs because it has been compared with the shooting out of the palm-frond and anthill may be taken as a symbolic signification of outshining other competitors or excelling.

5.2.2.4 Shoulder dance-style

In the shoulder dance style, the dancers make use of the shoulder to dance to the rhythm of both the song and instrumentation. This style of dance is more prominent in *orin agbè* than *orin kete*. Players of *agbè* (gourd) dance to the genre using their shoulders because they cannot use their hands to dance anymore. The main dancers also use their

shoulders to dance but not exactly in the same way as the instrumentalist. Dancing with the shoulder is illustrated in the Plates 5.10i. to 5.10iv. below.



Plate 5.10i. Àgbè instrumentalists dancing with shoulders



Plate 5.10ii. A female *agbè* dancer dancing with shoulder

Both pictures were taken by the researcher, the first at Old Garage, Igbó-Ọrà on 2/2/2019 and the second at Onímia palace on 8/9/2018.



Plate 5.10iii. *Aboyèrì* shoulder dancing style



Plate 5.10iv. *Aboyèrì* shoulder dancing to make a circle

Pictures taken by the researcher at Arúńlę compound, Òkè-Odò, Igbó-Ọrà on 17/6/2018.

Dancing with the shoulder among the instrumentalists is also shown in *orin kete*. As already mentioned, it is more obvious in *orin agbè* than *orin kete* because the drummers of *orin kete* sit most of the time during the performance. In plate 5.10iii., *abòyèrì* danced the shoulder style while remaining on a spot but in plate 5.10iv., he danced the style while rolling round on squatting. He used his shoulder to dance in both pictures. Dancing with the shoulder in both genres reveals the dancing skills of the dancers. When the instrumentalists dance the shoulder dance style in *orin agbè*, it helps them to keep abreast of the performance as a whole. The shoulder dancing style for the instrumentalists may, therefore, be seen as a rhythmical signification.

5.2.2.5 **Dancing and playing with musical instrument**

This style of dancing is a situation whereby the chief/master instrumentalist dances as he plays a musical instrument. The dance style could be deployed in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* though it is frequent in *orin agbè*. Apart from this situation, a member of the Alárá-Igbó religious performance group may also hold the ààjà (a ritual bell), while dancing. The examples of dancing and playing musical instrument dance style are illustrated on the Plates 5.11i.a, 5.11ii.a and 5.11iii.a below.



Plate 5.11i.a A master *kete* instrumentalist danced while playing the *kete* master drum



Plate 5.11i.b Point of concentration



Plate 5.11ii.a A female Alárá-Igbó worshipper danced as she plays $\grave{a}\grave{a}j\grave{a}$



Plate 5.11ii.b Point of concentration

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Igbó-Qrà, the first two at Pàko on 21/4/2018 and the last two, at Arísányán compound on 18/8/2018.



Plate 5.11iii.a A master gourd player dancing and playing the musical instrument



Plate 5.11iii.b Point of concentration

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Onímia palace, Ìmia on 8/9/2018.

On Plate 5.11i.a, the master player of *kete* played the *kete* master drum; as he was doing this, he danced too. The dance is what concerned him the most at this point in time. However, he also played the instrument along and he did not stop. This signifies that he is a master player. Also, the Alárá-Igbó worshipper in the Plate 5.11ii.a is shown to be holding the $\grave{a}\grave{a}j\grave{a}$ (ritual bell) peculiar to Alárá-Igbó worship in her left hand and her handbag in her right hand. She played the bell to the rhythm of the music as she danced. Alárá-Igbó worshippers like others believe that the god hears the sound of $\grave{a}\grave{a}j\grave{a}$ and it can be used to invoke the spirits. In this semiosphere, $\grave{a}\grave{a}j\grave{a}$ is a legisign and also a symbol of communication between the players and the gods. In *orin agbè*, the player of the master gourd displays some skills while playing it which requires him/her dancing to the beat. This is shown in Plate 5.11iii.a above. The dancer in the above picture demonstrated the skill he had in dancing while playing the gourd. As a result, the player had technical competence in handling the subject matter; the master gourd. This signifies the competence of the player, hence making the specific performance a sign of quality.

5.2.2.6 Fiwájújó-fèyìnjó (forwarding and backwarding) dance-style

The àgbè performers of Igbó-Orà (Ajósàkàrá family) are praised as "Omo afèyìnjágbè wojà". This means the offspring of the one who dances into the market moving backwards. This style of backward dancing is common only among agbè performances in Igbó-Orà. After they might have danced for some time moving forward, they would revert to a backward movement dance style. To perform this particular dance style, the performers arrange themselves in two horizontal rows facing each other. By this, the first row of performers backs the spectators while the second row faces them. Either the lead dancer/vocalist or both will be at the front of the first row that backs the spectators who are dancing backwards. The lead dancer could dance either backward or forward. The point to note, however, is that the whole team moves towards the spectators. It is observed that those players moving with their back dance more vigorously than those facing them. The performance procession continues until the main dancer reaches the last available space in the arena. Immediately after this happens, the second set of players on the second-row line pauses and continues to dance backward, dancing in the reverse movement backward. The lead dancer/vocalist changes his/her position from the front of the first row to the front of the second row to lead the performance in the reverse movement away from the spectators, or to the other end of the arena. In other words, the performance continues to where it starts. At times they may decide to do the same to either the left or right-hand side depending on the availability of the space in the arena. The Plates 5.12i. and 5.12ii. beneath best describe the forward and backward dancing style.





Plates 5.12i. & 5.12ii. The gourd players in the pictures were on two horizontal rows facing each other, dancing forward and backward dance-style

Both pictures were taken at Igbó-Qrà, the first at Ajóṣàkàrá compound on 5/8/2018 and the second at Old Garage on 2/2/2019. The pictures were taken by the researcher.

his style of dance is exemplified in many lyrics of *orin agbè*. Such an example is the one below.

Lílé: Bẹ bá fiwájú jo tán Call: After you might have danced to

it facing front

E tún fệyìn jó Also dance it with your back

Ègbè: Kòkòrò lọmọ Ajóṣàkàrá ó Response: Ajóṣàkàrá's offspring

are dancing insects

Lílé: Bẹ bá fiwájú jo tán Call: After you might have danced to

it facing front

E tún fệyìn jó Also dance it with your back

Ègbè: Kòkòrò lọmọ Ajóṣàkàrá ó Response: Ajóṣàkàrá's offspring are

dancing insects

The $agb\grave{e}$ performers in the above lyric called themselves $k\grave{o}k\grave{o}r\grave{o}$ (insects) because $k\grave{o}k\grave{o}r\grave{o}$ is believed to be a good dancer by Yorùbá people. $K\grave{o}k\grave{o}r\grave{o}$ in this regard could be read as a signification of quality. Considering the forward and backward movements of $agb\grave{e}$ performers while performing $f\acute{u}a\acute{j}\acute{u}j\acute{o}-f\grave{e}y\grave{n}j\acute{o}$ dance-style, the Fig. 5.3 performance stage can be drawn.

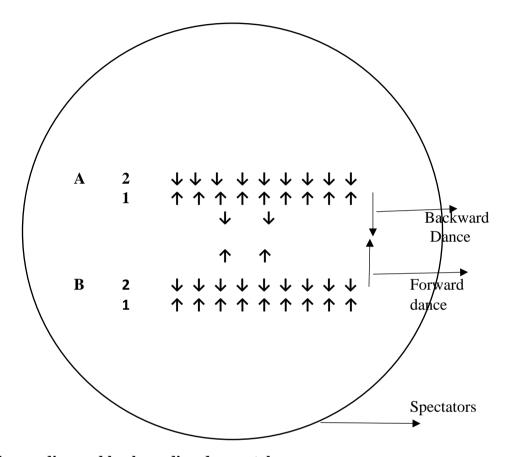


Fig. 5.3 Forwarding and backwarding dance-style

Row 1 of A in the diagram (Fig. 5.3) has the horizontally arranged arrows which represent the instrumentalists who firstly perform the backward movement dance style. At their front are the main dancer and the lead vocalist who direct the performance. Row 2 of A also represents the instrumentalists who perform forwarding movement dance style simultaneously when the backwarding movement dance style is on. Immediately after the available space in the performance arena is reached, both the lead dancer and the lead vocalist change their positions to direct the performers on row 2 in performing backwarding movement dance-style like how they do to performers on row 1. This is exactly what B is used to represent in the above diagram. The dance style is a qualisign as it shows the competent dance skills of the instrumentalists of *orin agbè*

In *orin kete* like many other Yorùbá dance music, dancers can move forward or backward when doing a mono-performance, it may even occur when dancing with another performer. This cannot be compared with the one described above in *orin agbè*. The forwarding and backwarding movement dance style described above is an innovation peculiar to the Igbó-Qrà *ṣàkàrá* group.

5.2.2.7 *Olóbìírípo/bírípo* (turning/whirling) dance-style

Olóbiírípo, for the agbè dancers or bírípo for the kete dancers, refers to the same dancing style we have described as turning and whirling. The dancing style is characterised by the repeated circular movement described in the Yorùbá versions of the name. As explained under call and response style in orin kete and orin agbè, the word olóbiírípo (discussed as olóbiírípobírí) is an idiophonic adjective which is generated from an idiophonic adverb "bírípo" (meaning a complete quick circular move) through a nominalisation process; firstly with the prefix " \acute{o} -" and secondly with "oní-" as shown in " \grave{o} - + bírípo = \grave{o} bírípo", then "oní-", another nominaliser is introduced as in "oní- + \grave{o} bírípo = olóbiípó". Though "bírípo" might be an adjective and "olóbiírípo" might be a noun, both in the context of both genres refer to the same thing as they are used to describe the same dance style.

In *the olóbìírípo* dancing style of *orin agbè*, the gourd players numbering about nine make a single file and start dancing in a circular movement turning round as portrayed in the Plates 5.13i. and 5.3ii. below.





Plate 5.13i. & 5.13ii. The $agb\grave{e}$ instrumentalists make a circle dancing round The pictures were taken by the researcher at Onímia palace, Ìmia on 8/9/2018.

As shown in the Plates 5.13i. and 5.13ii., the woman in the flower blouse did not make the circle formulated; she, as can be seen, was dancing but only close to the circle made. When doing this, the following lines were rendered to accompany the performance of performance:

Lílé: Olóbìírípobírí Call: Olóbìírípobírí Ègbè: Òní la ó maláré

We shall know the Response:

performer today Lílé: Olóbìírípobírí Call: Olóbìírípobírí

Ègbè: Òní la ó maláré We shall know the Response:

performer today

In the performance space of this dance style, the call "Olóbìírípobírî" made by the lead vocalist above is a challenge posted to other performers, usually the main dancer. The response "Òní la ó maláré" completes the sense aimed at by the lead vocalist. This response as it complements the call shows the chorus' position about the call made; thus, were ready to see the real dancer that could dance to the style. *Aláré* (a performer) mentioned there is not just a performer but a real dancer who has the skill of performing the style. The dance-style "Olóbìírípobírî" in the dance arena of orin agbè could be seen as signifying the yardstick employed in rating the good dancer of orin agbè. It could also be seen as signifying criticism, competition among agbè dancers and appreciation of a good dancer.

As already noted, the turning and whirling dancing style in *orin kete* is performed by the main dancer only, the aboyeri (the wearer of the kete dance skirt). This dancing style constitutes part of the prelude to the whole performance where the performer venerates the deities related to orin kete. The Plates 5.14i. to 5.14iv. show the aboyeri performing bírípo dancing style in orin kete.



Plate 5.14i. & 5.14ii Standing sub-type of bírípo dancing style



Plate 5.14iii. & 5.14iv. Kneeling sub-type of bírípo dancing style

The pictures were taken at Igbó-Qrà by the researcher. The first, third and fourth pictures were taken at Arúńlè compound on 17/6/2018 while the second was taken at Olú of Igbó-Qrà coronation on 25/5/2019.

There are two sub-types of *bírípo* dancing styles in *orin kete*. These are standing and kneeling whirling dancing styles. Plate 5.14i. and 5.14ii. are stages of the standing sub-type of the *bírípo* dancing style of *orin kete*. The performer whirled smoothly in Plate 5.14i. This is the reason the flap and the flowing part of the gown looked smooth even at the high speed of the whirling state of the performer as shown in plate 5.14i. On Plate 14.5ii., this was not the case. The performer in the plate was whirling fast from the left-hand side to the right but suddenly changed to the right without a pause. Hence, the spherical shape made by the gown as it is on Plate 5.14ii. was deformed. Plates 5.14iii. and 5.14iv. are stages of kneeling whirling dancing style (*bírípo*) of *orin kete*. The main dancer in both plates knelt on one left leg, a motionless leg, while the other leg was stretched to move round. As it is whirled round, a circle was inscribed on the ground. The centre point of the circle was marked by the leg kneling on while the stretched moving one marked the circumference of the circle. It is noted that even when the performance continued, the hand props; the rattling instrument and the whisk the dancer was holding remained intact.

Whirling round on one kneel in *orin kete* as shown and described above has dual significations. First, the circular mark drawn on the ground may be seen as an iconic signification of *ojú-ęgbé*, the shrine of Alárá-Igbó and other related deities who are made up of *egbé* (a club or a group of worshippers), where they meet for religious services. Second, touching one's kneel and elbow on the ground as shown above may be seen as a variant of the cultural sign of showing respect called *ìyíkàá*. *Ìyíkàá* is usually done towards the right and left as usually expressed in "*mo yíkàá òtún*, *mo yíkàá òsì*" (I roll over towards the right and the left). This is similar to the clockwise and anticlockwise movements of *bìírípo* as discussed above. What the dance movement signifies is the total submission of the dancer to Alárá-Igbó deity.

5.2.2.8 Fò-lálá (jumping high) dance-style

The dance style is restricted to *orin agbè*. In this style, dancers are asked to jump up continuously to display their agility. The players of gourds stimulate the dancers when it is time to dance $f\hat{o}$ - $l\hat{a}l\hat{a}$ dance-style by increasing the tempo of the instruments. While the dance is ongoing, vocalists change the lyric to the particular one that indicates the song:

Lílé: Qmọ eléyli fò lókèlókè ò Call: This child jumps up

highly

Ègbè: Fò láálá Response: Jump up highly Lílé: Omo elévìí fò lókèlókè ò Call: This child jumps up

highly

Ègbè: Fò láálá Response: Jump up highly

The poetic character who was described to have jumped up is a young person, probably a teenager. This is the reason he/she is described as <code>omodé</code>. <code>Omodé</code> is directly translated to mean child, a young person, a teenager or an underage person. Thus, <code>omodé</code> is physically fit to jump and do some physical activities because of its physical strength. Yorùbá people say, "igbà ara là á búra...". This could be translated as "It is when one fits that one performs". <code>Omodé</code> can jump up high because he/she is fit". Many a time, acrobats in <code>orin agbè</code> are youths. Youths are sometimes referred to as <code>omodé</code> if the speaker actually focuses on their agility and their physical fitness. In other words, <code>omodé</code> as it is used in the extract can also mean the acrobats in the genre. If this is the case, <code>the fò-lálá</code> dance-style of <code>orin agbè</code> is sinsign, a representamen of physical reality (strength) present in the acrobats of the genre. Plates 5.15i. and 5.15ii. of <code>fò-lálá</code> dance styles are presented below.





Plates 5.15i. & 5.15ii.A back and a side view of *fòlálá* dance-style

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Onímia palace, Ìmia on 8/9/2018.

There are important things to be noted in the Plates 5.15i. and 5.15ii. above. The first is that the dancers who were said to be *omodé* were not. They were adult women who could not jump very well. The second is that there were *omodé*, children, standing directly opposite the dancer, who were also supposed to perform the dance style perfectly but could not because they were not trained to do so. This is to show that the acrobatic aspect of *orin agbè* is no more active at Ìmia. Performers like Chief John Adégòkè (the man standing in the pictures, wearing green and orange native clothes, facing the dancers at the lefthand side) who could perform skilfully was old and could no more dance the style. We further discussed this at length under magical and acrobatic displays in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. Fò-lálá dance style might have been sometimes realised in *orin kete* but during the time of study, it was not being practised.

5.2.2.9 Open and close dance-style

This dance style is peculiar to *orin kete*. This is a situation whereby the main dancer squats and starts opening and closing his kneel, tweaking it to mimic women's dance. The dance style seems to indicate sexual gesticulation. Plates 5.16i. and 5.16ii. below are examples of open and close dance style in *orin kete*.





Plates 5.16i. & 5.16ii. A side and a back view of open and close dance-style

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Arúńlę̀ compound, Òkè-Odò, Igbó-Ọrà on 17/6/2018.

Mimicking women in oral performance is not new but attention should to be paid to when some sensitive parts of women or women's clothes are used. Virginal is located down deep in-between thighs. Socially, Yorùbá women do not just open their thighs whenever they sit. They usually close up their thighs or use their wrapper to cover the open space in-between their thighs. Any attempt of opening it intentionally could be interpreted as sexual desire. Relating this to the open and close dance style in *orin kete* as it is being done by *aboyèrì*, the performer in this kind of dance may be seen as gesticulating the state of sexual desire.

5.2.2.10 *Métaméta-èlà/là-á-méta* dance-style

This is a dance style found only in *orin agbè*. The dancer in this style of dance is expected to pause the dance at the count of three beats of instrumentation. In *the agbè* performance group of Igbó-Qrà, Pa Tìámíyù Òjó (the man deputising for Chief Adéwolé Òjó, the most elderly man at Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Igbó-Qrà, who could not attend the performance due to his health), explained that no one among them could dance *métaméta-èlà* dance-style the way their fathers did in the olden days. He stated further that the style was danced with their barefoot. They banged the feet on the ground to the extent that the spot the dancer of this style maintained broke and was made soft. Pa Tìámíyù continued that not that the dancer used magical power but it occured with the use of physical strength and technical know-how. During this type of performance, the below song of *agbè* is sung.

Lílé: Métaméta èlà Call: Break it into three

Ègbè: Agogo èlà Response: Break the gong into three

Lílé: Métaméta èlà Call: Break it into three

Ègbè: Agogo èlà Response: Break the gong into three

Lílé: Métaméta èlà Call: Break it into three

Ègbè: Agogo ệlà Response: Break the gong into three



Plate 5.17 The dancer in *agbádá* regalia was making just an attempt to dance *métaméta-èlà* dance-style

The picture was taken by the researcher at Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Òkè-Ìṣṭrin, Igbó-Qrà on 5/8/2018.

In Îmia agbè performance, métaméta-èlà is considered an ordinary agbè jíjá dance style that an ordinary dancer can perform and which does not require breaking the ground. The vocalists would just be calling the attention of the dancer to the sound of both the gong and the gourd so that he/she would dance and pause according to the rhythm. This is shown in the song below.

Lílé: Là á méta Call: Pause it on the count of three Ègbè: Kó lè ró bí agogo That it may sound like a gong Response: Táyélolú là á méta ò

Call: Táyélolú, pause it on the count

of three

Ègbè: Kó lè ró bí agogo That it may sound like a gong Response:

Métaméta-èlà in orin kete as treated above shows the strength deployed in dancing to some dance styles in *orin agbè*. Dance is a social entertainment which is expected to be free from the use of force in order to make it natural and not too mechanical so as not to reduce the entertainment satisfaction the audience derive from it. In the case of métaméta-èlà dance-style explained above, it is a signifier of the physical fitness of the dancer; hence, it is a sinsign.

5.2.3 Semiotics of acrobatic and magical displays in orin kete and orin agbè

This study finds out that there are no acrobatic and magical displays in *orin kete*. This may be due to its religious background. Orin agbè, which is largely entertainmentbased, features both acrobatic and magical display. Though both Ògúndèjì (1979) and Àlàbá (1985) aver that there are magical and acrobatic displays in orin àgbè, none of them explains the varieties of magical and acrobatic displays that occur in this poetic genre and how they are performed. This must be because their focus is on the poetic consent of the genres. Had both researchers given some attention to magical and acrobatic displays in their works, they would probably have recorded more than enough displays which many contemporary performers of orin agbè can no more perform due to old age, abandonment of the performance, migration to cities and many more. The little acrobatic we were able to obtain are discussed along with magical displays because it is observed that many acrobatic displays also have elements of the magical. However, not all acrobatic displays involved the use of magical power.

During our interview with him, Mr Matiu Ojéèlú (aka Atakóró), explained that orin agbè performers used to perform different acrobatic displays during performance in which some magical displays feature. Chief John Adégòkè, the Bàbá-Oba (King's father) of Ìmia, also corroborated this. Among the acrobatic and magical displays they mentioned are *rínrìnrìn-ìgàrè* (walking with two palms with the feet in the air), *òkìtì-òbọ* (monkey's somersault), *olóbìírípobírí* (turning and whirling), lifting with the brooms, lifting with the leaves, ridding bicycle on someone's back, jump of different types, e.g *àlòṣilo* somersault, making things strangely appear and disappear and cutting off someone's part of the body.

5.2.3.1 *Olóbìírípobírí* (turning/whirling)

This is an acrobatic version of *olóbiírípobírí* dance-style of *orin agbè*. It is one of the major acrobatic displays in *orin agbè*. The performer of this display remains in a squatting position, stretches one leg and folds the second to rest on it. His right hand is put beside him, the left must touch the ground at the place available in between the legs. The performer then begins to turn around, interchanging his legs and hands in such a way that only one leg and one hand touch the ground at a time. Sometimes, the performer makes the legs to be turning around interchangeably without touching the ground but has one of his hands always on the ground. After the performer has rolled for three or four rounds, he prostrates himself. These movements are done very fast and perfect that it is difficult to notice the exact time another prostration will be done. Plates showing different stages of the *olóbìírípobírí* acrobatic display are presented on Plates 5.18i. to 5.18vi. below.





Plate 5.18i. The starting point

Plate 5.18ii. Getting prepared to whirl





Plate 5.18iii. One hand and one leg on the Plate 5.18iv. Only one leg on the ground ground while whirling while whirling



Plate 5.18v. Both legs up and hands on the ground



Plate 5.18vi. The point of prostration

The song *olóbiírípobírí* referred to while discussing the *olóbiírípobírí* style of dance is rendered during this performance. *Olóbiírípobírí* acrobatic is a display that ends with prostration. As already pointed out, prostration in the Yorùbá social context is a cultural sign of greeting and respect. The question one cannot but ask at this juncture is why the display ends with prostration and what does it signify in the performance context? Before these questions are answered, further explanation on the performance context of *olóbiírípobírí* acrobatic display must be done. This display is usually performed at the initial stage of acrobatic display in *orin agbè*. Other acrobatic displays that can fix this opening slot include *òkìtì-òbo* and *rínrìnrìn ìgàrè*. The prostration performance is used to punctuate any of the three substitutional displays; signifying the end of the display and the preparation for the next display. Hence, it serves a structural significatory purpose. Furthermore, deriving from the socio-symbolic essence of prostration among the Yorùbá people, the prostration at the opening of the acrobatic performance in general also signifies homage to all and sundry present in the arena of the performance.

5.2.3.2 Lifting with owo (the broom)

This is an acrobatic display whereby a dancer is lifted by two other performers with two conjoined brooms. Two bunches of broom $(\rho w \dot{\rho}, igb\acute{a}l\dot{\rho})$ or sasara are employed in this display. The head of both bunches of brooms are joined together in such a way that they are properly interlocked. Having done this, the interlocked brooms would be laid on the ground; two performers would hold the handles of both broom tightly facing each other. Another performer would lie with his stomach on top of the conjoined broom and the other two performers holding the brooms would lift him up, taking him round the arena before returning him to the initial place where the display starts. Plates 5.19i. to 5.19viii. represent lifting with $\rho w \dot{\rho}$ acrobatic display:





Plate 5.19i. Joining brooms together Plate 5.19ii. About to lay the brooms on the floor





Plate 5.19iii. While dressing the joined brooms

Plate 5.19iv. Lying on the conjoined brooms



Plate 5.19v. Attempt to lift

Plate 5.19vi. Balancing on the brooms



Plate 5.19.vii Already lifted

Plate 5.19viii. Carrying round the stage

When carrying him round the stage, the vocalist and the gourd player sang the song related to the display while the performer danced to it, using his hands only. The common song sung to this display is as follow:

Lílé: Sísà máa jệ ò Call: The used charm should function

Gbogbo è lòògùn ò All are charms

Ègbè: Àìsà máa jé ò Response: Unused charm should function

Gbogbo è lòògùn ò... All are charms

The song is an indication that the performers make use of charm in this performance. $\partial s \dot{u} s \dot{u} - \rho w \dot{\rho}$ (a bunch of brooms) is also a social sign of unity in the Yorùbá milieu. Yorùbá people believe that as it is not easy to break a bunch of brooms with one's hand, so it is difficult to defeat a group of united people. In this context, $\partial s \dot{u} s \dot{u} - \rho w \dot{\rho}$ symbolises the power of unity. One can say that the lifting with two $\partial s \dot{u} s \dot{u} - \rho w \dot{\rho}$ performance semiotically further confirms the Yorùbá perspective about the symbolism of the bunch of brooms as a sign of the power of unity. A Yorùbá saying that further affirms this view is " $Igba \ esinsin ki \ i \ dena \ dow \dot{\rho}; \ \rho w \dot{\rho} \ baba \ esinsin"$ (Two hundred flies cannot ambush a bunch of brooms; the broom is the master of the flies).

5.2.3.3 Lifting with leaves (ewé)

The lifting with leaves acrobatic display is the same as lifting with brooms. Instead of using brooms, leaves are used. These are long leaves gathered and arranged facing one another. After the leaves have been properly gathered and arranged, a performer who is likely to be the person that the gathered leaves will be used to lift will take a magical whisk (irukere) to make the leaves sticky and strong. After this, like how it was done when using the broom, the performer will be lifted up, taken round the arena and returned to the initial spot where the display has started (usually the centre of the stage). Plate 5.20i to 5.20x. illustrate the actions involved in performing lifting with leaves display.





Plate 5.20i. Cutting the leaves from the Plate 5.20ii. Arranging the leaves Stem





Plate 5.20iii. Arranged leaves using the Plate 5.20iv. Applying magical power, whisk



Plate 5.20v. Lying on the leaves



Plate 5.20vi. Lifting up



Plate 5.20vii. Carried with leaves round the stage



Plate 5.20viii. Returning to the initial spot



Plate 5.20ix. Attempt to dislocate the leaves



Plate 5.20x. Dislocated gathered leaves

When this performance started, the song sung in the broom lifting acrobatic display was also rendered but with additional lyrics as in the excerpt below:

Lílé: Sísà máa jệ ò Call: The used charm should function

Gbogbo è lòògùn ò All are charms

Ègbè: Àìsà máa jé ò Response: Unused charm should

function

Gbogbo è lòògùn ò... All are charms

Lílé: Ewé Olúferejègè 64 Call: The leaf of Olúferejègè

Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe ròkè fe Response: Wind should lift him up

Lílé: Ewé Olúferejègè Call: The leaf of Olúferejègè

Ègbè: Èfuùfù gbe ròkè fe... Response: Wind should lift him up

In the above lyrics, the performers first asked both used and unused charms to work for them. They further invoked the power of *olûferejègè* leaf in particular, one of the materials used to prepare the charm of lifting and stickiness on the whisk used on the gathered leaves. Fortunately, their request was granted. This looks like a purely magic in the acrobatic display. Leaves are fragile, they are not strong to the extent of using them to lift a full-grown man as it was performed in the display. The use of magical power in *orin agbè* is an argument, a sign that is represented as a reason for its interpretant. This is why such a display would not have been possible if the magical power is not employed. The whole performance further signifies the Yorùbá cultural belief in magical power (*agbára òògùn*). Such magical displays are not limited to *orin agbè* performance among the Yorùbá. They are also found in *egúngún aláré* (entertaining masquerade) and Ṣàngó (Yorùbá god of thunder) performances for example.

5.3 Semiotics of audience participation in *orin kete* and *orin agbè*

One of the features that characterise Yorùbá performances like other African performances is active audience participation. As mentioned in chapter two of this work, members of the audience actively participate in the presentation and performance of Yorùbá oral poetry in many ways. Among these are watching the performance, joining in singing or chanting, dancing with performers, dancing with other members of the audience or dancing in isolation, appreciating the quality of the performance by giving money or other gifts, and applauding the performers by clapping or hailing the performers.

⁶⁴ A leaf is probably among the ingredients used in making the charm attached to the whisk applied to summon the magical power of stickiness into the leaves used to lift the performer.

The audience in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* is not sex-specific nor age-restricted. However, the setting and purpose of the performance usually determine the proportion of the type of the audience. In the religious type of *orin kete* performance, the proportion of women and children usually outnumbers that of men. The Plates 5.21i., 5.21ii., 5.21iii. and 5.21iv. below show different members of the audience during *orin kete* and *orin agbè* performances.



Plate 5.21i. Orin kete where the audience mostly were women and children



Plate 5.21ii. Orin kete performance where audience were mostly men

The pictures were taken by the researcher at Igbó-Qrà, the first at Arísányán compound on 18/8/2018 and the second at the coronation of Olú of Igbó-Qrà on 25/5/2019.



Plate 5.21iii. Orin agbè where audience were mainly women



Plate 5.21iv. *Orin agbè* where audience were mostly children (boys)

Both pictures were taken by the researcher, the first at Old Garage, Igbó-Ọrà on 2/2/2019 and the second at Atakóró's house, Ilùà on 7/9/2018.

Plate 5.21i. above shows a religious setting of *orin kete* performance. The women in the white worship cloths of Alárá-Igbó, the man in the casual dress and the instrumentalists behind them were the performers of *orin kete* in the setting. Other people, dominated by women and children, standing or dancing on the plate were members of the audience. This is to buttress the point made that women and children dominate the religious setting of *orin kete*. Plate 5.21ii. portrays the secular setting of *orin kete* performance. In this setting, men outnumbered women. This performance took place at a coronation ceremony where the huge number of the audience was too much for many women to bear, which made them step back. Plate 5.21iii. shows a high number of women sitting under the tent, watching the performance of *orin agbè*. The women outnumbered the men in the performance setting because the data were taken during a political campaign. At this point, the participants in the campaign programme were mostly women. On Plate 5.21iv., the audience were mostly male children because the performance was held at the compound of the leader of the Ilùà *agbè* performance group. This is a place where children were able to quickly join as members of the audience en masse.

The members of the audience of the genres under study as mentioned usually appreciate and reward the performers by either 'spraying' money on them or giving out valuable items to them. This is represented in *orin agbè* cited below.

1. Lílé: Oba ó fèwù tọre Call:

Yóó fì láwàní tọre
Ègbè: Oba ó fèwù tore Respon

Call: The king will dash out clothes
He will dash out turban
Response: The king will dash out
clothes

2. Lílé: Aìítàáo Aìítagbèláwìn Ègbè: Tórótórólowó Call: We do not sell it

We do not sell gourd on credit

Response: The cost of selling agbè is tóró⁶⁵

In the first excerpt, the vocalists foregrounded the fact that Oba (the king), who was a major member of the audience of their performance, would give them both money and clothes. The second song is usually rendered when the singers observe that the members of the audience are not 'spending money for them' (wọn kò ná owó fún wọn) as expected. The expression, "A ì í tà agbè láwìn" (We do not sell gourd on credit) is a metaphoric sarcastic indictment of the members of the audience. By implication, they are the "aláwìn" or "onígbèsè" (debtors). From this perspective, the agbè singers become the creditors while the performance becomes the commodity. To label someone

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⁶⁵ This is Yorùbá borrowed word for threepence. A denomination spent during the colonial period in Nigeria.

 $al\acute{a}w\grave{i}n/on\acute{i}gb\grave{e}s\grave{e}$ is a cultural stigma among the Yorùbá people. The price placed on the metaphoric commodity, $t\acute{o}r\acute{o}$ (three pence), is an affordable one and further makes the situation more ridiculous. The ultimate intention of the singers is to make the members of the audience 'spend money' for them out of bashfulness.

It is implicit in the lyrics of the above songs that the performers of *orin* kete and *orin* agbè are usually appreciated by members of the audience. An example of such a song in *orin kete* is shown below.

Lílé: Ni wón se gbé mọtò wá mi wá o

Ni wộn se gbé mọtò wá mi wá o

<u>-</u>

Nígbà téré wá gbayì o

Ègbè: Ni wón se gbé mọtò wá mi wá o

Call: That is why they dash me

a car

That is why they dash me

a car

Because our performance is

popular

Response: That is why they dash

me a car

The lead singer in the above *orin kete* mentioned that he had received a car from members of his/her audience. Plates 5.21v. and 5.21vi. below portray how members of the audience appreciated the performers of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* by "spraying" money on them.



Plate 5.21v. The man sprayed money on the performer while the other man close to him collected it in *orin kete*



Plate 5.21vi. The woman wearing a bangle sprayed money on performers in orin $agb\grave{e}$

Both pictures were taken at Igbó-Qrà by the researcher. The first was taken at Olúrìn compound, Ìsàlè-Qba on 8/7/2018 while the second was taken at Ajóṣàkàrá compound, Òkè-Ìṣṇrin on 4/8/2018.

Apart from appreciating the performers, members of the audience of both genres also joined to sing the response part of the songs. This is to show that they were following the performance. It is also a sign of showing satisfaction with the performance. The audience of *orin agbè* and *orin kete* also expressed their satisfaction with the performance by dancing to the song and instrumentation. In *orin kete*, the member of the audience tried to mimic the style of dance the *aboyèrì* danced. Likewise, some dancers of *orin agbè* attempted to dance *eléyoèyo/yopáyosè* style even when they were not perfect at doing this as we can see in the Plates 5.21vii. to 5.21viii. below.



Plate 5.21vii. A member of the audience mimicked the open and close dance style of *orin kete*



Plate 5.21viii. A boy attempting the eléyo-èyo dance style of orin agbè

Both pictures were taken by the researcher. The first was taken at Arúńlę compound, Òkè-Odò, Igbó-Ọrà on 17/6/2018 and the second at Atakóró's house, Ilùà on 7/9/2018.

Apart from dancing to the song and musical instruments in *orin agbè* performance, the audience also participates in aspects of the magical and acrobatic displays. When the Ilùà *agbè* performance group want to perform one magical or acrobatic display, they at times invite members of the audience to participate in it. I was, for example, informed that when they want to perform the magical display where they ask the performer to lie down facing the ground, a member of the audience could be called to ride a motorcycle over him⁶⁶. The magical aspect of it is that the victim will not be injured in any way, that is, nothing will happen to him. The reason an outsider is called to do that is that people will be sure that the scene is not fake or make-believe. Plate 5.21ix. and 5.21x. are pictures showing some audience participation in the acrobatic and magical aspect of *orin agbè*.

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⁶⁶ This was explained by Mr Matiu Òję́eĺú, the leader of *the agbè* performers' group of Ilùà that to make their audience believe that this magical display is real, the performers invite an outsider, usually a member of the audience who knows how to ride a motorcycle to come and ride on the back of the performer taking the role.



Plate 5.21ix. A woman giving the broom she was asked to bring by the performers



Plate 5.21x. A man putting the leaves he was asked to bring for lifting with leaf performance on the ground

Thus, audience participation in magical and acrobatic performances of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* is a sign that represented its interpretant as a reason. Thus, it may be seen as an argument; a sign when the signifier stands as a reason for its signified. This is in accordance with a Yorùbá saying, "*Bí òògùn ení bá dáni lójú*, à á fi í gbárí ni" (if one is sure of one's magical powers, one emboldened by it). Meanwhile, to some extent, audience participation is restricted in the religious aspect of *orin kete* while it is not in *orin agbè*.

5.4 Relevance and sustainability of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*

This section presents the quantitative data analysis of the collected data on the relevance and sustainability of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* from the three towns in Ìbàràpá and Òkè-Ògùn area of Òyó State. The towns are Igbó-Ọrà, Ìmia and Ilùà. The questionnaire was designed towards determining the relevance and sustainability of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* in these communities. It contained thirty questions divided into three sections. The first section was made up of ten demographic questions on the respondents, the second had twelve questions on the awareness of the respondents on *orin kete* and *orin agbè* and the information about the sustainability of the genres while the third section contained eight questions on the relevance of the genres in curbing anti-social behaviours. The data were analysed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

5.4.1 Section A: Analysis of the demographic characteristics of respondents

Table 5.1 presents the result of the analyses of the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Table 5.1 Demographic characteristics of respondents

Variable	Frequency				
	Orin Agbè	Percentage	Orin Kete	Percentage	
Gender	_	_			
Male	30	60.0	31	62.0	
Female	20	40.0	19	38.0	
Age					
20-39years	8	16.0	11	22.0	
40-59years	17	34.0	13	26.0	
60-79years	15	30.0	17	34.0	
80+ years	10	20.0	9	18.0	
Religion					
African	6	12.0	14	28.0	
Traditional					
Religion					
Islam	29	58.0	26	52.0	
Christianity	15	30.0	8	16.0	
Other religions	-	-	2	4.0	
Educational					
Qualification					
Primary	6	12.0	15	30.0	
Secondary	11	22.0	13	26.0	
Tertiary	10	20.0	8	16.0	
No Education	23	46.0	14	28.0	
Occupation of th	e				
Respondents					
Farming	7	14.0	10	20.0	
Teaching	4	8.0	4	8.0	
Trading	20	40.0	16	32.0	
Craftsmanship	8	16.0	10	20.0	
Driver	2	4.0	3	6.0	
Native Doctor	4	8.0	3	6.0	
Others	5	10.0	4	8.0	

Source: Researcher's Computation, 2021

Table 5.1, presents the demographic information of the respondents. From the table, it is obtainable that majority of the respondents were male with the frequency of 61(61.0%) while female were 39(39.0%). The distribution of respondents on age-grade shows that those whose age bracket fell between 60-79 were the majority with the frequency of 32 (32.0%); respondents whose ages ranged from 40-59 years were 30 (30.0%); respondents whose age bracket fell between 20-39 were 19 (19.0%) and those who were 80 years plus equally were 19 (19.0%). On the religious composition, the respondents who practised Islam were mostly represented with the frequency of 55(55.0%); the respondents who were Christians were 23 (23.0%) while the Traditional Religion worshippers were 20 (20.0%). Only 2(2.0%) indicated that they practised other religions. Respondents who had no education were the most represented with 37 (37.0%) while the respondents with primary and secondary school qualifications were 21 (21.0%) and 24 (24.0%) respectively. Respondents with higher education qualifications were just 19 (19.0%). The frequency of respondents who were traders was the highest with the value of 36 (36.0%); 17 (17.0%) were farmers while 18 (18.0%) were craftsmen. The teachers among them were 8(8.0%) and those who were into transport services (drivers) constituted 5 (5.0%). Native doctors were 7 (7.0%) and those with other types of jobs are were (9.0%).

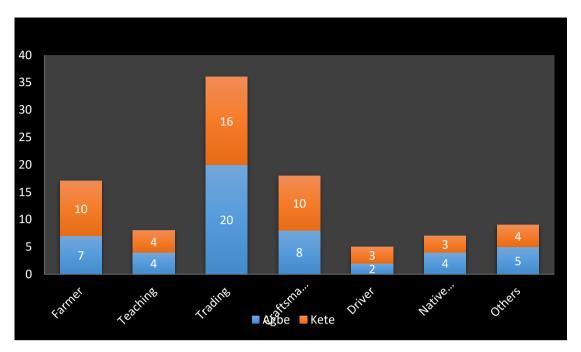


Fig. 5.4 Occupation of the repondents

It is revealed in the above Table 5.1 that male respondents were more than female respondents in both genres. The availability and positive response of male respondents during the administration of the questionnaire were responsible for this. The age brackets of the respondents show that people across the listed age intervals by application were still interested in the discussion of *orin agbè* and *orin kete*. The religious status of the respondents shows that majority of the respondents were Muslims. This is an indication that the majority of the people of Ìbàràpá and Òkè Ògùn are Muslims. It is also shown by their education qualification status that few among the respondents had tertiary education and the level of illiteracy among the research communities was high. It is also revealed in the table that many of the respondents were traders, artisans and farmers.

 Table 5. 2 Continuation of demographic characteristics of respondents

Variable	Frequency			
	Orin Agbè	Percentage	Orin Kete	Percentage
Origin				
Ìmia	10	20.0	-	-
Ilùà	10	20.0	-	-
Igbó-Orà	27	54.0	42	84.0
Ìdèrè	1	2.0	4	8.0
Others	1	2.0	4	8.0
Residence				
Ìmia	10	20.0	-	-
Ilùà	10	20.0	-	-
Igbó-Orà	28	56.0	47	94.0
Ìdèrè	1	2.0	-	-
Others	1	2.0	3	6.0
Year of Stay				
20-39	10	20.0	17	34.0
40-59	17	34.0	14	28.0
60-79	14	28.0	12	24.0
80 and above	9	18.0	7	14.0
Other places of				
Residence				
One town	25	50.0	39	78.0
Two town	3	6.0	-	-
Three town	1	2.0	3	6.0
No except my	3	6.0	2	4.0
town				
How long have				
you stayed				
there?				
1-20	22	44.0	32	64.0
21-40	7	14.0	6	12.0
41-60	-	-	3	6.0
81 plus			1	2.0

Source: Researcher's Computation, 2021

Table 5.2 further indicates the demographic information of the respondents. Many of the respondents were from Igbó-Orà [69 (69.0%)] while 10 (10%) each were from Ìmia and Ilùà respectively. Those whose origin is Ìdèrè had a frequency of 5 (5.0%). Similarly, those from other places were also 5 (5.0%). On the current place of residence, the frequency of those from Igbó-Orà was the highest with a value of 75 (75.0%) while those presently leaving in Ilùà and Ìmia were each with the frequency of 10 (10.0%). Only one respondent was leaving in Idèrè while four respondents were leaving in other places of the country. On the year of residence, 31 (31.0%) signified that they had been living in their town of residence for up to 40 to 59 years, while 27 (27.0%) stated that they had lived there for 20 to 39 years. Respondents whose duration of staying in their towns of residence fell between 60 and 79 years were 26 (26.0%) while those above 80 years were 16 (16.0%). Respondents who had lived in one other town except for their current place of residence were 64 (64.0%); three (3) indicated to have lived in two other places and 4(4.0%) in the other three places. 5(5.0%) respondents had never lived in other places except for their current place of residence. With regard to how long they had lived in their other places of residence, 55 respondents mentioned 1 to 20 years; 11 respondents signified 21 to 40 years and three (3) stated that they have lived in other places between 41 to 60 years.

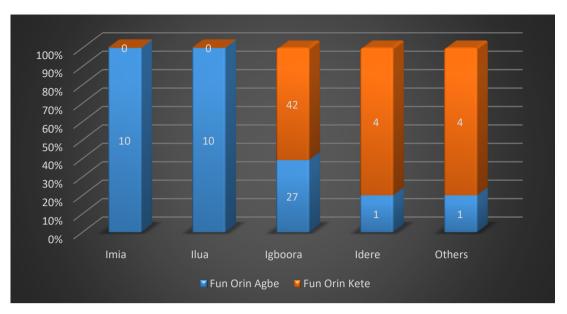


Fig. 5.5 Distribution of respondents based on their origins

Figure 5. 5 is a further presentation of the demographic characteristics of the respondents. Majority of the respondents came from Igbó-Orà. This is because Igbó-Orà is bigger in size compared to Ìmia and Ilùà. Besides, *orin kete* is not found in the other two towns. Some respondents who claimed to be from Ìdèrè or other towns were in one way or the other related to the research communities by marriage. Ìmia and Ilùà had no respondents for *orin kete* because the genre was not available in the communities. The majority of the respondents claimed that they had been living in the research communities for more than ten years. The majority of them had also lived in some other towns apart from their places of origin.

5.4.2 Section B: Experience of the respondents about *orin agbè* and *orin kete* and the information about the sustainability of the genres

The results of the awareness and the familiarity of the respondents with *orin agbè* and *orin kete* and the information about the sustainability of the genres are presented in Table 5.3i. below.

Table 5.3i. Frequency and percentage distributions of experience of respondents on *orin agbè* and *orin kete*

Items (N=50)	Freq.	Percentage	Freq.	Percentage
Njé e ti gbó nípa orin agbè/orin kete ri?				_
(Have you heard about orin agbè/orin				
<i>kete</i> before?)				
Yes	50	100.0	48	96.0
No	-	-	2	4.0
If yes, how?				
Ní agbolé mi (At our compound)	18	36.0	18	36.0
Ní ìlú mi (At my home town)	17	34.0	10	20.0
Ní ibi ayeye (At the place of	15	30.0	20	40.0
ceremonies)			20	40.0
Njé e ti wòran orin agbè/orin kete ri?				
(Have watched the performance of <i>orin</i>				
agbè/orin kete before?)	5 0	100.0	40	00.0
Yes	50	100.0	49	98.0
No	-	-	1	2.0
If yes, where?				
Ìmia	10	20.0	-	-
Ìmia and Ilùà	4	8.0	-	-
Ilùà	5	10.0	-	_
Igbó-Ọrà	26	52.0	35	70.0
Ìdèrè	-	-	3	6.0
Ibi ayeye (At the place of ceremonies)	-	-	8	16.0
Òmíràn (Others)	5	10.0	4	8.0

Source: Researcher's Computation, 2021

Table 5.3i. presents frequency and percentage distributions of knowledge and awareness of respondents on *orin agbè* and *orin kete*. In the study, 50 (100.0%) respondents had heard about *orin agbè*, 48 (96.0%) had heard about *orin kete* while 2(4.0%) respondents had not heard about it before. The source of respondents' information was mostly ceremonial events, [35 (35.0%)]; others are: *agbo ilé* and for being *àjebi* [27 (27.0%)] and presence at the particular town where it was performed [36 (36.0%)]. In response to whether they had watched *orin agbè* and *orin kete* before, 50 (100.0%) said yes to *orin agbè*, 49 (98.0%) to *orin kete* while only 1(2.0%) said no to *orin kete*. On the source where they had watched it, 26 (52.0%) indicated Igbó-Qrà for *orin agbè* and 35 (70.0%) for *orin kete*, 19 (19.0%) respondents stated Ilùà and Ìmia for *orin agbè*, 8(16.0%) mentioned that they heard about *orin kete* at ceremonial events while 3 (6.0%) said they heard about it at Ìdèrè. Other responses have frequencies of 5 (10.0%) and 4 (8.0%) for *orin agbè* and *orin kete* respectively.

As presented above, all fifty respondents of *orin agbè* indicated that they had heard about the genre before their encounter with the researcher. Only two of the fifty respondents indicated that they were hearing about *orin kete* for the first time. It is shown that the majority of the respondents heard about both *orin agbè* and *orin kete* in their compound, followed by those who heard about the genres within their towns and at the places of ceremonies. This is an indication that the performances of *orin agbè* and *orin kete* are commonplace and prepoderant in the research communities. There are also indications that the majority of the respondents had watched the performances of the genres and that they had watched them in their communities.

Table 5.3ii. The frequency and percentage distributions of experience of respondents on *orin agbè and orin kete*

Items (N=50)	Freq.	Percentage	Freq.	Percentage	
Njé e ti kópa nínú orin agbè/orin kete					
rí? (Have you participated in the					
performance of <i>orin agbè/kete</i> before?)					
Yes	19	38.0	32	64.0	
No	31	62.0	18	36.0	
If yes, where?					
Ìmia	7	14.0	0	0	
Ilùà	1	2.0	-	-	
Igbó-Ọrà	9	18.0	17	34.0	
Tápà	2	4.0	-	-	
Ìdèrè	-	-	2	4.0	
Ní ibi ayeye (At the place of			14	28.0	
ceremonies)	-	-			
Njé ìșeré orin agbè/orin kete tún șì ń					
wáyé ní àwùjọ yín bi? (Is the					
performance of orin agbè/kete still					
being observed in your community?)					
Yes	50	100.0	49	98.0	
No	-	-	1	2.0	
If yes, when?					
Always	17	34.0	17	34.0	
This year	3	6.0	4	8.0	
Last year	5	10.0	4	8.0	
Recently	13	26.0	15	30.0	
Last month	8	16.0	1	2.0	
Last week	4	8.0	9	18.0	

Source: Research's Computation, 2021

Table 5.3ii. presents the frequency and percentage distributions of knowledge and involvement of respondents in orin agbè and orin kete. In the study, 19 (38.0%) respondents had been involved in orin agbè performance while 32 (64.0%) had been involved in the performance of *orin kete*. Those who had never participated in *orin agbè* and orin kete were 31(62.0%) and 18(36.0%) respectively. Answering the question of where they had participated in the performances of the genres, a greater number of them [9, (18.0%)] and [17 (34.0%)] indicated Igbó-Orà for both orin agbè and orin kete, 7 (14.0%) mentioned Imia for orin agbè while 14(28.0%) signified that they heard about it at ceremonial events. All respondents [50, (100.0%)] assumed that orin agbè was still very much in existence in their society while 49(98.0%) were of the view that orin kete was still being perpetuated. Only 1(2.0%) said that the genre was no more in existence. Respondents who indicated that orin agbè and orin kete were always being performed were 17 (34.0%) each while 13 (26.0%) observed that *orin agbè* was recently performed. Respondents with a total number of 15 (30.0%) shared the same view for orin kete. Others indicated that: it was performed this year (2021) [3(6.0%) for orin agbè and 4 (8.0%) for *orin kete*]; last year [5 (10.0%) for *orin agbè* and 4 (8.0%) for *orin kete*]; last week [4 (8.0%) for orin agbè and 9 (18.0%) for orin kete] and it was performed last month [8 (16.0%) for *orin agbè* and 1(2.0%) for *orin kete*.]

In Table 5.3ii. as shown above, less than the average number of respondents had participated in the performance of *orin agbè* while more than average respondents had participated in *orin kete*. This is an indication that the performance of *orin kete* was dominant in the research communities than *orin agbè*. The table also shows that *orin agbè* and *orin kete* were still frequently performed in the research communities.

Table 5.3iii. The frequency and percentage distributions on sustainability *orin agbè* and *orin kete*

Items (N=50)	Freq.	Percentage	Freq.	Percentage
Njé ìṣeré orin agbè/orin kete le parun ni àwùjo yín? (Can the performance of orin agbè/orin kete discontinue to exist in your community?)				
Yes	4	8.0	11	22
No	46	92.0	39	78.0
If yes, what can cause it?				
Tí a bá gbe jù sílè (If we abandon it)	5	10.0	12	24.0
Òlàjú òde òní (Modern civilisation)	4	8.0	6	12.0
Tí a ò bá gbe láruge (If we do not promote it)	-	-	4	8.0
Njé işeré orin agbèlorin kete kò le parun ni àwùjo yín? (Would the performance of orin agbè continue to exist in your community?)				
Yes	45	90.0	43	86.0
No If yes, what can cause it? <i>Nítorí pé àṣà</i>	5	10.0	7	14.0
abínibí ni (Because it is our cultural heritage)	21	42.0	10	20.0
<i>Tí a bá ń ṣé ní òòrèkóòrè</i> (If we observe it frequently)	17	34.0	21	42.0
Tí àwọn ọd bá n kópa (If the youth are participating in it)	7	14.0	14	28.0

Source: Researcher's Computation, 2021

Table 5.3iii. presents frequency and percentage distributions of knowledge and opinions of respondents on whether *orin agbè* and *orin kete* can go into extinction. In the study, 46 (96.0%) respondents responded that *orin agbè* could not go into extinction while 39 (78.0%) expressed similar view for *orin kete*. Those who indicated that the two genres could go into extinction were 4(8.0%) and 11(22.0%) respectively. On probable cause that could make the genres go into extinction, 5(10.0%) and 12(24.0%) mentioned only if *orin agbè* and *orin kete* were abandoned and 4(8.0%) said *orin kete* can become unpopular if the younger generation were not encouraged to perform it. Besides, 48(96.0%) assumed that *orin agbè* could not go into extinction and 49 (98.0%) shared the same view for *orin kete* and they gave the following reasons: it is our family/religious heritage - 21(42.0%) for *orin agbè* and 10 (20.0%) for *orin kete*; people always observe it - 17 (34.0%) for *orin agbè* and 21 (42.0%) for *orin kete*; youth are always involved - 7 (14.0%) for *orin agbè* and 7 (14.0%) for *orin kete*; and it is our heritage and a religious genre - 7(14.0%) for *orin kete*.

It is indicated by the respondents in the above table that *orin agbè* and *orin kete* could not go into extinction. They claimed that *orin agbè/orin kete* was their cultural heritage. They mentioned that both genres could only die when they were no more performed and promoted. The respondents stated that the active involvement of the youth in the performance of *orin agbè* coupled with the fact that *orin kete* was their religious practice would prevent the obsolescence of the two genres.

5.4.3 Section C: Respondents' opinions on how *orin kete* and *orin agbè* can be used to curb anti-social behaviours

This section shows the respondents' opinions based on their experiences with the use of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* in preventing anti-social behaviours in society.

Table 5.4i. Frequency and percentage distributions of respondents' opinions on how *orin agbè* and *orin kete* can be used to prevent anti-social behaviours

Items (N=50)	Freq.	Percentage	Freq.	Percentage
Njé orin agbè/orin kete wúlò fún			-	
dídékun ìwà ìbàjé ní àwùjo? (Is orin				
agbè/kete useful in curbing anti-social				
behaviours?)				
Yes	48	96.0	49	98.0
No	2	4.0	1	2.0
Njé orin agbè/orin kete wúlò fún				
dídékun ìwà ìbàjé ní àwùjo láyé àtijó?				
(Was orin agbè/orin kete useful in				
curbing anti-social behaviours in the				
olden days?)				
Béè ni (Yes)	48	96.0	49	98.0
Béè kó (No)	2	4.0	1	2.0
Bí ó bá rí béè, àpeere àwon ìwà ìbàjé				
wo ló le dékun? (If it is so, what are the				
examples of the anti-social behaviours				
you know that <i>orin agbè</i> has been used				
to curb?)				
Olè àti àgbèrè (Theft and fornication)	4	8.0	10	20.0
Olè , àgbèrè àti àwọn ìwà burúkú				
mìíràn (Theft, fornication and other	43	86.0	39	78.0
anti-social behaviours)				
<i>Òmíràn</i> (Others)	3	6.0	1	2.0
Njé orin agbè/orin kete wúlò fún				
dídékun ìwà ìbàjé ní awùjo lóde òní?				
(Is <i>orin agbè/kete</i> useful in curbing anti-				
social behaviours nowadays?)				
Bệệ ni (Yes)	43	86.0	48	96.0
Béè kó (No)	7	14.0	2	4.0
Bí ó bá rí béè, àpeere àwon ìwà ìbàjé				
àwùjo wo ni e mò tí a le lo orin				
agbè/orin kete láti dékun lóde òní? (If				
it is so, what are the examples of the				
anti-social behaviours you know that				
orin agbè/kete has been used to curb?)				
Olè àti àgbèrè (Theft and fornication)	3	6.0	14	28.0
Àgbèrè (Adultery/fornication)	3	6.0	_	-
Olè, àgbèrè àti àwọn ìwà burúkú mìíran	J	0.0		
(Theft, fornication and other anti-social	38	76.0	36	72.0
behaviours)	50	70.0	50	12.0
Nínú àwọn ti ę sọ, èwo ni a ti lo orin				
agbè/orin kete láti dékun rí lóde òní?				
(Which among the anti-social				
behaviours you mentioned above has				
ochaviours you menuoned above has				

been curbed before with the use of orin				
agbè?)				
Àgbèrè nìkan (Only fornication)	7	14.0	9	18.0
Olè nìkan (Only theft)	4	8.0	6	12.0
Olè àti àgbèrè (Theft and fornication)	31	62.0	28	56.0
Olè, àgbèrè àti àwọn ìwà burúkú mìíràn				
(Theft, fornication and other anti-social	-	-	5	10.0
behaviours)				

Source: Researcher's Computation, 2021

Table 5.4i. presents frequency and percentage distributions of knowledge and opinion of the respondents on how orin agbè and orin kete could be deployed to curb anti-social behaviours in society and their efficacy in curbing them. In the study, 48 (96.0%) and 49 (98.0%) respondents said that kete could be employed to prevent antisocial behaviours in society, while 2 (4.0%) orin agbè and 1 (2.0%) orin kete respectively expressed contrary view. On their usefulness in curbing anti-social behaviours in the olden days, 48 (96.0%) and 49 (98.0%) said that orin agbè and orin kete had been used to prevent anti-social behaviours in the olden days while 2 (4.0%) and 1 (2.0%) respectively were negative in their response. On the type of anti-social behaviours it had been used to prevent in the past, 43(86.0%) said "theft", "fornication" and other social vices for *orin agbè* while 39 (78.0%) mentioned the same for *orin kete*. Respondents that were not less than 4(8.0%) and 10(20.0%) said only theft and fornication could be prevented with the use of orin agbè and orin kete respectively. On their usefulness in stopping anti-social behaviours in contemporary society, 43 (86.0%) and 48 (96.0%) respondents were positive that orin agbè and orin kete had been used to prevent anti-social behaviours while 7 (14.0%) and 2 (4.0%) respectively indicated negative.

Furthermore, respondents stated that the two poetic genres had been used to prevent some social vices in the present-day society, 38(76.0%) sampled "theft", "fornication" and other bad behaviours for *orin agbè* and 36 (72.0%) indicated the same for *orin kete*. 3(6.0%) and 14(28.0%) respondents mentioned only "theft" and "fornication" respectively as social vices which *orin agbè* and *orin kete* could be used to prevent nowadays. Also, 31 (62.0%) were of the view that *orin agbè* had been mostly used to prevent "theft", "fornication" and other bad habits in society while 28, (56.0%) shared similar view for *orin kete*. It is stated in the table that 7 (14.0%) and 9 (18.0%) respondents indicated only "fornication" and "theft" for *orin agbè* and *orin kete* respectively while the responses that indicated only "fornication" were 4 (8.0%) and 6 (12.0%) for *orin agbè* and *orin kete* respectively. 5 (10.0%) respondents chose only "theft" for *orin kete*.

It is shown by the respondents in the above table that *orin agbè/orin kete* were useful in curbing anti-social behaviours such as fornication and theft. It is also indicated that the genres under study were relevant in curbing anti-social behaviours both in the olden and present days.

Table 5.4ii. Frequency and percentage distributions of respondents' opinions on sustainability of *orin agbè* and *orin kete*

Items (N=50)	Freq.	Percentage	Freq.	Percentage
Orin agbè/orin kete le kú torí				
òlàjú òde-òní tó ti gbòde?				
(Performance of orin agbè/orin				
kete can discontinue as a result				
of modern civilisation?)				
Yes	14	28.0	10	20.0
No				
Orin èsìn ni orin kete; orin Ọba	36	72.0	40	80.0
àti orin ebí orin agbè (Orin kete	30	72.0		
is a religious song, while Orin				
agbè is a kingship and family				
song)				
Kí orin agbè/orin kete má baà				
kú, a nílò láti șe àwọn ohun				
<i>wònyí:</i> (For the performance of				
orin agbè/orin kete not to				
discontinue (to die), we need to				
take these actions:)				
Kí á máa ṣe é ní òòrèkóòrè (We				
should be performing it	26	52.0	37	74.0
frequently)				
Kí àwọn òdó máa kópa àti				
àwọn mìíràn (Youths should be	24	48.0	13	26.0
participating in it)				

Source: Researcher's Computation, 2021

Table 5.4ii. presents frequency and percentage distributions of knowledge and opinion of respondents on whether *orin agbè* and *orin kete* could go into extinction due to civilisation. In the study, 36 (72.0%) and 40 (80.0%) mentioned that *orin agbè* and *orin kete* could not go into extinction due to civilisation, while 14 (28.0%) and 10 (20.0%) respectively indicated contrary view. On what to do to prevent the genres from going into extinction, 26 (52.0%) and 37 (64.0%) respondents said people should always perform them while 24 (48.0%) and 13 (26.0%) respectively stated that youth and every other person should be fully involved in them.

Considering the respondents' opinions in table 5.4ii. above, *orin agbè* and *orin kete* cannot discontinue among the people of Ìbàràpá and Òkè-Ògùn. This is because more than 36 (72%) respondents supported their claim in the questionnaire distributed that *orin agbè* would continue to enjoy the kinship and kingship affiliation while 40 (80%) respondents assumed that *orin kete* as a result of its religious status would continue to exist.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 **Summary**

This study is a comparative performance semiotics of orin kete and orin agbè among Ìbàràpá and Òke-Ògún people of Òyó, South-West Nigeria. It was stated in chapter one that *orin kete* is a religious poetry while *orin agbè* is a social-oriented poetry. As a religious song of Alárá-Igbó, Ìbejì, Obàtálá, Kórì among other deities whose adherents and practitioners refer to themselves as Egbé (group), orin kete is named after the main musical instrument "kete" (calabash pot). On the other hand, orin agbè, a royal music is also named after the main musical instrument, agbè (gourd). The fact that the two genres studied are calabash related and are like many other musical genres named after their musical instruments coupled with the fact that both genres are found in the same localities justifiess the comparison of the two poetic genres. Kete and agbè are byproducts of the same plant; calabash plant. What actually differentiates agbè from kete is that agbè has a bottleneck while this neck is sliced in kete, leaving the mouth widely open. Agbè is used to preserve local wines. This could be seen in the saying "òrò agbè níi dun elému" (it is the issue of the gourd that concerns the palm wine tapper/seller the most". Because wine is among the most important provisions made by the Yorùbá people for social celebrations and festivals of different kinds, wine, is therefore, a social sign of merriment. By application, agbè which is used to preserve wine also becomes a metonymic iconic signifier of social merriment. Contrary to this, kete's primary function among the Yorùbá people is its use for fetching water. This function of kete is also recognised in the Alárá-Igbó religious rite. Kete as explained in this study is used to fetch water into ìkòkò àsè (Obàtálá's sacred pot). The water is then used to cure barrenness among women. The water in the semiosphere of this religious practice signifies medicine. Since kete is identified with this medicinal function, by application, kete is also a metonymic iconic signifier of fertility and especially, a medicinal cure for barrenness.

The generic and procession performance spaces are performance settings in which the secular type of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are performed. The religious space is a performance space strictly used for religious performance in *orin agbè*. Both male and

female could be performers and members of the audience in the performance of both genres, though the population of women and children outnumbers that of men in the performance of *orin kete*, mostly during the religious performance. Children's participation in *orin kete* is a religious and cultural signifier of children's reproduction which the deities related to the genre (Alárá-Igbó, Obàtálá, Kórì among others) stand for. The performance structures of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are discussed under three main divisions: prelude, body and farewell/valedictory statements. The prelude is categorised into *ìsèlù*, *ìbà*, *ìwúre-ìbèrè* and *ìfira-eni-hàn-ìbèrè*. Out of these steps of prelude, only *ìsèlù* is not realised in *orin kete*. What accounts for this is that the main musical instruments of *orin kete* are membranophones which do not need the process of *ìsèlù*. The body and the valedictory sayings are present in both genres; however, acrobatic and magical displays are not realised in *orin kete*. This is because of the religious focus of the genre. The various acrobatic performances of *orin agbè* are sinsign (physical sign) of fitness of the performer.

Informal/casual and official/formal costumes are used in the performance of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. The official/formal costume, a white cloth that signifies holiness, purification and cleanliness is employed in *orin kete*. A long flowing gown portraying female sexual parts is also worn by the main dancer, *aboyèrì* in *orin kete* as a religious sign of humility and satire on women. Besides, the main dancer in *orin agbè*, *ìyàwó agbè* (wife of *agb*è) dresses like a woman to lampoon women sexual gesticulations. The women's costumes in both genres are social signs of women satire.

Among the props deployed in the performance of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* is $irù k \grave{e} r \grave{e}$ (a whisk). $ir \grave{e} k \grave{e} r \grave{e}$ is used by the main dancer in *orin kete* to gesticulate and communicate during the performance. As a result, the item is read as a signifier of performance command in *orin kete*. Also in *orin agbè*, this item, $ir \grave{u} k \grave{e} r \grave{e}$, is read as a sign of royalty with which the genre is associated ($al\acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e}$) used during the performance of magical and acrobatic displays in *orin agbè*. As a religious genre, there is the use of $a \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r \acute{e} r$

Musical instruments of *orin kete*, if ààjà is included, consist of the membranophonic and idiophonic materials. The membranophones in the ensemble are bệnbệ and kete. All membranophone musical instruments are icons of Àyàn, the Yorùbá

god of drum. Membranophone instruments in the performance of *orin kete* are significations of Àyàn's voice in soliciting Obàtálá through Alárá-Igbò for childbearing. *Orin agbè* musical instruments consist of idiophones and lamellophone. The idiophonic instruments are *agogo* (gong) and *agbè* (gourds). The lamellophone is *àgidìgbò* included in the performance of *orin agbè*. The harshness of *agbè* at the inception period (war) of the genre is a signification of the fierceness of the combative power of the user and the possibility (*rheme*) of defeating the enemies at the battleground. Apart from *ìyá-ìlù/ìyá-agbè* (master drum/gourd) of both genres whose names are similar as it is realised in all the musical instruments across the Yorùbáland, the tune sustaining musical instruments of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* also have the same name. The tune sustaining instruments in both genres are called *èdà*. Cosequently, *èdà* becomes a signifier of convergence in the instrumentation of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. It is found out that *agbè* instrumentation requires a lot of technicalities to play than *kete* and *bèàbé* as it is used to perform different acrobatic displays.

Two types of voice tempo identified in *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are *èle/iwéréndé* (fast tempo) and $w\acute{e}r\grave{o}/\grave{e}g\grave{o}$ (slow tempo). $W\acute{e}r\grave{o}/\grave{e}g\grave{o}$ in both poetic genres signifies respect and homage as observed during *ìbà* (homage paying). It is predominant in *orin* kete than orin agbè. Contrary to this, èle tempo is used more in orin agbè than orin kete. The three oral modes of performance (song, chant and speech) are deployed in *orin kete* but during ritual performances, speech mode is commonly used. In orin agbè, song and speech modes are mostly employed while the use of chant mode is rare. The main verbal aesthetics in orin kete and orin agbè is voice modulation. Voice modulation in both genres could be marked by tonal counterpoint, tonal distortion, lengthening of vowel sound, vibration of voice and the use of nasalised voice. However, guttural voicing and humming are not observed in *orin kete* but are present in *orin agbè*. The guttural voice in *orin agbè* is indexically motivated by the belief and consideration of *agbè* tradition as Orò ilé (familial tradition), which leads to the adoption of the mode of speech (guttural voice) attributed to *Orò* deity by the performers of *orin agbè*. Humming, on the other hand, in *orin agbè* is regarded as a sign of attainment of a high-quality *agbè* of rhythm (a qualisign).

Out of the complementary, repetitive, mono-refrain and poetic combat call and response patterns discussed in this study, poetic combat is not found in the performance of *orin kete*. The poetic combat in *orin agbè* is a symbolic signification of the rowdiness and disorganisation witnessed during the performance of the genre. It also signifies the

style of encouragement the performers employed during the performance. The purpose of *orin kete* and its religious background does not permit such a call and response pattern.

Homage, praise, women and children related issues, socio-political discussions, religious themes, prayer, curses and jokes for satirical purposes constitute the main thematic preoccupations of *orin kete* and *orin agbè*. The religious theme is, however, primary to *orin kete* while the social theme is secondary. On the other hand, the social theme is primary to *orin agbè*. It is indicated that both *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are useful in addressing societal anomalies. Religious status is among the factors mentioned by the respondents as responsible for *orin kete's* continual existence while the family sense of belonging, kin and kingship association were stated to have helped in sustaining *orin agbè*.

6.2 Conclusion

At this stage of the study, some affirmations about *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are expected to be made. Considering the nomenclatures of the genres, one would think that both poetic genres are the same or one is an offshoot of the other. This notion is not correct about the genres, their nomenclatures though might be contrastive, what each genre stands for is different. As a matter of fact, they are independent genres.

It could also be assumed that orin egbé (orin kete) is long-dated than orin agbè because its religious focus and its relationship to Obàtálá, a Yorùbá arch-deity. This is might no be correct as the historical accounts narrated about orin agbè also show that the genre has been existing during the lifetime of Oba Sangó. However, none of the genres could be said predated the other. We must mention at this juncture that not all orin Alárá-Igbó/Egbé/Obàtálá are orin kete. This is because, before the introduction of kete drum-type into the religious performance of Alárá-Igbó/Egbé/Obàtálá songs, bènbé used to be the main musical instrument played to the performance. Till today, many Alárá-Igbó religious groups still use only bệnbé drum set. The data collected from Omolèrè Alárá-Igbó's group at Èrunwon, Aké, Abéokúta, Ògún State about orin kete attested this. The researcher was told that the group of worshippers of Alárá-Igbó called Egbé in the place and in its evirons play only bènbé to orin egbé. Considering the role played by kete drum at the initial stage of orin kete performance, any religious song performance of Alárá-Igbó, Egbé, Obàtálá, Írókò, Íbejì, Kórìkóto and other Yorùbá children-related deities in which kete drum set is played among the people of *Ìbàràpá* and Òkè-Ògùn is then regarded as orin kete.

The fact that *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are found in the same locality, they are affected by the same social experiences. This is the reason why similar issues are found familiar in the genres. They have some songs in common, the performers, the costumes and even some sub-set of their musical instruments bear the same name. What this implies is that apart from the main distinctive features of both genres, the genres share many similarities than their dissimilarities. This is because both genres will continue to share new features adapted from their host communities. They will as well continue to witness more innovations.

Though some aspects of the performance of *orin agbè* like the acrobatic and magical displays have suffered a setback due to the shortage of the performers who have performative technicalities in such performances, it should also be considered that there also exist some performance initiatives that serve as a cover-up for these losses. An example of this cover-up performance is the introduction of *àgídìgbo* in *orin agbè*. In *orin kete* also, a performer, Mr Adégbàyè Ìṣòlá, the offspring of Láṣelé introduced the *fújì* music into *orin kete* in such a way that the style does not jeopardise his *kete* musical tune. This means that though some aspects of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* may fade out due to social change and cultural instability, some new inventions will continue to replace the obsolescent performance features.

It is discovered in this study that not only *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are found among Ìbàràpá and Òkè-Ògùn many years ago. There still exist some genres like *elébobòró* song, *Omídèyí* song, *Adégbèé* song, the song of *Òkè* of Igàngàn, Christians song of *Baba Jèéní*, *àpàlà Adégétò* among others, but which have no performers nowadays. Among a lot of poetic genres found in Ìbàràpá and Òkè-Ògùn, *orin kete* as a result of its religious affiliation; and *orin agbè* as a result of its kingship and kinship sense of belonging are able to be sustained. It must be mentioned that both genres as a result of this study have gained internet attention. Gaining the internet attention of both genres is a strong indication that they can have an everlasting sustainability.

6.3 **Recommendations**

- i. As done in this study, comparing two independent genres shows a lot of similarities beyond the musical instruments and the nomenclatures which tend to be the base of this study. This study is then a challenge for future researchers to compare different Yorùbá oral poetic types. This will help in understanding the existing relationship among the different Yorùbá oral poetic genres.
- ii. A comparative study of different Yorùbá oral poetic types is needed to help in re-examining the criteria for categorising the Yorùbá oral poetry in order to account for other attributes existing in them apart from the content and mode of utterance that have been used by scholars to categorise Yorùbá oral poetry.
- iii. Survival patterns of different Yorùbá oral poetic types need to be further studied. This will help in the preservation of Yorùbá oral literature. Future researchers should focus on methods (natural and artificial) of sustaining the Yorùbá oral poetic genres.
- iv. The act of carrying out pure literary analysis on Yorùbá oral poetry is fading out and tends to be generic. Arts and humanities across the global world in this digital age are going scientific. Thus, applying the scientific method of research in Yorùbá literary studies tends to be an option for salvaging social values in literature but which could not be fully determined while using only literary theories.
- v. Besides, interdisciplinary study of the Yorùbá oral poetry is recommended.
- vi. Considering their main musical instruments which are by-products of the same plant, *orin kete* and *orin agbè* could be tagged as "calabash-related Yorùbá oral poetic genre". Other Yorùbá poetic genres that will belong to this type are *igbá*

 $titi^{67}$, orin kèngbè 68 and orin sékérémodò 69 , among others. This also should be investigated further.

6.4 Contributions to knowledge

The study carried out a comparative performance semiotics of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* among Ìbàràpá and Òkè-Ògùn people of Òyó State, Nigeria. The study has contributed to the body of knowledge in the following ways:

- i. The study is an update to Ògúndèjì's (1979) and Àlàbá's (1985) studies on *orin* agbè since these are the only two existing studies available on the genre.
- ii. The study has been able to answer the call made by Àlàbá (1985) that *orin agbè* should be compared to some genres i.e. *orin kete*.
- iii. The study addresses the lacuna identified by scholars on the fact that African oral poetry requires multimodal theories of analysis; and that Yorùbá oral poetry is performative and should be treated as such a reality.
- iv. The study has provided documentation of the performance of *orin kete* which has not been able to get any serious scholarly attention before now. In this wise, the study has made the genre to gain scholarly attention for the first time in history. This by application has saved the genre from academic marginalisation.
- v. Scholars like Yemitan (1963), Babalolá (1966 and 1975), Olájubù (1970 and 1972), Olábíntán (1971) and Àjùwòn (1981), to mention but just a view, studied Yorùbá oral poetic genres individually without comparing them with other genres. The current study has therefore stepped up by comparing two independent but related Yorùbá oral poetic genres. This has helped in suggesting into the field of Yorùbá literature a new method through which relatedness could be employed as a yardstick of categorisation and grouping into poetic families.
- vi. The study has also shown how *orin kete* and *orin agbè* are useful in promoting morality in society.
- vii. Lastly, the study has exposed the survival patterns of *orin kete* and *orin agbè* among the people of Ìbàràpá and Òkè-Ògùn of Ọyọ́ State, Nigeria.

 $^{^{67}}$ A poetic genre where a calabash tray is made as a musical instrument played by the queens of Aláàfin to entertain the king.

⁶⁸ According to Omolàsóyè (2019), this is a poetic genre among the Fulani people of Ìlorin performed during social engagements i.e. wedding ceremonies.

⁶⁹ A royal song performed by the women of the Ooni dynasty in Ilé-Ifè (Olápojù, 2022).

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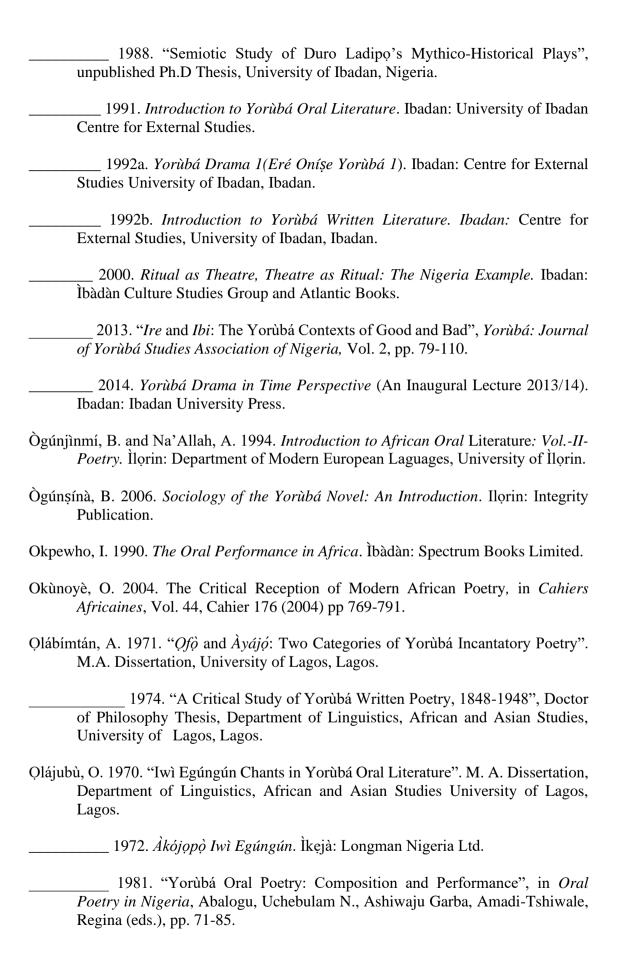
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APPENDIX I

Sample of orin kete I Ilé Elébùrú (17/06/2018)

(Ìgbáradì fún eré, ọtí mímu, imú fínfín, ìlù sísè àti béè béè lọ).

E lo gbé yèrì yín jáde ò Ohùn 1: Ohùn 2: E kókó lu ìlù lásán

E kókó lu ordinary ìlù lásán

Ohùn 3: Kí wọn máa lù ú nísó ò

Kó sùúrù, wón ń gbe bò, wón ń gbé kámérà bò Onílù 1:

Ok, kámérà, kámérà ń bò, kámérà ń bò Onílù 2:

Ohùn 2: E kúrò níbè, wón ń sisé ni

Ohùn 3: Wón le wà níbè, kí wón wà níbè e, káwun náà máa wòran, e má wòran

E jé kí won máa wòran Ohùn 1:

Ohùn 3: Ara e náà ni, e bóóbè (ohun ìlù bèrè díè díè, ó sì ń kògè)

Olórin: Ìbà oko tí deríkodò tí ò soje

Ìbà èlè tó doríkodò tí ò sèjè

Ìbà ni ón fojó òní jú Omo ò níí reni júbà

Kíbà honmo Àdáse níí honmo Ìbà ò gbódò honmo Iná ewú eè jéwú lówó Orínládé isé baba omo

Ò gbódó honmo Ìbà ni on fojó òní jú Oníkòó omo ìlókùn esin Akéekúyá omó iyán pupa

Jòkòtò nikùn ajìfà

Omo Arílégbinla Aréyinkùlégbinlasa

Ò-foko-àkùrò-gbi-gbòòrò omo elégédé inúùgbé Òkan soso ní máa so

Lílé: Àsà ibílè e wa o Ègbè: Àsà ìbílè wa o

Ohùn: Kí wón tún ìbà yen se

Lílé: Àsà ìbílèe wá ò

> Àsà ìbílè wa Ká gbé e láruge Àsà ìbílè wa

Ègbè: Àsà ìbílèe wá ò

> Àsà ìbílè wa Ká gbé e láruge Àsà ìbílè wa

Kí wón tún ìbà yen şe Ohùn:

Àsà ìbílè o Lílé:

Àsà ìbílè wa E jé á gbé e láruge

Àsà ìbílè wa

Ègbè: Àṣà ibílè o

Àṣà ìbílè wa

E jé á gbé e láruge

Àṣà ìbílệ wa

Ìṣàré: Éè, ẹ dákun sùúrù ni ẹ bá mi ṣe

Oníkòó omo ìlókùn esin Ìbà mi n ó fojó òní jú

Qmọ ò níí réni júbà kíbà họnmọ

Ìbà Ìkó, omo Ìlókùn eşin

Orí-adé pèlé

Orí-adé omo Amáregede fóba

Ìjòyè bá rìngìndìn

Ìjòyè méta ni ó wìndìnwìndìn Ìjòwè méta ni ó wòsányìn mó

Ìbà mi ìbà Ìbà mi ìbà

Qmọ ò níí réni júbà kíbà họnmọn

Arílégbinlá

Aréyìn-èkùnlé-gbìnlasa Òfoko-àkùrò-gbin-gbòòrò Omo elégédé inú ìgbé Òkan soso ní máa so

Omo Joláadé

Mo wá júbà kíbà sẹ Àdáṣe níí họnmọ Ìbà ò gbọdò họnmọ Ààrinọlá mo wá júbà

Kíbà mi sẹ Òwọtóbí Àlàbí Kíbà ó má họnmọ Òwòtóbí Àlàbí Kíbà ó má họnni ò

Orin: Agbààgba

Mo foríbalè fún un yín ò

Eyin àgbààgbà

Mo forí balè fún un yín ò

Omodé ilú ò Mo foríbalè

Kí n má sorin kọ

Ègbè: Àgbààgbà

Mo foríbalè

Kí n má sorin kọ

Lílé: Omodé ìlú ò

Mo foríbalè

Kí n má sorin kọ

Ègbè: Àgbààgbà

Mo foríbalè

Kí n má sorin ko

Lílé: Omodé ìlú ò

Mo foríbalè

Kí n má sorin kọ

Ègbè: Àgbààgbà

Mo foríbalè Kí n má sorin ko

Orin: Àṣà ìbílè o

Àṣà ìbílệ wa

E jé á gbé e láruge

Àṣà ìbílệ wa

Ègbè: Àṣà ibílè o

Àṣà ìbílệ wa

E jé á gbé e láruge

Àṣà ìbílệ wa

Lílé: Àṣà ìbílè o

Àsà ìbílè wa

E jé á gbé e láruge

Àṣà ìbílè wa

Ègbè: Àṣà ìbílè o

Àṣà ìbílè wa

E jé á gbé e láruge

Àṣà ìbílệ wa...

Lílé: Èyin ara ìbí

Eré yá Eré yá

Eré yá

Eré là á fọmọ ayò se

Ègbè: Eré yá

Eré là á fomo ayò se

Lílé: Eréé là á fọmọ ayò şe

Eré là á

Ègbè: Eré yá

Eré là á fọmọ ayò şe...

Lílé: Ó deré

Eré là á fọmọ ayò şe

Ìṣàré: Mo dáyẹn dúró ná

E jẹ ń máa rétí inú gbó E dákun ẹ má mú tèmi gbó Oòre ò ṣé ṣohun gbogbo

Ó dámi lo pé

Etí inú lejò máá ń lò

Ìpé tá a pé Tá a pé bíríkítí Ìpò ta a pò lo bìbàà Ìláyí Aláwùràbí

Mámà jé a fọmọ àbúrò sọmọ Wéréwéré nikén máa jelé

Bítàkùn ò bá já Qwó ò le bộkéré

Baba ta ní máa fi gbóngbó palábáhun...

Mo bèyín o elégbè e gbòkun Mo bèyín o elégbè e gbòsà Orin tálùkò bá dá lọmọ è máa gbè fun

Léselése lèjàlèjà

Èyí tá a bá lè se là á mára le é sí

Baálé má rídìí

Ìyá lórí ìyọnu ni

E dákun

E má jệ kí tọ yộ ó bộ

E má jệ kí tesệ ó yệ

Bí tọ wó bá bó

Bí tẹsệ bá yệ

Torí irú wọn níi máá borín lọ

Mo bệ yín

Èyin aráa bí

Àgádágodo

Kì í wón lára éégún

Kò sórìsà tí pohùn orò nílé ayé

Mo dé

Kólóko má leè roko

Mo dé

Kólónà má yènà

Ìdé tí mo dé

Àdán kan ò rọgii

Òòbè kan

Òòbè kàn

Wọn ò gbọdò rọgi àjà

Èyin aráabí

Kólekóle kó nilé ayé

Èrò ni tìgbín

Pèlépèlé lomo ejò ń gagbòn

Mo tón dé eeeè

Mo tún dé o

E dákun

Mo bèyín

Olórun má jé á pàdé ejó

Olórun má jéyà ó je wá

Mo dé bí mo sé ń dé

Èyin ará ibí

Kò lè yè

Kò lè yệ látowó mi

Kò lè yè òòò

Níbi táa bérè eè

Níbi táà béré ìbílè dé

Omo Láselé

Níbi táa béré ìbílè dé

Kò lè yè

Kò lè yè látowó mi

Kò lè yè

Tọwó yín ló kù tí n ò lè sọ o

Orin: kò lè yẹ

Kò lè yệ látowó mi

Kò lè yè ò

Tọwó yín lo kù tí n ò lè sọ ò

Ègbè: Kò le yè ò

Kò le yệ látowó mi

Kò le ye ò

Lílé: Ó yá tọwó yín lo kù tí n ò le sọ ọ

Ègbè: Kò le yè ò

Kò le yè látowó mi

Kò le ye ò...

Ìṣàré: Mo dáyẹn dúró ná

E jệ n máa rétí inú gbộ E dákun ẹ má mú tèmi gbộ Ó kù díệ gín-ín-gín... Wệrệ nikán ń mọlé Bítàkùn ò bá já

Owó ò le bòkéré

Orin: Èèwò ò

Èèwò fún wa lóde èèwò

Omo Láselé ò Èèwò ò

Èèwò fún wa lóde ò èèwò o

Okò ò ní bebè é rojó

Ègbè: Èèwò òò

Èèwò fún wa lóde èèwòòòò

Lílé: Okó ò ní bébè é roojó

Ègbè: Èèwò òò

Èèwò fún wa lóde ò èèwòòòò...

Lílé: Oko ô ní bébè Ègbè: Èèwò òò

Èèwò fún wa lóde èèwòòòò...

Ìṣàré: Olóhun ń bẹ pệlú ọmọ ìyáa mì

Òrógbó tó gbó

Tí mo mú sohùn ló fi gbó

Ògèdè òmènè

Tí mo mu şohùn kó lè dẹ E máa métí inú gbó Eè ri péré ìbílè ni ò

Àà, hun un Sẹ è ri pére ìbi

Lílé: Şe è ri pére ìbílè ni

Mi ò mà rírú egbé è mó o

Ègbè: Şẹ è ri péré ìbílè ni ò

Lílé: Mi ì nà lè rírú egbé è mó o

Ègbè: Şe e ri péré ìbílè ni ò

Lílé: Hin-in-ìn

Hin...

Ègbè: Şẹ è ri pérè ìbílè ni ò
Lílé: N ò lè rírú ẹgbéè mó ò
Ègbè: Şẹ è rí pérè ìbílè ni ò
Lílé: Mi ì má rírú ẹgbé ẹ mó ò

Ègbè: Şe è ri pérè ìbílè ni ò Lílé: A à lè rírú egbé mó ò Ègbè: Se è ri pérè ìbílè ni ò... Ìşàré: Mo dáyen dúró ná

E ma métí inú gbó

Olóhun ń be pelú ogbón

Orin: Ìbà lóòòò

> Ìbà lóò Lalérè ò Ìbà lówó Lálérè ò Ìbà lówó Lalérè ò Ìbà lówó òò

Ìbà lówòò Lalérè ò Ìbà lówoò Lalérè ò

Àwon ni wón fún wa lórin kọ

Ìbà lówó Lalérè ò

Ègbè: Lálérè ò

Àwon ná fún wa lórin kọ

Ìbà lówó Lálérè ò

Lílé: Àwon ni wón fún un wa lórin kọ

Ìbà lówoò Làlérè ò

Ègbè: Àwon ni wón fún wa lórin

Ìbà lówoò Làlérè ò

Ìşàré: E dúró ná Ìşàré: Omo Láselé

Àrà kengé

Olórun ń se nìkan

Àrà kekeyé

Olórun ń se nhkan Àrà kekeyé o Àrà kekeye o Olórun ń se nìkan Bó bá sòjò

A sòdá

A tún se rúkurùku

Ègbè: Arà kengé

Olórun ń se nhkan

Bó bá sòjò A sòdá ò

A tún se růkurůku

Ègbè: Ara kenge.....

Lílé: Ééèè omo Adésolú

> Bobìnrin bá ń gbó toko ò Bobìnrin bá ń gbó toko

Bó fówóo mótò Mo lè fun

Bobìnrin bá ń gbó toko

Ègbè: Obìnrin tó ń gbó toko ò

Bó fówóo mótò

Mo lè fun

Obìnrin tó ń gbó toko

Lílé: Obìnrin tó ń gbó toko ò

Bó fówóo mótò Mo lè fun

Obìnrin tó ń gbó toko

Ègbè: Obìnrin tó ń gbó toko

Bó fówó mộtộ Mo lè fun

Obìnrin tó ń gbó toko

Lílé: Èmi a máa wí pé

Obìnrin tí ń gbó toko

Èyin obinrin...

Obìnrin tí ń gbó tọkọ Kò mà sóhun tó pè tí ò rí ò

Obìnrin tí ń gbó toko

Ègbè: Obìnrin tí ń gbó toko

Kò sóhun tó pè tí ò rí ò Obìnrin tí ń gbó toko

Lílé: Ééeààà

Èyin adára má dùntí omoge Èyin adára má dùntí omoge Àbe ò mò póko ó sìkée yín láyé Àbe ò mò póko ó sìkée yín láyé Èyin adára má dùntí omoge

Èyin adára má dùntí omoge

Ègbè: Èyin adára máa dùntí Omoge

Èyin adára máa dùntí omoge Àbe ò mò póko ó sìké yín láyé Èyin adára máa dùntí omoge...

Lílé: Ééé

Ègbè:

Léríșin léríșin lòrò

Omo Láselé Lérísinlérísin ni

Òrò tí ń be nínú wa ké e mò ò

Orò tí ń bẹ nínú wa aà
Kò sírú mọtò tó lè ko
Òrò tí ń bẹ nínúu wa
Òrò tó ń be nínú wa ò

Òrò tí ń bẹ nínúu wa

Lílé: Òrò tí ń be nínú wa

Kò sírúu mộtò tó lè ko Òrò tí ń be nínú wa

Òrò tí ń be nínúu wa ò

Kò sírúu mọtò tó lè ko Òrò tí ń be nínú wa

Lílé: Tí ń be nínú wa o

Kò sírú mộtò tó lè ko

Òrò tí ń be nínú wa

Ègbè: Örò tí ń bẹ nínúu wa ò

Kò sírúu mộtò tó lè ko

Òrò tí ń bẹ nínú wa...

Ìşàré: Eééé...

Gbogbo yín pátá E sá máa sàmí n gbó

A tí gbéré è A ti gbérè è

A ti gbérè e ìbílè lo...

Ilé ayé fúngbà dimè ni Olúomo

A làlùyo

Ę sá máa sàmí

Àfi ká làlùyọ

E máa bá mi sàmí o

Gbogbo wa pátá

Olórun ò

E máa bá mi sàmí àse

Níjo tí mo wá lo sĺbàdàn

Tó bá se pé

Tó bá se péré ìbílè ni

Ogbón tí ń be nínú wa kò lè yè

A ti số léri rédiò nígbà kan

Àtomo Láselé Àkànmú

A wà ńlé orin

Èmí Orí-adé Àtàndá

Èmí wà nílé orin

Mo lo burú kò bà je

Aládùn ni lára mi

Ó dá mi lójú Olú-omo

Bí séètì pégba lórun èdá

Aşo işé làwún ó fi şe

Eré ìbílè ni ò

Òòsòn ta bá fi wòn fún ùn yàn rí

Ni wọn ó wòn sí tẹni

Ègbón lè pérí àbúrò ò da

Bí ò rówó jeun

Eré ìbílè ni

Ó dámi lójú

Lorí òkàn mi gangan

A ti sòrò lérí réèdiò

À ń sòrò lérí rèdiò

Èyin onílù

Orin:

Kộ máa lọ béè ò

Règèregè-ré-géngé

Ó di règèregèrégéngé

Règèregè-ré-géngé

Ó di règèregèrégéngé

Kóko ó sùn lóòòdè

Kálè ò sus yàrá

Bó bá di lálé

Şé béèkù ó tộbe

Règèrégè-ré-genge

Ègbè: Règèrégèrégénge o

> Èéè règèrégèrégéngé Kóko ó sùn lóòdè Káya ó sun yàrá Bó bá di lálé Şe béèkù ó tộbẹ Règèrégèrégéngé

Lílé: Règèrégère

Règèrégèrégéngé

Règèrégè

Règèregerégéngé Kóko ó sùn léèdè Káya ó sun yàrá Bó bá di lálé Sebéèkù ó tòbe Règèrégèrégéngé

Ègbè: Règèrégèrégéngé

Èéè

Règèrégèrégéngé

Lílé: Ewúro làgbà igi

> Èyin ara ibí Ewúro làgbà igi Ká má sesè gbé

Èéèèèè

Òrò Ólúwa ò Orin:

Òrò Ólúwa ò

Omo kékeré e wá gbórò o

Ègbè: Òrò Ólúwa ò Lílé: E wá gbórò ò Ègbè: Òrò Ólúwa ò Lílé: Omo kékeré E wá à gbórò ò

Ègbè: Òrò Ólúwa ò Lílé: E wá gbóró ò Ègbè: Òrò Olúwa òò

Lílé: Osóolé

> E wá gbóròòò Òrò Olúwa ò

Ègbè: Lílé: E wá gbórò ò Ègbè: Òrò Olúwa o Lílé: E wá gbórò o Ègbè: Òrò Olúwa ò Lílé: Éèèè

Éèèè

Éèèè

Oyanyáríyàà Òyanyáaríya òòò Egbé itodò ya dé ò

Ègbè: O ya dé ee **Òyànyáríyààà**

Egbé ìtodò ya dé òòò

Lílé: Ó ya dé èèè

Òyanyáríya òòò

Egbé ìtodò ya dé ò

Ègbè: Ó ya dé èèè

Òyanyáríya òòò

Egbé ìtodò ya dé ò

Lílé: Ó ya dé

Òyànyaaríya òòò

Egbé ìtodò ya dé ò

Lílé: Ó ya dééé

Qyanyaariya ooo

Ègbé itodo ya dé ò

Ègbè: Ó ya dé

Òyanyaariya òòò

Ègbé itodo ya dé...

Lílé: Òsun ló lomi

Òsun ló lodò

Òşun á gbè wáà tomotomo

Ègbè: Oṣun lo lomi

Oṣun ló lodò...

Lílé: Tomotomo o

Òsun ló lomi Òsun ló lodò

Òşun á gbè wáà tomotomo

Ègbè: Öşun ló lomi

Òsun ló lodò

Òṣun á gbè wá tọmọtọmọ

Lílé 1: Àrà yéyeèyéé

Lílé 2: Omo Lașelé

Lórí omo Olóbàtálá

Lórí omo Olóbatálá

Lílé 1: Lórí omo Olóbàtálá

Lórí omo Olóbatala

Omo Láșeléèè

Gèlè àràbarà

Lérí omo Olóbàtálá

Ègbè Gèlè àràbarà

Lérí omo Olóbàtálá

Lílé: Gèlè àràbarà

Lérí omo Olóòsánlá

Ègbè: Gèlè àràbarà

Lérí omo Olóbatálá

Lílé: Gèlèè géléèè

Ègbè: Gèlè àràbarà

Lérí omo Olóbatálá

Lílé 2: Àrá éèéééé

Òrìsà ìbejì Ará éèééèè Òrìṣà ìbejì Àbíké Álàwóyè Òrìsà ìbejì ò

Àbíké Aláwòyé

Òrìṣà ìbe Èéèééé

Òrìsà ìbejì ò

Lílé 2: Èéèèéèè

Lílé:

Ègbè:

Òrò é dòla Òrò é dòla

Abimọ má wòmọ Òrò, òrò é dòla

Ègbè: Örò, òrò é dòla Lílé: Abímo má tọmọ

 Ègbè:
 Òrò é dòla

 Lílé:
 Òrò é, dòla

 Ègbè:
 Òrò é dòla

 Lîlé 1:
 Ééééé

Ńbo ę gbólo kà? Omo Lásele Ńbo ę, ńbo ę

Ńbo lẹ gbólo kà rí o? Ńbo ẹ gbólo kà? E lọ wééwèèéé È lọ wééwèèwéé, E lọ wééwèèwéé, E lọ wééwèèwéé Ńbo ẹ gbólo kà?

Ègbè: Elo wééwèééé ooooo

Ohùn 1: Ó ti da báyìí Ohùn 2: Kò tí ì tó o

İşàré 1: Omo Adégoólú...

Omo Láemí Alàó

Olórun máa padà léyìn gbogbo wa

Omo abajélolá

Olóhun má padà lemyìn in gbogbo wa

Oláemi àgbà Aroko-máa-ràdá...

Orin: Obinrin èyin agbo

Wọn ń rojó o Obìnrin èyìn agbo Wón ń rojó ò Só wá sì wáá yẹ Ká mámà ké sénìkan

Ègbè: Obìnrin èyin agbo wón ń rojó ò

Lílé: Şérú èyí da

É má mà ké sẹnìkan

Ègbè: Obìnrin èyìn agbo

Wọn ń rojó ò

Ìṣàré 1: Ara e dákun

Sùúrù ni e șe

Àrólé ilé Àyánwálé Àrólé ilé Ìyàndá

N ó máa pè o nígbà gbogbo ni

Adísá... Ayélogun

Òkèèdèrè logbòn
Ayílókè má lògbon
Omo olólo lo lòsán
Alágbàlò ló lòru...
N ò níí ròkè Ìdère
N má móbìnrin lówó
Aya tééré la fíí molé oba
Òpá tééré la fi í rode...

Orin: Timàle tìgbàgbó

E kó ra pò o E kó ra pò ò, Tìmàlè tìgbàgbó E kóra pò o

E máa wo báyé se ń lọọọ Tìmàle tìgbàgbó e kó ra pò ò

> Tìmàle tìgbàgbó E kóra pò o

Lílé: E wo báyé şe ń lọ

Timàle tìgbàgbó

Ę kóra pò o

Ègbè: E wo báyé şe ń lọ

Tìmàle tìgbàgbó E kóra pò o...

Lílé: Eè tiè wo báyé şe ń lọọọ

Tìmàlè tìgbàgbó e kóra pò o

Ègbè: E wo báyé se ń lo

Tìmàle tìgbàgbó

E kóra pò ò

Lílé 2: Èyin aráabí

Mo dáyen dúró ná

Méwàá lohun tí ń be lénu mi

Igba aṣọ ní ń bẹ lára

Alágemo Mo sèsè ń dé Mo sèsè ń bò

Mo sèsè njánu ú bò bí àketon okó titon ni

Ní kékeré mo ti kộ eré Eré ò bá mi lábo rárá Emi Eríadé Àtàndá

Mo dé nìinì Èn-én

Baba Táyìbátu máa méti inú gbóò

Oko Múlíká

Baba Kàfáyátùu tèmi

Bàbá Jámíù Baba Mònsúrá

Èn-én

Oba Olórun ń be pelú ogbón

Olórun ń bẹ è Olórun ń bẹ è

Oba Olórun ń be pèlú ogbón

Ééèèèè Mọ gbà

Gbogbo yín té e dúró

Àteni tó jòkó Àteni tó dúró Àteni tó jòkó ńlè Mo kí i yín E mà kú ilé Éè mo gbà

Gbogbo yín tí e dúró

Éè mo gbà

Gbogbo yín té e dúró Àlùbáríkà lóòdè Gbogbo yín té e dúró

Ègbè: Éé mo gbà

Gbogbo yín té e dúró

Lílé: Èyin té ń wAdégbàyè

Gbogbo yín tệ e dúró

Ègbè: Éè mo gbà

Lílé:

Gbogbo yín té e dúró

Ateni ó wà lókèrè

Gbogbo yín mó o dúpé

Ègbè: Éé mo gbà

Gbogbo yín té e dúró...

Lílé: E è níi pàdé ìkà

Gbogbo yín té e dúró

Ègbè: Éèè mo gbà

Gbogbo yín tệ e dúró...

Lílé: Mo wà nílée Lágùnkè

Omo Fìjàbí

Ègbè: Éèè mo gbà

Gbogbo yín té e dúró

Lílé: A wà nílée Lágùnkè

Gbogbo yín té e dúró

Ègbè: Éèè mo gbà

Gbogbo yín té e dúró

Lílé: Şé ki n yílù po?

Àbí kí n mámà yílù po?

Ohùn: Má tí ì yílù po árá. Máa bá eré lọ.

Lílé: Sókùn díệ gín-ín-gín

Ó ń gbémi lókàn fúkéfúké...

Lílé: Nínó òsèré Igbó Orà

> Nínó òsèré Igbó Orà Olórin nlá lajókete Nínó òsèré Igbó Orà

Ègbè: Olórin ńlá lajókete

Nínó òsèré Igbó Orà

Lílé: Olórin ńlá lajókete

Nínò òsèrée Igbó Orà Olórin nlá Lajókete

Nìnó òsèré Igbó Orà...

Lílé: Omo Láselérè

Ègbè:

Àfi kÓlórun ó gbé wa ga Níbi ta béré ìbílè dè ò Ibi ta béré ìbílè dé kÓlórun ó gbé wa ga

Orin: Eni Olóhun bá dá

> Ló ń rórò so Eni Olóhun bá dá Ló ń rórò so Eni tí ò lówó lówó

Kò níí rórò sọ

Gbogbo òrò lórí owó ni

Şé mo puró?

Ègbè: Eni Olóhun bá dá

Ló le rórò so

Gbogbo òrò lórí owó ni

Sé mo puró

Ìşàré: Èyin aráabí

E má jé ó ju méjìméjì lo Aféféń fé mi lórin lo

Olú-omo

Elégbè tí ò bá gbè mí Kó padà léyìn mi N ó tó máa mówe se Mo ní mo kó orin

Bí eni kófá Àbá nì ń dá Nò tí ì yenbo

Èmi lomo Adéwolé Ìsòlá Tí i figbá àjé fóko mọ Àjànàkú ilé Ìsòlá

Èmi ìn ín máa figbá àjé fóko Mọ ní kékeré mo ti kộ eré

Eré ò bámi lábo Olú-omo, omo Láselé

Olóhun má jéyà ó je wá

Nlé Oníkòó Omo okún olà

Akéekúyá omo ikú mo bá won gbáriwo

Omo yòkòtò nikùn ajìfà

Nígbà tẹ è jìfà mộ Inộ rệ kùn fệlệfệlệ...

Aríńlę bí elú Arúńlę bí ojo Àdíkón ara Ìlawe Omo Láselé Èro Àdíkón

Wọn ò gbọdò pakón Tí wón bá e pakón pénrén À á máa fikón tọre fún alágbe ni

Ìlú ooníbéjì mo ti wá ò
Ìlú ooníbejì mo ti wá ò
Àbí ki ń ma kèkà lówó
Şé n máa kèkà lówó
Ìlú óóníbéjì mo ti....
Wonwéé, Olú-omo

Wonwé, wonwé, wonwé Ma fòyàyà séré mi ò

Ègbè: Wonwé

Má fòyàyà seré mi

Wonwé

Lílé: Ma fòyàyà seré mi

Wonwę

Ègbè: Wonwé

Ma fòyàyà şeré mi

Wonwé

Lílé: Mo dáyen dúró ná

N ò ma le se bí i télè mó rárá ò Mi ò lè jó bí i télè mó rárá

Ogbó sè ń dára mi

Mo ti jó púpò nígbà kan...

Èyin aráabíì Àwa lelérí

Àwa lelérí won Àkànmó ò

Àwa lelérí won ò

Àwa lelérí won ké e mò ò

Àwa lelérí won ò

Ègbè: Àwa lelérí wọn ò

Ìṣàré: Èyin aráabí

Elédè ń pàfò Omo Láșelé Áyàbàyàbà Ó lóun ń soge ni Ibi ta bérè ìbílè dé ò...

Èyin èèyàn E dákun

E ma je n làágùn jìnnè

Kée keè keè

Kẹ gbé mi débi àá kowó

Mo fé rèlú Òyìnbó N ó dé lótunla

E sàánú mi lásìkò yí E gbà mí lódodo

Tóba Olórun ò bá pa wá

Òré mi

TÒba Olórun ò bá pa wá o TÒba Olórun ò bá pa wá o

Ba ò bá kú A ó sòrò o

Ègbè: Tộba Olórun ò bá pa wá ò

Lílé: Tó bá wAláwùrà ò

Ègbè: Tộba Olórun ò bá pa wá ò...

E bá mi yílù po Ajá wáànú ńkó? Ajá wáànù ò Ó ń bẹ lódò mi Èmi Adégbàyè ò

Èyin tệ ń fệ tAdégbàyè ò Qmộ ọn yín ò níí kú Èmi náà ò níí kú Èyin onílù mi

E dákun e má gbàgbé ò Ihun tó fadí òrò yí

E dákun e má gbàgbé o

Ó ń bẹ lódò mi Èyin onílù mi Kó máa lọ béè ò

Idán oríta

Kò gbọdộ tán síbệ ò

Mo seré fún wọn ni Fèdègbó

Mo ti lò jó nÍlọrin Èkó ò lónkà mó Mo ti dÓndó rí ò Mò ti dÓndó ò...

Sátidé tí ń bọ lónà yen ò

Èmi lÉjìgbò
Pè lénikéjì mi ò...

Twenty three gengen ò
Ìyen nìlú Ayétè ò

Lódò ò Súkúrá Aláráagbó

Á jọ débè gan Á jó débè gangan Pèláwọn elégbè mi...

Orin: Abopátá ponmo o

Abopátá ponmo ò Be dójú títì

E wò wón Abópátàponmo Abopátáponmo o

Bẹ dójú títì E wò wón Abopátáponmo Bẹ dójú títì E wò wón

Abopátáponmo

Ègbè: Abopátáponmo

Bẹ dójú títì E wò wón Abopátáponmo

Lílé: Afipata pọnmọ ìyàwó ò

Bẹ dójú títì E wò wón Abopátáponmo

Ègbè: Afipata pọnmọ ìyàwó ò

Bẹ dójú títì Ḥ wò wón

Abopátáponmo...

Ègbè: Daddy mi

Daddy mi

E jòwó mo gbórò kan

Mummy mi

E jòwó mo gbórò kan

Ogun ilé ayé

Sì ń dérùú bà mí ó

Ègbè: Daddy mi

Ę jòwó mo gborò kan

Lílé: Ogun ilé ayé

Sì ń dérùú bà mí ó

Ègbè: Daddy mi

E jòwó mo gborò kan

Lílé: Èyin obìnrin

E sì ń sàsee bàjé Èyin obìnrin E sì ń sàse bàjé o Bóko ó fee yín E sì mái bà é lò o

Ègbè: Eyin obìnrin

E sì ń sasebajé ó

Lílé: Bóko ó fé yín

E sì mái bà é lò o

Ègbè: Eyin obìnrin

E sì ń sasebajé o...

Ìşàré: Éèèèè

E dákun ná

Òrò yìí n bẹ lówó àwon okònrin

Kòda, e e kọ sí E ó faya sílé E é balè lọ E má se béè mó rárá ò Èmi kì í seléènì o Èmi Adégbàyè ò Torí e mo e níyàwó kan

Mọ kòkan

Tó bá se pé béè ló ye yín

Èyin okònrin, e faya sílè relé àlè ò

Ègbè:Bộ bá jệ béệ ló yẹ yín òLílé:E faya sílé relé àlè òÈgbè:Bò bà jệ béệ ló yẹ yín ò...

Ìsàré: E dúró

Èyin obinrin

E dákun e mámà pe e gbó E dákun e mámà pe e gbó Yóó ma wá béè lokòòkan Ilé aye fúngbà díè ni

N ó dogún N ó dogbòn... Mo fé sa pàsívà

Mo fé se nàsíyà kan

Mo fé se nàsíyà kan Olú-omo

Èyin elégbè mi ké gbó o

Orin enìkejì mi ni Ségunségè só o gbó

Ó jệ wí pé Èyin aráabí

Ògbìgbà tí n gbaláilárá
Omele díè níwònba
Adáhùn díè níwònba
Ògbìgbà, ògbìgbà tí ń gba
Ògbìgbà tí n gbaláilárá
Ìn-in, eré Adégbàyè

Díè díè ni

Kò gba kólekóle ò

Èsò nijó mi

Emi mo gbé kete wọ fújìì Ó témi lợrùn daada... Emi ọmọ Adéwolé Ìṣòlá

Mo wà nílé orin

Emi omo elégùn nÍgbólé...

Orin: Dúró tì mi

Ìwọ èkejì mi o Kó tó dalệ

A sì máa rérè jé ò

Ègbè: Dúró tì mí ò

Ìwó èkejì mi o....

Lílé: Omo Láselé ò

Éèèèè

Kónkóto òòò

Ààà, Kónkóto, Kónkótòòò Kó jệ ń gbệrù mi dérí ò **Ègbè**: Òrìṣà èwe

Kòjé ń gbérù mi dórí ò

Lílé: Kónkotoòòò

Kộ má pàbúrò mi lệkún

Ègbè: Òrìṣà èwe

Má pàbúrò mi lékún ò...

Lílé: Kónkótoòòò

Kó máe gbàbúrò mi ò

Ègbè: Òrìṣà èwe

Máe gbàbúrò mi ò

Lílé: Kóńkótoòòò

Má e pàyá à mi lékún

Ègbè: Òrìṣà èwe

Má pàyáa mi lékún ò

Lílé: Kónkóto

Ma pábúrò mi lékún

Ègbè: Òrìṣà èwe

Má pàbúrò mi léékún ò

Lílé: Kónkóto

Kó má pàyáa mi lékún o

Ègbè: Òrìṣà èwe

Má pàyáa mi lékún ò

Lílé: Lérişin lérişin ni

Léríṣin léríṣin ni ò Bá a ti ń ṣeré ìbílè yí Lérísinlérísin ni

Ègbè: Lérişinlérişin ni ò

Bá a tí ń serée bílè yìí o

Lérisinlérisin ni...

Lílé: Kò lè run o

Kò lè run nílè yìí ò

Kò lè run

Ajókete leréèbílè òooo

Ègbè: Kò lè run òòò

Kò le run nílè yìí ò

Kò le run òòò...

Ìṣàré: Wéré wéré, wéré, sá nikán ń je lé

Bítàkùn ò bá já Qwó ò le tòkéré

Baba ta ní n fi póńpó palábahun...

Orin: Àdìsá àkùko wa yóó ko lálá

Àkùko wa yóó ko lálé

Bộmọdé ò kú ò À ó dàgbà òòò

Ègbè: Àkùkọ wa yóó kọ lálá

Lílé: Bómodé ò kú o

À ó dàgbà ò

Ègbè: Àkùkọ wa yóó kọ lálá...

Lílé: Kí isé wá jáde ni

Kíaríbèé

Kísé wá jáde ni òòò Oóko tí ò ni sì gbodò ka

Kísé e wa jáde ni

Ègbè: Kísée wa jáde ni òòò

Oókọ mí si gbọdò yọ

Kísée wá jáde ni

Lílé: Kísée wá jáde ni

Ogbón erí ò kenìkan Kísée wa jáde ni

Torógbón erí ò kennikan

Kísée wa jáde ni...

Lílé: Bóbìnrin ó kókó yóó rojó ò

Bóbìnrin ó kókó yóó rojó ò

Bó bá setán tí ń lọ Kò níí wi fénìkan ò

Ègbè: Bóbìnrin ó kọkọ yóó rojó o

Lílé: Bó bá setán tí ń lọ

Kò níí wi fénìkan ò

Ègbè: Bóbìnrin ó kọkọ yóó rojó o

Ìṣàré: E dúró

Ìwọ lo mú mi rántí Omọ Láṣelé Àkànmú

Kíaríbèé

Bóbìnrin ó kọkọ mo ti mộ Aà, mo ti gbá *research* í wọn

Ó ti dèşín ò... Bóbìnrin ó kọkọ Emi mọ bí ó ti şe

Bí ó ya bí Kệ ẹ mò

Okookan ní o tigbá è bègbé

Tí yóó délée wọn...

Ìṣàré: Èyin aráabíì

E máa métí inú gbó ò

E dákun

E má mú tòde gbó Aláráagbó onílé-oyin

Omókòóràjò

Òmógbèrún-òké-wálé-ayé Koóko odò tí máa rú tòjò tèèrùn

Òjìji-ò-fara-pa

Aàà

Aréèsú-yègbé Aríkóóko-hónra Aláráagbo oníle-oyin Òjókòórìbì-kalè

Adókománi, Adókomániipękun

Agbégbódewé Olúwéré, igi láyé Òòṣà lóde òrun Òròdóròdó àkàrà èrì ò Òròdóròdó àkàrà èrì N ń rà lómo lówó ò

Àkàrà èrì ò

Ègbè: Òròdóròdó àkàrà èrì ò Lílé: N ń rà lómo lówó ò

Àkàrà èrì ò

Ègbè: Òròdóròdó

Àkàrà èrì ò

Lílé: Èyin aráabí

Eni je méjì á yó Eni je méjì á yó

E è ri àkàrà erèé dùn ò

Eni je méjì á vó

Ó yá

Àkàrà eèré dùn ò Ègbè:

Eni je méjì á yó

Lílé: Àkàrà eèré dùn ò

Eni tó bá je méjì á yó

Ègbè: Àkàrà eèré dùn ò

Eni je méjì á yó...

Lílé: Omo Aláráagbó ò o

Omo elégbé ni mí ò Aya tí ò lè fé mi kó jòkó

Omo elégbé ni mí

Ègbè: Omo elégbé ni mí ò e

Àyà tí ò le fé mi kó jòkó

Omo elégbé ni mí

Líĺ: Omo elégbé ni mi ò e

Aya tí ò lè fé mí kó jòkó

Omo elégbé ni mí

Éèéèéè Lílé:

> Aláráagbó ò adé dààà Márộ ótàná adé dà àà Olójú-ekùn, adé dààà Maròótàná adé da òòò Òvìnbó mojó osè

Mo mojó eré mi

Ègbè: Èéèéeè adé da ò

Òyìnbó mọjó ọsè Mo mojó eré mi

Lílé: Èéèè adé da ò

> Òyìnbó mọjó ọsè Mo mojó eré mi

Èé adé da ò

Òyìnbó mọjó ọsè

Mo mojó eré mi

Lílé: Éè àntí ónída

Ègbè:

Àntí ónida ò

Obòn bó ò bá le wè

Bomi sómo lára

Ègbè: Éè ónída òòòò

Ónída òòò

Òbòn bó o bá le wè Bomi sómo lára

Lílé: Éè àntí ónída

Àntí ónida ò

Obòn bó ò bá le wè Bomi sómo lára

Ègbè: Éè ónída òòòò

Ónída òòò

Òbòn bó o bá le wè Bomi sómo lára...

Lílé: Ééèèè

Ògún náà ní ó wọlé deni Ògún náà ni ó wolé dọmọ Eni ránmọ lájò ní ó wọlé deni

Ègbè: Ògún náà ní ó wolé deni

Lílé: Eni ránmó lájò ní ó wolé domo

Ègbè: Ògún náà ní ó wolé deni Lílé: Ééé òkè aya mi e sá máa wò Òkè àyà ni e sá máa wò

Okè àyà ni e sá máa wò Bóbìnrin dóko tí ò wí ò

E wòkè àyà ò

Ègbè: Òkè àyà ni ẹ sá máa wòòò **Lílé**: Bóbìnrin độkọ tí ò wí ò

E wòkè àyà ò

Ègbè: Òkè àyà ni ẹ sá maa wòò

Lílé: Éèéèèèèè!

Ònìróókò ló bí mi ò Onírookò ló bí mi Igi tééré yegbó o

Ègbè: Ònìróókò ló bí mi

Igi tééré yegbó o

Lílé: Onírookò ló bí mi

Igi tééré yegbó o

Ègbè: Ònìróókò ló bí mi

Igi tééré yegbó o

Ègbè: Onírookò ló bí miì

Igi tééré yegbó ò...

Lílé: Wéréwéré bí ewé àdó

E jó tìrókò

Ègbè: Wàràwàrà bí ewé àdó

Ę jó tìrókò

Lílé: Wéréewéréé bí ewé àdó

E jó tìróókòòò

Ègbè: Wàràwàrà bí ewé àdó

E jó tìrókòòò...

Lílé: Omo Láselé

Yóó mà sì da

Yóó mà sì da

Ó mà sệ n dára a bộ wá E lò fara yin balè ò

Ègbè: Yọ́o da

Ó sèsè ń dára á bò wá E lo fara yín balè...

Lílé: Òrò yìí kọjá àfenusọ

Òrò yìí kọjá àfẹnusọ Eni tó bá wá o Ló le dá ròyìn o

Ègbè: Òrò yìí kọjá àfenuso...

Lílé: Éèè

Lílé:

E má jojà mí ó run Ojà tÓlórun dá ò

Ègbè: È mà jọjà mí ó run ùn

Ojà tÓlórun dá ò E má jojà mí ó run

Qjà tỌ̈́ló̞run dá ò

Ègbè: È mà jọjà mí ó run ùn

Ojà tÓlórun dá ò

Lílé: E má pẹ ò ríjó mi

E je ń jíjó opé o È mà pá à ríjó mi

Ègbè: È mà pé è ríjó mi

E je ń jíjó opé ò

Lílé: E má pe ò ríjó mi

E ò ríjó opé o

Ègbè: È mà pẹ ò ríjó mi

E ò ríjó opé o

Lílé: E má pe ò ríjó mi

E ò ríjó opé o

Ègbè: È mà pẹ ò ríjó mi

E ò ríjó opé o

Lílé: Àwa ń lo

A forin dágbére ò

Àwa ń lọ

A forin dágbére o

Bórò ó lo

Yóó sòkò orin ò

Ègbè: Àwa ń lọ

A forin dágbére o

Bórò ń lọ

Yóo sòkò orin ò

Lílé: Gbàyè ń jó

Alákànmú ń jó

Ikú ò mà níí torí è penìkan ò

Ègbè: Gbàyè ń jó

Alákànmú ń jó

Ikú ò mà níí torí è penìkan ò

Lílé: E jé á relé

Ilé là ń rèè

Báyé bá n yẹni lóde Kò dẹnúu lé E jẹ á relé Ilé là ń rèè Báyé bá ń yẹni lóde Kò dénúu lé...

Ègbè:

APPENDIX II

Sample of orin kete II

Ilé Arísányán níbi sàráà òkú (18/08/2018)

Lílé: Mo fabèbè mi bè yá ò

> Mo fabèbè òòò Àní kótén kótén Kótén lajá á lámi Mo ò fabèbè mi bèyá o

Ègbè: Mo fabèbè mi bè yá ò

> Mo fabèbè o Kótén kótén Kótén lajá á lámi Mo ò fabèbè mi bèyá ò

Lílé: Mo fabèbè mi bè yá ò

> Mo fabèbè òòò Àní kótén kótén Kótén lajá á lámi Mo ò fabèbè mi bèyá o

Ègbè: Mo fabèbè mi bè yá ò

> Mo fabèbè o Kótén kótén Kótén lajá á lámi

Mo ò fabệbệ mi bệyá ò...

Lílé: Èébúdolá e gbébè ò Ègbè: Mo fabèbè mi bèyá ò Lílé: Èébúdolá e gbébè ò Ègbè: Mo fabèbè ni bèyá ò Lílé: Kóredé e gbébè ò Ègbè: Mo fabèbè mi bèyá ò... Lílé: Àríké e gbébè ò

Ègbè: Mo fabèbè mi bèyá ò

Mo fabèbè o Kótén kótén Kótén lajá á lámi Mo ò fabèbè mi bèyá ò...

Ta bá bệyá o gbébệ ò Mo fabèbè mí bèyá ò

Àséègè Ohùn:

Lílé:

Ègbè:

Àkíìkà

Lílé: Àríké, fìrù yò wá ó Òtun lojó ń yo

Àríké ibi ó ré lo nílè yìí

Éébúdolá ìbà òòò

Ègbè: Kílè ma yò wá ò

Òtun lojó ń yo

Lílé: Kíbi ò ré lọ nílè yìí

Èébúdolá ìbà òòò

Ègbè: Kílè má yò wá òòò

Òtun lojóo yo

Lílé: E è ri Lójú àlá ni mo gbé ríya mi Lójú àlá ni mo gbé ríya mi

Ohùn: Àríké, Àríké òpó

Lílé: Lójú àlá ò ni mo gbé ríya mi

Aláàríké wèwù àlà O wà lórí eşin ò

Ègbè: Lójú àlá ò

Ni mo gbé ríyami òòò

Lílé: Alárìíké ja jà já

Ja kúrò lárà mi Èébúdolà já jà já Ja kúrò larà mi Gbogbo ìdè àwon òtá

Ja kúrò lara mi ò

Ègbè: Já jà já ò

Ja kúrò lára mi ò

Lílé: Ìdè àwọn ộtá ò

Ja kúrò lára mi ò

Ègbè: Jà jà jà òòò

Ja kúrò lára mi ò

Ohùn: Àṣéègè

Àkíìkà

Lílé: Kí lẹ mộ òòòò?

Kí le mò léyelé óóó?

Ègbè: Omo leyelé eni òòò **Lílé**: Kí le mò òòò ò?

Kí lẹ mọ lásọ rí ó?

Ègbè: Omo laso tí í boni ò

Lílé: Kí le mọ o?

Kí le mo lévelé óóó?

Ègbè:Omo leyelé eni òòòLílé:Ta bá dàgbà òòòò

Tá a pè ránnisé óóó

Ègbè: Omo laso tí í boni òòòò

Ohùn: Àséègè

Àkíìkà

Lílé: Ìlèkè lomo

É é gbodò já o

Ohùn: E dá músò ò Ègbè: Músòòòò Lílé: Ìlèkè lọmọ

É é gbọdò já o Omo tó O fún wa É é gbọdò já bó

Ègbè: Ìlèkè lomo

É é gbodo já o

Lílé: Omo tí O fún mi ò

Éé gbọdò kú ò

Ègbè: Ìlèkè lomo

É é gbodo já o

E bá mi gbómo okè lantílantì

Lílé: Kósekóse n tilákose odo

Kósekóse n tilákòse Ìyá omo ò sòrò Kó má se béè rí ó Kósekóse n tilákòse

Ègbè: Kósekóse n tilákose ò

Lílé: Aláráagbó

Ègbè: Kósekóse n tilákóse

Ìyá omo ò sòrò

Kó má se béè rí ó

Kósekóse n tìlákòse...

Lílé: kósekóse n tilákòse

Aláriké

Kósekóse n tilákose Ìya omo ò sòrò Kó má se bée rí ó Kósekóse n tilákòse

Ègbè: Kóşekóşe n tìlákòşe òòò

Lílé: Aláráagbó

Ègbè: Kósekóse ń tilákòse

Lílé: A kúkú ye wá

Ègbè: Kósekóse ń tìlákòse

Àrángbó 1: E seun òòòò

E sé òòò ooo

Àrángbó 2:E kú òrò ìyáÀrángbó 3:E kú orò ìyáÀrángbó 3:E kú ìnáwóÀrángbó 2:E sé ò

Àrángbó 4: E kú ọrò ìyá

Yóó yẹ yín

Ohùn 1: Àse wáà

Àse wáà...

Ohùn ìyá

ìlù Ìbènbé: Abìdí esin pátákun pátákun

Abìdí esin pàtàkun pàtàkun

Níbo ni n kộdí mi sí... E bámi gbómo òkè

Lantí lantí Lantí lantì

E bámi gbómo okè

Lantí lantì...

Bèbè ìdí ó wà níbè Bó bá dàbí iró E yèé wò...

(eni tí ohùn ìlù ń kì ń jó fowó kàndí)

Bíléèdì, bíléèbì, bíléèdì E má fabe ìfárí seré

Oníyó: Bíléèdì

Oníjó: Bíléèdì

Ohùn ìlù: Omo Apébiowó

Oníjó: Oò

Ohùn ìlù: O ò níí mòṣì

Oníjó: Àṣẹ...

Ohùn ìlù: O ò níí dìdàkudà

Oníjó: Àmín o

Ohùn ìlù: Eni eléni kò níí...
Oníjó: Kò níí gbàse mi se
Ohùn ìlù: Omo Apébíowó

Oníjó: Ó òòò

Ohùn ìlù: Orí eni ló ń yọni

Orí eni ló ń yoni

Ohùn ìlù

àti oníjó: Ènìyàn ò fénifórò

Bí ò sorí eni

Orí eni mà ló ń yọni Orí eni mà ló ń yọni

Ohùn ìlù: Rìkíṣí pin

Rìkimșí pin

Alágbède ò rí bébà ro

Rìkísí pin

Ìṣàré: Omo Atééréjayé

Gbéra ńlè ko dìde

Kò mà le dá mi lóhùn mò o

Lílé: Éèèèè

Èèèè

Égbé Àríké yadé ò

Éèè

Omo kékeré egbé Àríké yadé ò Èjìnní àgbé omo Bàyamù Olóólà tí máa mòko àbe

Lábándé omo àríké-ewu-móbe

Omo ogbingbin loko

Ògbìngbìn làtà

Omo okolà tí o mo wón Ní máa gbowóolà lódo tiwon Omo eranko mérindínlógún Lèjinní àgbé ko nílá tí o gbowó

Egbé Àríké yadéè Apá yín ò sègi Èjè niyìn oògùn... Ìyèrú Olófà mojò

Olálomí omo Abísujóóko

Ìjà kan Ìjà kàn

Ìjà kan tí wọn ń jà lébè Olálomí ó sojú ebè Ó sojú poro nínú oko Éèè

Egbé Àríké yadé ò

Ó yadé

Òyànyáríya òòò Ęgbệ Àríkệ yadé ò

Ègbè: Ó yadé

Òyányáríya òòò Ęgbę Àríkę ya dé ò

Lílé: Ó yadé èèè

Òyànyáríya òòò Egbé àríké yadé ò

Ègbè: Ó yadééé

Óyànyáríya òòò Egbé àríké yadé ò

Lílé: Ééé

E bá wa séééé Aráagbó bá wa sé

Ìyálóde Òjókòó-bìrìkìtì-kalè

Adáko má nipèkun

E báwa séé Ère ibi té e wa ò E bá wa séé

Yèyé aláṣọ oṣùn ò Ábomiwàrun bá wa ṣe ò

Ègbè: E bá wa sé

Ère aláso osùn ò

Abomiwàrun bá wa sé ò

Lílé: E báwa sé

Yèyé aláso osùn ò

Abomiwarun bá wa şé ò

Ègbè: E bá wa şé

Ère aláso osùn ò

Abomiwàrun bá wa sé ò

Lílé: Éèèè

Éèèè Éèèè

Orìsà má já á

Òrìṣà má jẹ tèmi ó gbé Èébumdolá Àríkẹ́ Òrìṣà má jẹ́ tàwa ó gbé Ọba Olúwa má jẹ́ tàwa ó gbé Ọba Olúwa má jẹ́ tàwa ó gbé

Ègbè: Örìsà má jệ tàwa ó gbé

Lílé: Oba Olúwa má jệ tàwa ó gbé Ègbè: Örìṣà má jệ tàwa ó gbé Lílé: Oba Olúwa má jệ tàwa ó gbé Ègbè: Örìṣà má jệ tàwa ó gbé...
Àrángbó: Ògèdè e gbódò kó yàgàn

Ògèdè e sunkú àti dè o

Kára má ni gbogbo wa ò

Kára dệ wá sówó Kára dệ wá sómo ò

Ká rí bá ti sé Ká máa rí je Ká máa rí mọ ò...

Lílé: Oba Olúwa máje tàwa ó gbé Ègbè: Örìsà má je tàwa ó gbé

Lílé: Éééé

Òkè àyà ni ẹ sá máa wò Bóbìnrin độkọ tí ò wí

E wòkè àyà ò

Ègbè: Òkè àyà ni ẹ sá máa wòò **Lílé:** Bóbìnrin độkọ tí ò wí

E wòkè àyà ò

Ègbè: Òkè àyà ni ẹ sá máa wòò **Lílé:** Bóbìnrin độkọ tí ò wí

E wòkè àyà ò

Ègbè: Òkè àyà ni ẹ sá máa wòò...

Lîlé: Ééé

Àrà n bá dá ledáàà

Èyí nà bá wí Lẹ wí ì nì ò

Ègbè: Àrà n bá dá

Lẹ dá à nì o

Lílé: Èyí ń bá jó

Le jó ò ní

Ègbè: Àrà ń bá dá

Lẹ dá à nì o

Lílé: Eyi n bá wí

Le wí ì nì

Ègbè: Àrà n bá dá Le dá à nì o

Lílé: Éèèè

Éèèè

Omo Arórení

Ègbè mi e bò mí wítíwìtì ò Ègbè mi e bò mí wítítìtì ò Iká kan ò lè jé kóògùn jé

Ègbè:Ègbè mi e bò mí wítítìtì òLílé:Iká kan ò lè fékùùkù lá oÈgbè:Ègbè mi e bò mí wítítìtì ò...

Ìşàré: Éèèè

Ìyamí Àríké dáràalè ò Ikú pabírí, Àríké

Ikú pabìrì

Abìrì ròrun alákeji... Àfẹni òbò ò bá bí Nikú ò le è pa...

Ìyá mi tí mọ bá ni o má jộkùnrùn

Àríké

Kó o má jekòló...

Ohun tókùú báa je lájùlé ni o bá won je...

Lílé: Awo lọ

N ò mà ráwo mọ ò

Ègbè: Awo lọ

A ò mà ráwo mó ò

Lílé: Àríké awó lọ òòò

N ò mà ráwo mó ò

Ègbè: Awó lọ

A ò ma ráwo mó ò

Ègbè: Awo lọ

A ò mà ráwo mó ò

Lílé: Àríké awó lọ òòò

N ò mà ráwo mó ò

Ègbè: Awó lo

A ò ma ráwo mó ò

Lílé: Ééèè

Àríké Ìyá Àjíké

Gbogbo yín kẹ lò ó dìde

Bóko ò jìnna ilá ò gbọdò kó ò

Ègbè:Gbogbo yín ẹ nàró dìde òòòLílé:Bóko ò jìnnà ilá ò gbọdò kó òÈgbè:Gbogbo yín ẹ nàró dìde òòòLílé:Bóko ò jìnnà ilá ò gbọdò kó òÈgbè:Gbogbo yín ẹ nàró dìde òòò...

Lílé: Éèèè

E má padà léyìn mi

Èwe wéwé

E má padà léyìn mi ò

Mo léko nléèè E ká re yàráa mi ò

Ègbè: Èwe wéwé

E má padà léyìn mi ò

Lílé: Mo léko nléèè

E ká re yàráà mi ò

Ègbè: Èwe wéwé

E má padà léyìn mi ò

Lílé: E káre yàrá mi o

E káre yàrá mi o

Ègbè: Èwe wéwé e o

E ká re yàráa mi òòò

Lílé: E káre yàrá mi o

E káre yàrá mi o

Ègbè: Èwe wéwé e o

E ká re yàráa mi òòò...

(Orin tệ sí iwájú, olùwádìí lọ bá àwọn olùsìn ní ojúbọ Alárá-Igbó àti ti àwọn òrìṣà mìíràn tó wà ní inú ilé, níbi tí wọn ti ń ṣe ìsìn lọ léyìn tí wọn parí ti ojú oorí ní ìta)

Ìwúre: Nígbà Tóóyìn wá wà nípò

Má jệ bàjệ

Ohùn: Àṣẹ wáà

Ìwúre: Mo wá fi Tóyin lé e lówó ò...

Gbogbo owó tó ję

Jệ kó san án Jệ kó san an Bệệ ni kó rí

Ohùn: Àṣẹ wáà Ìwúre: Kó ṣẹ béè...

E pàdá àti Làádà

Mée mộmọ kan sộdò mộ o...

Orin: Èke pabì ó dé ò

Àyìnké pa tiệ ó yàn

Orin: Èke pabì ó dé ò

Àyìnké pa tiệ ó yàn o...

Lílé: Èjệ balệ kára rộ

Ó dògún sòròsoro Èjè balè kara rò Ó dògún sòròsoro Èjè balè kára rò ooo

Lílé: Músò dá músò o

E bá mi dá músò fAráagbóóó

Ègbè: Músò ò

Ègbè:

Ègbè:

Lílé:

E bá mi dá músò faráagbóóóó

Lílé: Músòò

Kí la ó máa fòní jú ò

Ègbè: Ìnàbà la ó máa fòní jú ò ìnbà ò

Lílé: Kí la ó máa fòní jú ò

Ègbè: Ìnbà, la ó máa fòní jú ò nbà ò

Lílé: Ìnbà àgbà mo foríbalè

Kí n má sawo se ò

Ègbè: Ìbà àgbà mo forí balè

Kí n má sawo se

Lílé: Èyin tó layé

Mo forí balè

Kí n má sawo se

Ègbè: Àgbààgbà mo forí balè

Kí n má sawo se

Lílé: Aláráagbo mo forí balè

Kémi má sawo se

Ègbè: Àgbààgbà mo forí balè

Kémi má sawo se

Lílé: Olúwéré mo forí balè

Kémi má sawo se

Ègbè: Àgbààgbà mo forí balè

Kémi má sàwo se

Lílé: Ìbejì mo forí balè

Kí n má sawo se

Ègbè: Àgbààgbà mo forí balè

Kí n má sawo se...

Lílé: Músò ò

Àríké o şehun ayé pé o şe òòò

O şehun ayé pé o şe ò Káyé má şe şíò sórò rè O şehun ayé pé o şe Mo sehun ayé pé n se ò

Ègbè: Mo şehun ayé pé n şe ò

Káyé má se síò sórò mi Mo sehun ayé pé n se Mo sehun ayé pé n se Òrò mí dowó ìyáà mi Mo seun ayé pé n se...

Lílé: Ta le a gbójú lé ò

Ta le a gbójú lé

Ègbè: Atèléni-má-gbèjaé ò

Egbé mo gbójú lé

Lílé: Ta le a gbójú lé ò

Ta le a gbójú lé

Ègbè: Atèléni-má-gbèjaé ò

Egbé mo gbójú lé ...

Lílé: N ó maa lọ ò

Bó bá dàárò Ma tún wá ò

Ègbè: Emi ò mà dágbéré

A mámà darí dé ò

Eré nídìí Òrìşà Ìbejì àti Ìbejì bíbo

Lílé: Ìyá làwòko
Ègbè: Táyélolú lo ńjó
Lílé: Ìyá Làwòko
Ègbè: Táyélolú lo níjó
Lílé: Táyélolú lo níjó
Táyélolú lo ńjó

Tayelolu lo njo Ìyá Làwòko

Táyélolá lo néi

Ègbè:Táyélolú lo níjóLílé:Ìyá làwòkoooÈgbè:Táyélolú lo ńjó

Lílé àti

Ègbè: Ìyáàbejì

E jé sehun tí mo fé ó Sepo fún Táyé

E bá wa sèwà fúnbéjì ò

Ìyáàbejì

Şehun tí mo fé ó Sepo fún Táyé

E bá wa sèwà fúnbejì òòò

Lílé àti

Ègbè: Epo ń be

Èwà ń bẹ ò

Àyà mi ò já Ó óó eee

Àyà mi ò já láti bíbejì ò

Epo ń bẹ Èwà ń bẹ òòò

Lílé àti

Ègbè: Epo ń be

Èwà ń bẹ ò Àyà mi ò já Ó óó eee

Àyà mi ò já láti bíbejì ò

Epo ń bẹ Èwà ń be òòò

Lílé àti

Ègbè: Epo ń be

Èwà ń bẹ ò Àyà mi ò já Ó óó eee

Àyà mi ò já láti bíbejì ò

Epo ń bẹ Èwà ń bẹ òòò

Àrángbó: Toò, Táyé ati Kéhìn, Èjíwùmí abíáyò, e gbà mí bí mo se rí o. Ìpè yin mo

gbó lójijìpé àwon ní ki n fi omi tútů, obì tútů, epo tútů bọ ìbejì. Mo sì wáà sáré, mo sáré, mo lò ó rà á gégé bí abiamo. Wón lótàá pò fún mi sùgbón èyin lé lé gbà mi. Mo ti ko o wá ó, e wá gbèjà mi. E gbèjà mi, ki n jerí, ki máa jerí òtá báyìí ni, òtá ilé ni, òtá òde ni, òtáalé oko, òtáalée baba, e jé ń borí won ni ò... E rí mi lómo kékeé tée fi tòmí wá, e wá gbàmí lágbà...

Ohùn: È gbó bíya yín se wí ò, ìya yín ló ń pè yín, má jèé ó ríjà o, má jèé ó rí

wàhálà ò...

E gbèjà wa ò... (ó ń da obì). Mo dúpé ò, mo dúpé ò...

Olùsìn kan: Emi ni mo kóbì méjì sílè o (Wón da obì, ó sì dà)

Àrángbó: Mo dúpé o

Táyélolú ìşéèrè wéwé Ìkónkósó aríjó-sana-iyawó

Òkan mo ní n bí Èjì ló wọlé tò mí Òbé-kìṣì-bé-kéṣé Ó wọlé alákìísà Ó sọ ó donígba-aṣọ

Ojú ni pókí

Fún mi nírù n rójú siré...

Mo yíkàá ìyá o Nílè ni mo wà o Nílè ni mo wà o...

Orin: Táyélolú lóun ó soko mi

Omokéhìndé lóun ó soko mi Oò sí ni n máà ródò lóòrùn mó o

Táyélolú lóun ó soko mi

Ègbè: Táyélolú lóun şoko mi

Omokéhìndé lóun ó soko mi

Ó sí ni n máà ródò lóòrùn mó o

Táyélolú lóun ó soko mi

Lílé: Táyélolú lóun ó soko mi

Omokéhìndé lóun ó soko mi Oò sí ni n máà ródò lóòrùn mó o

Táyélolú lóun ó soko mi

Ègbè: Táyélolú lóun şoko mi

Omokéhìndé lóun ó soko mi Ó sí ni n máà ródò lóòrùn mó o

Táyélolú lóun ó soko mi

Lílé: Bộtàá ń perí wa lójúu odósìnì Ègbè: Táyélolú gbèjà wa lójúu páálí Lílé: Bộtàá ń perí wa lójúu odósìnì Ègbè: Táyélolú gbèjà wa lójúu páálí Lílé: Bộtàá ń perí wa lójúu odósìnì Ègbè: Táyélolú gbèjà wa lójúu páálí Lílé: Àjànkoro dùgbèdùgbè o

Àjànkoro dùgbèdùgbè

A rúbọ Ebọ dà sé ò

Ègbè: Àjànkoro dùgbệdùgbệ

Lílé: A rúbọ

Ębọ dà sé ò

Ègbè:Àjànkoro dùgbèdègbèLílé:Ikú lọ owó bò wá òÈgbè:Àjànkoro dùgbèdùgbè

APPENDIX III

Sample of *orin kete* III

Ní ibi ìwúyè Olú of Igbóorà (25/05/2019)

Ìsàré: Ajísolá

Omo Òjètàdínlógún Eni bínó Ìrèsé

Olúwa rè á bórò so ni

Òléléééééé Eni aléèkú dé. Lèkúléku ò

Eni aléèkú dé

Ègbè: Òlélé

Eni aléèkú dé

Lílé: Eni aléèkú dé ò

Léèkúléku ò Eni aléèkú dé

Ègbè: Òléléé

Eni aléèkú dé

Lílé: Eni àlééku dé o

Lèkuléku òòò

Eni a léé kú dé o

Ègbè: Òléléé

Eni aléèkú dé

Lílé: Léèkúléku ò

Eni aléèkú dé

Ègbè: Öléléé

Eni aléèkú dé...

Lílé: Ajísolá

Léèkúléku ò

Eni aléèkú dé

Ègbè: Òléléé

Eni aléèkú dé

Ohùn: Eyin, olóyè, e wá náwó fóníketeee!

Lílé: Léèkúléku ò

Eni aléèkú dé

Ègbè: Òléléé

Eni aléèkú dé

Lílé: Omo Asóróolú

Léèkúléku ò Eni aléèkú dé

Ègbè: Òléléé

Eni aléèkú dé...

Lílé: Gbogbo olóyè o

Léèkúléku ò

Eni aléèkú dé

Ègbè: Òléléé

Eni aléèkú dé

Lílé: Omo Asóróolú

Léèkúléku ò

Eni aléèkú dé

Ègbè: Òléléé

Eni aléèkú dé

Lílé: Léèkúléku ò

Eni aléèkú dé

Ègbè: Òléléé

Eni aléèkú dé

Lílé: Léèkúléku ò

Eni aléèkú dé

Ègbè: Òléléé

Eni aléèkú dé

Lílé: Léèkúléku ò

Eni aléèkú dé

Ègbè: Òléléé

Eni aléèkú dé

Lílé: Léèkúléku ò

Eni aléèkú dé

Ègbè: Òléléé

Eni aléèkú dé

Lílé: Léèkúléku ò

Eni aléèkú dé

Ègbè: Òléléé

Eni aléèkú dé

Lílé: Omo Asóróolú

Wèrèwèrè ní ó rìn wọmi lọ o

Ègbè:Wệrệwệrệ ní ó rìn wọmi lọ oLílé:Eni tó pé o má rérè ọba jẹÈgbè:Wệrệwệrệ ní o rìn wọmi lọ o

Lílé: Omo Asóróolú

Eni tó pé o má rérè oba je

Ègbè: Wèrèwèrè ní ó rìn wọmi lọ o **Lílé**: Werewere ní ó rìn wọmi lọ

Eni tó pé o má rérè oba je

Ègbè:Wệrệwệrệ ní o rìn wọmi lọ oLílé:Eni tó pé o má rérè ọba jẹÈgbè:Wệrệwệrệ ní o rìn wọmi lọ o

Lílé: Ni ó rìn wọmi lọ

Lílé: Eni tó pé o má rérè oba je Ègbè: Wèrèwèrè ní o rìn womi lo o Lílé: Eni tó pé o má rérè oba je Ègbè: Wèrèwèrè ní o rìn womi lo o

Lílé: Ìlùfemilóyè

Eni tó pé o má rérè oba je

Ègbè: Wèrèwèrè ní o rìn womi lọ o...

Lílé: Asóróolú máa bèrù èèyàn Asóróolú máa bèrù èèyàn

Ayé ò féni pèlú adé o

Așóróolú máa bệrù èèyàn

Ègbè: Asóróolú máa bèrù èèyàn Asóróolú máa bèrù èèyàn

Ayé ò féni pèlú adé o

Aşóróolú máa bèrù èèyàn...

Lílé: Máa bệrù èèyàn

Èèrà ò fệ pòpórò dénú o Aṣóróolú máa bèrù èèyàn

Ègbè: Ayé ò féni pèlú adé o

Aşóróolú máa bèrù èèyàn

Lílé: Máa bệrù èèyàn

Èèrà è é fẹ pòpórò dénu o Aṣóróolú máa bèrù èèyàn

Ègbè: Ayé ò féni pèlú adé o

Aşóróolú máa bèrù èèyàn

Lílé: Máa bệrù èèyàn

Èèrà è é fẹ pòpórò dénu o Asóróolú máa bèrù èèyàn

Ègbè: Ayé ò féni pèlú adé o

Aşóróolú máa bèrù èèyàn

Lílé: Oba ò

Oba aláșe

Kí le ń foba pè?

Ègbè: Oba ò

Oba aláse

Oba

Lílé: Kí lẹ ń fọba pè?

Ègbè: Oba ò

Oba aláșe

Oba

Lílé: Táyélolú òòò

Kí lệ ń foba pè?

Ègbè: Oba ò

Oba aláșe

Oba

Lílé: Oba tó tó bí aró

Ègbè: Oba ò

Oba aláșe

Qba

Lílé: Obaa rèrèrè bí osùn o

Ègbè: Oba ò

Oba aláșe

Ōbа

Lílé: Àşoròòlú o

Kí lè n foba pè o?

Ègbè: Oba aláșe

Qba

Lílé: Kí lệ n fọba pè o?

Ègbè: Oba ò

Oba aláșe

Oba

Lílé: Èyín ara ìlé o

Kí lệ ń foba pè o?

Ègbè: Oba o

Oba aláșe

Oba

Lílé: E lo wéwèéwé

Ę lọ wéwéèwé

Ę lọ

Níbo e gbóba ka

Ègbè: E lọ wéwèéwé

Lílé: E lọ níbo e gbóbà ká

Ègbè: E lo wéwèéwé

Lílé: Ará ilé

Níbo e gbóba ká

Ègbè: E lọ wéwèéwé **Lílé**: Omodé ilé

Níbo e gboba kà

Ègbè: E lọ wéweéwéLílé: Níbo e gbólo kà oÈgbè: E lọ wéwèéwé

Lílé: È mémi náà kọja ibè o

Ègbè: E lo wéwèéwé

Ohùn: E sé, e sé o, e sé o... E bá wa fi agbo sílè o...

APPENDIX IV

Sample of *orin agbė/ṣàkàrá* I Ní Ilé Ajóṣàkàrà Igbó-Ọrà (22/07/2018)

(Yíyan agbè: èyí ni bí àwọn tó ń lu agbè ṣe ń yan agbè tí wọn yóó lù. Ara ìsèlù ni èyí wà)

Ohùn Oríşìíríşìí: Kò í yá o

Oníjó: Ìlù tí e ń lù yì í ò daa! Ìlù è tí ì dáa!

Alágbè: Ó kù díệ bàbá a

Oníjó: Ó kù díệ? Alágbè: En-éèn... Alágbè: Ìlù è tí ì dáa

Àwun ò è se tèmi

Oníjó: Ìlù è tí ì dáa

E jệ kí ìlù ó lù dáadáa...

Lílé: A ó sorò o

A ó sorò ilé

Ègbè: ÒṣòòroṣóròòòLílé: A ó ṣoròó

A ó sorò ilé

Ègbè: Òṣòòroṣóròòò

Lílé: A ó soròó

A ó sorò ilé

Ègbè: ÒṣòòroṣóròòòLílé: A ó soròó

A o soroo

A ó sorò ilé

Ègbè: Òṣòòroṣóròòò

Lílé: A ó soròó

A ó sorò ilé

Ègbè: ÒṣòòroṣóròòòLílé: A ó ṣoròó

A ó sorò ilé

Ègbè: ÒṣòòroṣóròòòLílé: A ó soròó

A ó sorò ilé

Ègbè: Òsòòrosóròòò

Lílé: Eléèére

Omo ajáágbè ò

Ègbè: Eléèèré

Omo ajéágbè ò

Lílé: Eléèére

Omo ajáágbè ò

Lílé: Eléèére

Omo ajáágbè ò

Ègbè: Eléèèré

Omo ajéágbè ò

Lílé: Eléèére

Omo ajáágbè ò

Ègbè: Eléèèré

Omo ajéágbè ò

Lílé: Eléèére

Omo ajáágbè ò

Ègbè: Eléèèré

Omo ajéágbè ò...

Ègbè: Eléèèré

Omo ajéágbè ò

Lílé: Agogo ń ró 0000

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Ègbè: Agogo ń ró ooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Lílé: Agogo ń ró oooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Ègbè: Agogo ń ró ooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Lílé: Agogo ń ró 0000

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Ègbè: Agogo ń ró ooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Lílé: Agogo ń ró oooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Ègbè: Agogo ń ró ooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Lílé: Agogo ń ró oooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Ègbè: Agogo ń ró ooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo...

Lílé: Oníjó yìí o

Ègbè: Elégbè o

Lílé: Orin lónìí o

Ègbè: Elégbè o

Lílé: Àwọn èèyàn mi ò gberin bí àtijó mó

Ègbè: Àwọn èèyàn mi ò kọrin bí àtijó mó

Lílé: Oníjó yìí o

Ègbè: Elégbè o

Lílé: Orin lónìí o

Ègbè: Elégbè o

Lílé: Àwọn èèyàn mi ò gberin bí àtijó mó

Ègbè: Àwon èèyàn mi ò kọrin bí àtijó mó

Lílé: Şe ó le è dúró o èeè?

Ègbè: E ò le è dúrò o èeè?

Lílé: Şe ó le è dúró be gbóhùn agbè o? Ègbè: E ò le dúró be gbóhùn agbè o Lílé: Se ó le è dúró be gbóhùn agbè o? E ò le dúró be gbóhùn agbè o Ègbè: Lílé: Şe ó le è dúró be gbóhùn agbè o? Ègbè: E ò le dúró be gbóhùn agbè o Lílé: Se ó le è dúró be gbóhùn agbè o? Ègbè: E ò le dúró be gbóhùn agbè o Lílé: Şe ó le è dúró be gbóhùn agbè o? Ègbè: E ò le dúró be gbóhùn agbè o Lílé: Se ó le è dúró be gbóhùn agbè o? Ègbè: E ò le dúró be gbóhùn agbè o ...

Lílé: Bẹ bá fiwájú jo tán

E tún fèyìn jó

Ègbè: Kòkòrò lọmọ Ajóṣàkàrá ó

Lílé: Bẹ bá fiwájú jo tán

E tún fèyìn jó

Ègbè: Kòkòrò lọmọ Ajóṣàkàrá ó

Lílé: Bẹ bá fiwájú jo tán

E tún fệyìn jó

Ègbè: Kòkòrò lọmọ Ajóṣàkàrá ó

Lílé: Bẹ bá fiwájú jo tán

E tún fèyìn jó

Ègbè: Kòkòrò lọmọ ajóṣàkàrá ó

Lílé: A ì í tà á ò

A ì í tagbè láwìn

Ègbè: Tórótóró lowó **Lílé**: A ì í tà á ò

A ì í tagbè láwìn

Ègbè: Tórótóró lowó **Lílé**: A ì í tà á ò

A ì í tagbè láwìn

Ègbè: Tórótóró lowó **Lílé**: A ì í tà á ò

A ì í tagbè láwìn

Ègbè:Tórótóró lowóLílé:A ì í tà á ò

A ì í tagbè láwìn

Ègbè: Tórótóró lowó

Lílé: Àwa náà la kòwé sórin eré
Ègbè: Àwa náà la kòwé sórin eré
Lílé: Àwa náà la kòwé sórin eré
Ègbè: Àwa náà la kòwé sórin eré
Lílé: Àwa náà la kòwé sórin eré
Ègbè: Àwa náà la kòwé sórin eré...

Lílé: A gbé tilé wa dé

Ègbè: Tilée wa

Lílé: A gbé tilé wa dé

Ègbè: Tilée wa

Lílé: Àkókó kosùn ó kerí

Ègbè: Tilée wa

Lílé: Àdàbà kosùn ó kàyà

Ègbè: Tilée wa

Lílé: Olóbùró kosùn ó kộfọn

Ègbè: Tilée wa

Lílé: A gbé tilé wa dé

Ègbè: Tilée wa

Lílé: Eré lè ń fagbè șe

Ègbè:Okó lòwò**Lílé:**Òké gbowó

Kò gbàwé mó

Ègbè: Òkệ méjìlá o o

Gèle yeyeeye

Lílé: Èké gbowó

Kò gbàwé mó

Ègbè: Òké méjìlá o o

Gèle yeyeeye

Lílé: Òké gbowó

Kò gbàwé mó

Ègbè: Òké méjìlá o o

Gèle yeyeeye

Lílé: Èké gbowó

Kò gbàwé mộ

Ègbè: Òké méjìlá o o

Gèle yeyeeye

Lílé: Òké gbowó

Kò gbàwé mộ

Ègbè: Òké méjìlá o o

Gèle yeyeeye

Lílé: Èké gbowó

Kò gbàwé mó

Ègbè: Òké méjìlá o o

Gèle yeyeeye

Lílé: Òké gbowó

Kò gbàwé mộ

Ègbè: Òké méjìlá o o

Gèle yeyeeye...

Lílé: Ajómáwole ibó e gbé Róla ò

Ègbè: A ò Róla mó

Idèè ló rè e

Lílé:Níbo e gbé Róla o?Ègbè:Òla AjómáwoléLílé:Nibo e gbé Róla o?Ègbè:Òla AjómáwoléLílé:Ajómáwolé

Níbo e Róla o?

Ègbè: A ò Róla mó

Ìdèè ló rè o

Lílé: Níbo e gbé Róla?

Ègbè: Òla Ajómáwolé Lílé: Níbo e gbé Róla? Ègbè: Òla Ajómáwolé Lílé: Níbo e gbé Róla? Ègbè: Òla Ajómáwolé Lílé: Níbo e gbé Róla? Ègbè: Òla Ajómáwolé Lílé: Níbo e gbé Róla? Ègbè: Òla Ajómáwolé Lílé: Níbo e gbé Róla? Ègbè: Òla Ajómáwolé Lílé: Níbo e gbé Róla? Ègbè: Ola Ajómáwolé... Lílé: À ń saré aléré

Wòn n bẹ wá lọwệ ò

Ántorí ara wa

Ègbè: À ń ṣaré aléré

Wòn n be wá lowè ò

Ántorí ara wa

Lílé: À ń jíjó oníjó

Wòn n bè wá lowè, ò

Áńtorí àra wa

Ègbè: A ń jíjó oníjó

Wón n bệ wá lowe o

Ántórí ara wa

Lílé: Ayá Ajóṣàkàrá

E kú ìgbádùn ò

Ègbè: Aya Ajósakará

E kú ìgbádùn ò

Lílé: Ìyàwó Ajósàkàrá

E kú ìgbádùn

Ègbè: Àyá Ajóṣàkàrà

E kún ìgbádùn o

Lílé: Ìyàwó Ajóṣàkàrá

E kú ìgbádùn

Ègbè: Àyà Ajóṣàkàrà

E kún ìgbádùn o

Lílé: Ìyàwó Ajósàkàrá

E kú ìgbádùn

Ègbè: Àyà Ajóṣàkàrà

E kún ìgbádùn o

Lílé: Ìyàwó Ajósàkàrá

Ę kú ìgbádùn

Ègbè: Àyà Ajóṣàkàrà

E kún ìgbádùn o...

Lílé: Ìyàwó Ajóṣàkàrá

O gbódo lále ò

Ègbè: Obìnrin Ajóṣàkàrá

Ò gbódò lálè ò

Lílé: Ìyàwó Ajóṣàkàrá

Ò gbódò lálè ò

Ègbè: Obìnrin Ajósakará

Ò gbódò lálè ò

Lílé: Ìyàwó Ajósàkàrá

Ò gbódò lálè ò

Ègbè: Obìnrin Ajósakará

Ò gbódò lálè ò

Lílé: Onílé se wá pèlé Ègbè: Pèlé ojú tó moni

Lílé: Kínikíni

Ègbè: Kò le póun ò mọni mộ

Lílé: Ojú tó mon

Ègbè: Kò póun ò mọni mó

Ìseré Kejì 22/7/2018

Lílé: Eni póun ó gbèse mí se Ègbè: Wèrè wèrè ní ó rìn womi lo Lílé: Eni póun ó gbèse mí se Ègbè: Wèrè wèrè ní ó rìn womi lo Lílé: Okùnrin póun ó gbàse ni se Ègbè: Wèrèwèrè ní ó rìn womi lo Lílé: Eni tó póun ó gbàse mi se Ègbè: Wèrèwèrè ní ó rìn womi lo Lílé: Eni tó póun ó gbàse mi se Ègbè: Wèrèwèrè ní ó rìn womi lo Lílé: Eni tó póun ó gbàse mi se Ègbè:

Wèrèwèrè ní ó rìn womi lo Lílé: Bóbìnrin póun ó gbàse mi se Ègbè: Wèrèwèrè ní ó rìn womi lo

Lílé: Eni ó gbàse mi se

Ègbè: Wèrèwèrè ní ó rìn womi lo

Lílé: Eni ó gbàse mi se

Ègbè: Wèrèwèrè ní ó rìn womi lo

Lílé: Eni ó gbàse mi se

Ègbè: Wèrèwèrè ní ó rìn womi lo

Lílé: Eni ó gbàse mi se

Ègbè: Wèrèwèrè ní ó rìn womi lo... Lílé: Obìnrin tó póun ó gbàse mi se Ègbè: Wèrèwèrè ní ó rìn womi lo Lílé: Eni póun ó gbàse mi se ò Ègbè: Wèrèwèrè ní ó rìn womi lo

Lílé: Eni ò lè rìn

O padà sèyìn o

Ègbè: Ilé Ajómáwòlé là ń lọ

Lílé: Eni ò lè rìn O padà sèyìn o

Ilé Ajómáwòlé là ń lọ

Ègbè: Lílé: Eni ò lè rìn

Ó padà sèyìn o

Ègbè: Ilé Ajómáwòlé là ń lo Lílé: Eni ò lè rìn

Ó padà sèyìn o

Ègbè: Ilé Ajómáwòlé là ń lọ

Lílé: Eni ò lè rìn

Ó padà sèyìn o

Ègbè: Ilé Ajómáwòlé là ń lọ...

Lílé: E tóyin wò ò

Ègbè: Orò mí ó dùn joyin lọ

Lílé: E tóyin wò ò

Ègbè: Òrò mí ó dùn joyin lọ

Lílé: E tóyin wò ò

Ègbè: Òrò mí ó dùn joyin lọ

Ègbè: Òrò mí ó dùn joyin lọ

Lílé: E tóyin wò ò

Ègbè: Òrò mí ó dùn joyin lọ...

Lílé: Ori eni ní í tèlé eni

Orí eni ní í tèlé eni M fowó di tèmi mú

Ègbè: Ori eni ní í telé eni Lílé: Mo fowó di tèmi mú Ègbè: Orí eni níi tèlé eni Lílé: Mo fowó di tèmi mú Ègbè: Orí eni níi tèlé eni Lílé: Mo fowó di tèmi mú Ègbè: Orí eni níi tèlé eni Lílé: Mo fowó di tèmi mú Ègbè: Orí eni níi tèlé eni

Lílé: Mo fọwó di tèmi mú

Ègbè: Orí ẹni níí tèlé ẹni

Lílé: Mo fọwó di tèmi mú

Ègbè: Orí ẹni níí tèlé ẹni

Lílé: Mo fọwó di tèmi mú

Ègbè: Orí eni níí tèlé eni

Lílé: Mo fowó di tèmi mú Ègbè: Orí eni níi tèlé eni...

Lílé: Mo ríyìí

Mo ríjó

Ègbè: À hẹn

Mo ríjó

Lílé: Èyí eléyo o Ègbè: Oníjó ń jó o

Lílé: Oníjó gbajó wàyí

Yewere á gbòn ò

Ègbè: Ééééèèè

Yewere á gbộn ò

Lílé: Oníjó gbajó wàyí

Omo ajagbé ò

Ègbè: Ééèèè omo ajágbè ò **Lílé**: Oníjó gbajó wàyí

Omo ajagbé ò

Ègbè: Ééèèè omo ajágbè ò Lílé: Oníjó gbajó wàyí Omo ajagbé ò

Ègbè: Ééèèè omo ajágbè ò Lílé: Oníjó gbajó wàyí Yewere á gbòn ò

Ègbè: Éèèèèè

Yewere á gbòn ò Lílé: Oníjó gbajó wàyí

Omo ajágbè ò

Ègbè: Éèèèè omo ajágbè Lílé: Oníjó gbajó wàyí

Omo ajágbè ò

Ègbè: Éèèèèè

Omo ajágbè ò

Lílé: Oníjó gbajó wàyí

Omo ajágbè ò

Ègbè: Éèèèèè

Omo ajágbè ò

Lílé: Oníjó gbajó wàyí

Omo ajágbè ò

Ègbè: Éèèèèè

Omo ajágbè ò

Ìseré Keta 22/07/2018

Lílé: Agogo ń ró oooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Ègbè: Agogo ń ró ooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Lílé: Agogo ń ró oooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Ègbè: Agogo ń ró ooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Lílé: Agogo ń ró oooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Ègbè: Agogo ń ró ooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Lílé: Agogo ń ró oooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Ègbè: Agogo ń ró ooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Lílé: Agogo ń ró 0000

Àbí ò ró ooooo?

Kèngbè ooo

Ègbè: Agogo ń ró ooo

Àbí ò ró ooooo? Kèngbè ooo...

Lílé: Oba Olúwa má fiyà je wá Ègbè: Àwa náà ò ní í fiyà jera wa Lílé: Oba Olúwa má fiyà je wá Ègbè: Àwa náà ò ní í fiyà jera wa

Lílé: Awa naa o ni i fiya jera wa
Lílé: Oba Olúwa má fiyà je wá
Ègbè: Àwa náà ò ní í fiyà jera wa
Lílé: Oba Olórun máa fòṣìn ta wá óó
Ègbè: Àwa náà ò ní í fòsìn tara wa

Lílé: Oba Olórun máa fòsìn ta wá óó Ègbè: Àwa náà ò ní í fòsìn tara wa Lílé: Oba Olórun má fìyà je wá Ègbè: Àwa náà ò ní fiyà jera wa Lílé: Olórun má fòsìn ta wa

Ègbè: Àwa náà ò ní í fòṣìn tara wa Lílé: Olóṛun má fòṣìn ta wa

Ègbè: Àwa náà ò ní í fòṣìn tara wa **Lílé**: Olórun má fìyà je wá

Ègbè: Àwa náà ò ní í flyà jera wa Lílé: Olórun má flyà je wá

Ègbè: Àwa náà ò ní í fìyà jera wa **Lílé**: Olórun má fìyà je wá

Ègbè: Àwa náà ò ní í fìyà jera wa

Lílé: Èké gbowó Kò gbàwé mó

Ègbè: Òké méjìlá

Gèlè yayaaya

Lílé: Èké gbowó

Kò gbàwé mộ

Ègbè: Òké méjìlá

Gèlè yayaaya

Lílé: Èké gbowó

Kò gbàwé mộ

Ègbè: Öké méjilá

Gèlè yayaaya

Lílé: Èké gbowó

Kò gbàwé mộ Òké méillá

Ègbè: Öké méjìlá

Gèlè yayaaya

Lílé: Èké gbowó Kò gbàwé mộ

Ègbè:

Òké méjìlá

Gèlè yayaaya...

Lílé: Olórun máa fòsin ta wá Ègbè: Àwa náà ò ní í fòsin tara wa Lílé: Oníjó yìí o Ègbè: Elègbè o Lílé: Orin lónìí o Ègbè: Elègbè o

Lílé: Àwọn ẹgbệ mi ò gberin bí àtijộ mộ Ègbè: Àwọn èèyàn mi ò gberin bí àtijộ mộ Lílé: Àwọn ẹgbệ mi ò gberin bí àtijộ mộ Ègbè: Àwọn èèyàn mi ò gberin bí àtijộ mộ

Lílé: Òyanyáríya ò

Ájosakará yá dé ò

Ó ya déè!

Ègbè: Òyanyáríya ò

Ájosakará yá dé ò

Lílé: Ó ya déèèèè Ègbè: Óyanyáríya ò

Ájosakará yá dé ò

Lílé: Òyanyáríya ò

Ájosakará yá dé ò

Ó ya déè!

Ègbè: Qyanyáríya ò

Ájosakará yá dé ò

Lílé: Ó ya déèèèè Ègbè: Óyanyáríya ò

Ájosakará yá dé ò

Lílé: Àwá lóba o

Àwa lóba ni Lànlátè Àwa lomo Aréwonje

Ègbè: Àwá lóba

Àwá lóba ni Lànlátè Àwa laya Aréwonje

Lílé: Àwá lóba o

Àwa lóba ni Lànlátè Àwa lomo Aréwonje

Ègbè: Àwá lóba

Àwá lóba ni Lànlátè Àwa laya Aréwonje...

Lílé: Níbo e gbé Rólá Ègbè: Öla Ajómáwolé Lílé: Níbo e gbé Rólá Ègbè: Öla Ajómáwolé Lílé: Níbo e gbé Rólá Ègbè: Öla Ajómáwolé...

Lílé: Ma yá nde

Èròò jágbè òòò

Ohùn

obìnrin kan: Àwa ò mộ ọn nì ò

Lílé: Ma yá nde

Èròò jágbè òòò

Ègbè: Ma yá nde

Èròò jágbè òòò

Lílé: Ayéelé

Èròò jágbè òòò

Ègbè: Ma yá nde

Èròò jágbè òòò

Lílé: Ayéelé

Èròò jágbè òòò Ma yá nde

Ègbè: Ma yá nde

Èròò jágbè òòò

Lílé: Ayéelé

Èròò jágbè òòò

Ègbè: Onîjó

Èròò jágbè òòò

Ohùn kan: E sọ agbè é lè, èyí e jó tó...

APPENDIX V

Sample of *orin agbè/ṣàkàrá* II Ilé Atakóró, Ilùà (07/09/2018)

Lílé: Oníjó gbajó

Omele lówó re sakara ó

Ègbè: Oníjó gbajó

Omele lówó ajósákárá

Lílé: Oníjó gbajó

Omele lówó ajósakará

Lílé: Oníjó gbajó

Omele lówó re sakara ó

Ègbè: Oníjó gbajó

Omele lówó ajósákárá

Lílé: Èrò tó n lọ

Èrò tó ń bò o

E súré e wá womoore Tó wà lójú agbo wa

Ègbè: Èrò tó ń lọ

Èrò tó ń bò o

E súré e wa womoore Tó wà lójú agbo wa

Lílé: Èrò tó n lọ

Èrò tó ń bộ o

E súré e wá womoo re Tó wà lójú agbo wa

Ègbè: Èrò tó ń lọ

Èrò tó ń bộ o

E súré e wa womoore Tó wà lójú agbo wa

Lílé: Èrò tó n lọ

Èrò tó ń bò o

E súré e wá womoo re Tó wà lójú agbo wa

Ègbè: Èrò tó ń lọ

Èrò tó ń bộ o

E súré e wa womoore Tó wà lójú agbo wa...

Lílé: Aróbayò

Aláré Oba

Ègbè: Aróbayò

Aláré Oba làwa

Lílé: Arádéyò

Aláré Oba làwa

Ègbè: Arádéyò

Aláré Oba làwa

Lílé: Arádéyò

Aláré Oba làwa

Ègbè: Arádéyò

Aláré Oba làwa

Lílé: Arádéyò

Aláré oba

Ègbè: Arobayo

Aláré oba làwa...

Lílé: Àwá dé o

Omoore o E woléere E tò wá sí o

Ègbè: Àwa dé o

Omoore o E wolé e re E tò wá sí o

Lílé: Òfé dé o

Eyeere o E woléeré E fòfé sí o

Ègbè: Òfé dé o

Eyeere o E woléere E fòfé sí o

Lílé: Àwà la dé

Àjèjì ò wòlú Kónílè má mò o

Ègbè: Àwa la dé
Lílé: Àjèjì ò wòlú
Kónílè má mò o

Ègbè: Àwa la dé...
Lílé: Rírí dàrémo...

Ègbè: Örò yìí dàrérémọré
Lílé: Rírí dàrérémọ...
Ègbè: Örò yìí dàrérémọré
Lílé: Rírí dàbádámọ...
Ègbè: Örò yìí dàbádámọdá
Lílé: Rírí dàbádámọ...
Ègbè: Örò yìí dàbádámọdá

Lílé: Crọ yn dabadamọda
Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè o éè
Lâàlà n yọ lókè ó eè
Láálá n yọ lókè

Níbi a gbé ń sawo lọ

Ègbè: Lààlà n yọ lókè

Níbi a gbé ń sawo lọ

Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè o éè Ègbè: Lààlà n yọ lókè ó eè Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè o éè Ègbè: Lààlà n yọ lókè ó eè Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè o éè Ègbè: Lààlà n yọ lókè ó eè Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè o éè Ègbè: Lààlà n yọ lókè ó ee Lílé: Obe má bá wa lésè

Jé á kóre délé

Ègbè: Oba má be wá lesè

Jé á kóre délé

Lílé: Obe má bá wa lésè

Jé á kóre délé

Ègbè: Oba má be wá lesè

Jé á kóre délé

Lílé: Obe má bá wa lésè

Jé á kóre délé

Ègbè: Oba má be wá lesè

Jé á kóre délé...

Lílé: Àwa láláré ọmọ Ìlùà rè é
Ègbè: Àwa lènìyàn ọmọ Ìlùà ré ò
Lílé: Àwa láláré ọmọ Ìlùà rè é
Ègbè: Àwa lènìyàn ọmọ Ìlùà ré ò
Lílé: Àwa láláré ọmọ Ìlùà rè é
Ègbè: Àwa lènìyàn omo Ìlùà ré ò...

Lílé: Ejo é jègbàdo

Mo rewé mi já Ejò é jègbàdo Mo rewé mi já Ajá tí ó je líìlì o Enu rè ó sèjè o

Ègbè: Ejò é jègbàdo

Mo rewé mi já

Lílé: Yanbíolú ndeè Ègbè: Ogun tó lo Lílé; Yánbíolú ndeè Ègbè: Ogun tó lo Lílé; Yánbíolú ndeè Ègbè: Ogun tó lo Lílé: Olóbìírípobírí Ègbè: Òní la ó maláré Lílé: Olóbìírípobírí

Ègbè: Òní la ó maléré Lílé: Olóbìírípobírí Ègbè: Òní la ó maláré Lílé: Olóbìírípobírí Ègbè: Òní la ó maléré Lílé: Gbélé re gbélé re

Èṣù òdarà gbélé rẹ ò Máe bá wa ròde o

Ègbè: Gbélé rẹ gbélé rẹ

Èṣù òdarà gbélé rẹ ò Máe bá wa ròde o **Lílé:** Gbélé re gbélé re

Èşù òdarà gbélé re ò

Máe bá wa ròde o

Ègbè: Gbélé re gbélé re

Èṣù òdarà gbélé rẹ ò Máe bá wa ròde o...

Lílé: Ijó ìn bá jó lo jó Ègbè: Àrà ìn bá dá lo dá Lílé: Ijó ìn bá jó lo jó Ègbè: Àrà ìn bá dá lo dá Àrángbó: Bó o kán lápá

N ó wó ọ relé Bó o kan lệsệ Mo mòògùn rệ

Èyìn ệkùlé nìyàá rẹ wà Ni wón sọ pé olóore lọ

Ijó ìn bá jó lo jó Lílé: Ègbè: Àrà ìn bá dá lo dá Lílé: Ijó ìn bá jó lo jó Ègbè: Àrà ìn bá dá lo dá... Lílé: Ogbón ìn bá dá lo dá Ègbè: Àrà ìn bá dá lo dá Lílé: Ijó ìn bá jó lo jó Àrà ìn bá dá lo dá... Ègbè: Lílé: Ewúré je je je

Ó wolé

Ègbè: Je je je

Lílé: Àgùtàn jẹ jẹ jẹ

Ó wolé

Ègbè: Je je je

Ègbè: Àjèewálé belédè jé

Kộlòkòlò senu wúyệ Ta ló bá lọnà tó ò kí o

Lílé: Lélediye

Lílé: Lélediye

Ègbè: Orò lélediye so o

Lílé: Lélediye

Ègbè: Orò lélediye so o

Lílé: Lélediye

Ègbè: Òrò léledìye so o

Lílé: Lélediye

Ègbè: Orò lélediye so o

Lílé: Lélediye

Ègbè: Orò lélediye so o

Lílé: Lélediye

Ègbè: Örò léledìye so oLílé: Gbáríkogbárìko òÈgbè: Àlùgbárìko

Lílé: Àlùgbárìko Ègbè: Gbáríkogbáriko ò Lílé: Ewé Olúvava Ègbè: Èrò ojà yaya Lílé: Ewé Olúyaya Ègbè: Èrò ojà yaya Lílé: Ewé Olúferèjègè Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe e ròkè fe Lílé: Ewé Olúferèjègè Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe e ròkè fe Lílé: Ewé Olúferèjègè Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe e ròkè fe Lílé: Lálálá ń yọ lókè o éeè Ègbè: Láálá ń vo lókè o éeè

Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè

Níbi a gbé ń ṣawo lọ
Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè o éè
Lààlà n yọ lókè ó éè

Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè o éè Ègbè: Lààlà n yọ lókè ó éè Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè o éè Ègbè: Lààlà n yọ lókè ó éè Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè o éè Ègbè: Lààlà n yọ lókè ó éè Lílé: Mo ríyàwóò mi fírí Ègbè: Lègbé òsì mi ò Lílé: Mo ríyàwóò mi fírí

Lílé: Dókítà máa jé ò Gbogbo e lòògùn o

Ègbè: Àìsà máa jè ò

Gbogbo è lóògùn ò

Lílé: Ewé sísà máa jé ò

Gbogbo è lòógùn ò

Ègbè: Àisà máa jệ ò

Gbogbo è lóògùn ò

Lílé: Ewé sísà máa jé ò

Gbogbo è lòógùn ò

Ègbè: Àisà máa jệ ò

Gbogbo è lóògùn ò

Lílé: Ijó loròò Ègbè: Ijó lorò ilé

Lílé: Bí a bá bímọ lọ mò ón jó

Ègbè: Ijó lorò ilé

Lílé: Bí a bá bímọ lọ mộ ón jó

Ègbè: Ijó lorò ilé

Lílé: Bí a bá bímọ lọ mò ón jó

Ègbè: Ijó lorò ilé

Lílé: Wéré tí mo gbó ò

Mo se bójò ló ín kùù nì ò

Ègbè: Òjò kố o

Molágbè ló ń kù rìrì

Lílé: Wéré tí mo gbó ò

Mo se bójò ló ín kùù nì ò

Ègbè: Òjò kọ o

Molágbè ló ń kù rìrì

Lílé: Wéré tí mo gbó ò

Mo se bójò ló ín kùù nì ò

Ègbè: Òjò kọ́ o

Molágbè ló ń kù rìrì

Lílé: Biribiri bò wón lójú o

Ègbèrì le

Lílé: Biribiri bò wón lójú o

Ėgbèrì le

Ègbè: Biribiri bò wón lójú o

Ègbèrì le mò ò

Lílé: Biribiri bò wón lójú o

Ègbèrì le...

Ègbè: Biribiri bò wón lójú o

Ègbèrì le mò ò

Lîlé: Ó deléyo-èyo

Ėyo màrìwò ò

Ègbè: Èyò-èyọ

Èyọ màrìwò

Lílé: Ó deléyo-èyo

Èyọ màrìwò ò

Ègbè: Èyò-èyọ

Èyo màrìwò

Lílé: Bógàn bá yọ nígbó

Mo se bí í ta won yo

Ègbè: Èyò-èyo

Èyo màrìwò

Lílé: Egbé mi bá wọn

Yóó ta wón yọ

Ègbè: Èyò-èyọ

Èyọ màrìwò

Lílé: Ómìsà máa jé o

Gbogbo è lòògùn

Ègbè: Àìsà máa jé o

Gbogbo e lòògùn

Lílé: Ómìsà máa jé o

Gbogbo è lòògùn

Ègbè: Àìsà máa jé o

Gbogbo e lòògùn

Lílé: Ewé sísà máa jé o

Gbogbo è lòògùn

Ègbè: Àìsà máa jé o

Gbogbo e lòògùn

Lílé: Ewé sísà máa jé o

Gbogbo è lòògùn

Ègbè: Àìsà máa jé o

Gbogbo e lòògùn...

Lílé: Ewé ewé máa jè

Ògùngùn ni mo sà ò

Ègbè: Ewé ewé máa jè

Ògùngùn ni mo sà ò

Lílé: Ewé ewé máa jè

Ògùngùn ni mo sà ò

Ègbè: Ewé ewé máa jè

Ògùngùn ni mo sà ò

Lílé: Ewé ewé máa jè

Ògùngùn ni mo sà ò

Ègbè: Ewé ewé máa jè

Ògùngùn ni mo sà ò

Lílé: Ewé ewé máa jè

Ògùngùn ni mo sà ò

Ègbè: Ewé ewé máa jè

Ògùngùn ni mo sà ò...

Lílé: Ejò é jègbàdo

Ègbè:

Mo réèwé mi já Ejò é jègbàdo Mo réèwé mi já Ajá tí ó je líìlí o Enu rè ó sèjè o

Ejò é jègbàdo

Mo réèwé mi já

Lílé: Biribiri bò wón lójú o

Ògbèrì le...

Ègbè: Biribiri bò wón lójú o

Ògbệrì lẹ mò ò

Lílé: Ewé sísà máa jé o

Gbogbo è lòògùn ò

Ègbè: Àisá máa jé o

Gbogbo è lòògùn o

Lílé: Ewé sísà máa jé o

Gbogbo è lòògùn ò

Ègbè: Àìsá máa jé o

Gbogbo è lòògùn o

Lílé: Ewé sísà máa jé o

Gbogbo è lòògùn ò

Ègbè: Àìsá máa jé o

Gbogbo è lòògùn o

Lílé: Ewé sísà máa jé o

Gbogbo è lòògùn ò

Ègbè: Àìsá máa jé o

Gbogbo è lòògùn o

Lílé: Ewé sísà máa jé o

Gbogbo è lòògùn ò

Ègbè: Àìsá máa jé o

Gbogbo è lòògùn o

Lílé: Ewé Olúferejègè

Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe e ròkè fe Lílé: Ewé Olúferejègè Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe e ròkè fe Lílé: Ewé Olúferejègè Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe e ròkè fe Lílé: Ewé Olúferejègè Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe e ròkè fe Lílé: Ewé Olúferejègè Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe e ròkè fe Lílé: Olófín gbà wá o

Ka mà ferí sọlè ò

Ègbè: Òkè Ìlùà

Ká mà ferí solè ò

Lílé: Olófín gbà wá o Ka mà subú lulè ò

Ègbè: Òkè Ìlùà

Tiwá dowó re ò

Lílé: Òsóòsì gbà wá ò

Ká ma derí kodò

Ègbè: Òkè Ìlùà

Ó mà dowó re ò

Lílé: Olófín gbà wá o

Ka mà ferí solè ò

Ègbè: Òkè Ìlùà

Tiwá dowó re ò...

Lílé: A ó para wa láyò

Ègbè: Óléńlé

Lílé: A ó para wa láyò

Ègbè: Óléńlé

Lílé: A ó para wa láyò

Ègbè: Óléńlé

A ó fira wa léfè Lílé:

Ègbè: Óléńlé

Lílé: A ó para wa láyò

Ègbè: Óléńlé

Lílé: A ó tara wa lófà

Ègbè: Óléńlé Lílé: Bó bá dúdú

Mo pupa

Ègbè: Óléńlé

Lílé: A ó para wa láyò

Ègbè: Óléńlé

Lílé: A ó para wa láyò

Ègbè: Óléńlé

A ó para wa láyò Lílé:

Óléńlé Ègbè:

Lílé: A ó para wa láyò

Ègbè: Óléńlé

Lílé: A ó para wa láyò

Ègbè: Óléńlé

A ó para wa láyò Óléńlé Lílé:

Ègbè:

A ó para wa láyò Óléńlé Lílé:

Ègbè: Lílé:

Níbo nìyàwó lọ Ó roko pákí ni O fîlệkệ sí bệbệrệ-ìdí

Fenu fàlù yà
Gbogbo wọn: Yééèèèèèèè

APPENDIX VI

Sample of orin agbè/şàkàrá III Ààfin Oba Onímia (08/09/2018)

Lílé: Láálá ń yo lókè o éè Ègbè: Lààlà n yọ lókè o éè Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè o éè Ègbè: Lààlà n yọ lókè o éè Lílé: Láálá ń yo lókè o éè Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè o éè Ègbè: Lààlà n yọ lókè o éè Lílé: Láálá ń yo lókè

Níbi a gbé ń sawo lo

Ègbè: Lààlà n yo lókè

Níbi a gbé ń sawo lo

Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè o éè Ègbè: Láálá ń yo lókè o éè Lílé: Láálá ń yo lókè

Níbi a gbé ń sawo lo

Ègbè: Lààlà n yọ lókè

Níbi a gbé ń sawo lo

Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè

Níbi a gbé ń sawo lo

Ègbè: Lààlà n yo lókè

Níbi a gbé ń sawo lo

Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè o éè Láálá ń vo lókè o éè Ègbè: Lílé: Láálá ń yo lókè

Níbi a gbé ń sawo lo

Ègbè: Lààlà n yọ lókè

Níbi a gbé ń sawo lo

Lílé: Láálá ń yọ lókè

Níbi a gbé ń sawo lo

Ègbè: Lààlà n yo lókè

Níbi a gbé ń sawo lo

Lílé: Láálá ń yo lókè

Níbi a gbé ń sawo lo

Ègbè: Lààlà n yọ lókè

Níbi a gbé ń sawo lo

Amúnimòyìnbó ò Lílé:

Amúnimòyìnbó

Ègbè: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè mi ò

Amúnimòyìnbó

Lílé: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè mi ò

Amúnimòyìnbó

Ègbè: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè mi ò

Amúnimòyìnbó

Lílé: Aráà Mia la... Ègbè: Omo òn Mia là wa Lílé: Aráà Mia la... Ègbè: Omo òn Mia làwa Lílé: Aráà Mia la... Ègbè: Omo òn Mia là wa

Lílé: Aráà Mia la... Ègbè: Omo òn Mia làwa Lílé: Omo òn Mia là... Ègbè: Èròò Mía làwa Lílé: Omo òn Mia là... Ègbè: Èròò Mía làwa Lílé: Aráà Mia la...

Ègbè: Omo òn Mia là wa Lílé: Aráà Mia la...

Ègbè: Omo òn Mia làwa Lílé: Omo òn Mia là... Ègbè: Èròò Mía làwa... Lílé: Kèngbè mi

> Kèngbè mi ò Amúnimòyìnbó

Ègbè: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè mi ò Amúnimòyìnbó

Lílé: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè mi ò

Amúnimòyìnbó

Ègbè: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè mi ò Amúnimòyìnbó

Lílé: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè mi ò Amúnimòyìnbó

Kèngbè mi

Ègbè: Kèngbè mi ò

Amúnimòyìnbó...

Lílé: Báwá ti ń se láàfin rè é ò Ègbè: Bàà ti n se láafin rè o Lílé: Báwá ti ń se láàfin rè é ò Ègbè: Bàà ti n se láafin rè o Lílé: Báwá ti ń se láàfin rè é ò Ègbè: Bàà ti n se láafin rè o Lílé: Báwá ti ń se láàfin rè é ò Ègbè: Bàà ti n se láafin rè o

Lílé: Báwá ti ń se láàfin rè é ò Ègbè: Bàà ti n se láafin rè o Lílé: Báwá ti ń se láàfin rè é ò Ègbè: Bàà ti n se láafin rè o...

Lílé: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè mi ò Amúnim Òyo-Ilé **Ègbè:** Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè ni ò

Amúnim Òyo-Ilé

Lílé: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè mi ò

Amúnim Òyo-Ilé

Ègbè: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè ni ò

Amúnim Òyo-Ilé

Lílé: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè mi ò

Amúnim Òyo-Ilé

Ègbè: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè ni ò

AmúnimÒyo-Ilé

Lílé: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè mi ò

AmúnimÒyo-Ilé

Ègbè: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè ni ò

Amúnim Òyo-Ilé

Lílé: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè mi ò

Amúnim Òyo-Ilé

Ègbè: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè ni ò

AmúnimÒyo-Ilé...

Lílé: Àwa laláré ó

Laláré oba òòò

Àwa làbệrà

Aláré oba là á șe

Ègbè: Àwa labèrè

Aláré oba là á se

Lílé: Àwa làbèrà

Aláré oba là á se

Ègbè: Àwa labèrè

Aláré oba là á se

Lílé: Là á méta

Ègbè:Kó lè ró bí agogoLílé:Táyélolú là á métà òÈgbè:Kò lè ró bí agogoLílé:Táyélolú là á métà òÈgbè:Kò le ró bí agogo

Lílé: Ko le ro bi agogo Lílé: Eléjìré là á métà ò Kò le ró bí agogo

Lílé: Là á méta

Ègbè:Kó lè ró bí agogoLílé:Táyélolú là á métà òÈgbè:Kò le ró bí agogoLílé:Eléjìré là á métà ò

Ègbè: Kò le ró bí agogo

Lílé: E bá n gbé kèngbè mi rÒyó

Ègbè: Akérémoba

Lílé: E bá n gbé kèngbè mi rÒyó

Ègbè: Akérémoba

Lílé: Ma gbé kèngbè mi rÒyó

Ègbè: Akérémoba

Lílé: N ó gbé kèngbè mi rÒyó

Ègbè: Akérémoba Lílé: Kèngbè mi Kèngbè mi ò

Ègbè: AmúnimÒyó-Ilé

Lílé: Kèngbè mi

Kèngbè mi ò Ègbè: AmúnimÒyó-Ilé Lílé: Ewé Oluferejègè Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe ròke fe Lílé: Ewé Oluferejègè Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe ròke fe Lílé: Ewé Oluferejègè Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe ròke fe Lílé: Ewé Oluferejègè

Lílé: Ewé Oluferejègè
Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe ròke fe
Lílé: Ewé Oluferejègè
Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe ròke fe
Lílé: Wére tí mo gbó

Mo se bójò ló ń kù o o

Ègbè: Òjò kọ o

Alégbè ló ń pariwo

Lílé: Omo on Mia là Ègbè: Èrò Mia làwa Lílé: Omo on Mia là Ègbè: Èrò Mia làwa Lílé: Omo on Mia là Ègbè: Èrò Mia làwa Lílé: Oba ò pé a má şa Ègbè: Oba ò pé a má saré Lílé: Ènìyàn gbóngbó ken Ènìyàn gbóngbókengbó Ègbè: Lílé: Ènìyàn gbóngbó ken Ègbè: Ènìyàn gbóngbókengbó

Lílé: Omo on Ìmia la Ègbè: Èrò Mía làwa Lílé: Omo on Ìmia la Ègbè: Èrò Mía làwa Lílé: Bínré lolórí aládé

Ìlèkè oba ní ń be lórùn re ò

Akínfémi Oba ìlú Ìmia

Ègbè: Bínré lolóri aládé

Ìlèkè oba ní ń be lórùn re ò

Akínfémi Oba ìlú Ìmia

Lílé: Olóbìrípobírí Ègbè: Òní la ó maláré Lílé: Olóbìrípobírí Ègbè: Òní la ó maláré Lílé: Olóbìrípobírí Ègbè: Òní la ó maláré Lílé: Olóbìrípobírí Ègbè: Òní la ó maláré Lílé: Olóbìrípobírí Ègbè: Òní la ó maláré Lílé: Olóbìrípobírí Ègbè: Òní la ó maláré... Lílé: Ewé olúferègègè Ègbè: Èfúùfù gbe ròkè fe Lílé: Omele máa ró sàkàrá

Egungun yen kesè baso

Ègbè: Omele máa ró ṣàkàrá

Egungun yen kesè baso

Lílé: Omele máa ró ṣàkàrá

Egungun yen kesè başo

Ègbè: Omele máa ró sàkàrá

Egungun yen kesè baso

Lílé: Omele máa ró şàkàrá

Egungun ló kẹsệ basọ

Ègbè: Omele máa ró ṣàkàrá

Egungun ló kesè baso

Lílé: Omele máa ró sàkàrá

Egungun ló kẹsệ basọ

Ègbè: Omele máa ró şàkàrá

Egungun ló kesè başo

Lílé: Şèkèrè

Àgogo ń lọ

Sèkèrè

Ègbè: Şèkèrè

Àgogo ń lọ

Sèkèrè

Lílé: Sèkèrè

Àgogo ń lọ

Sèkèrè

Ègbè: Şèkèrè

Àgogo ń lọ

Sèkèrè...

Lílé: Ìyàwó agbè ò

Ègbè: Bó se dára ló mò ón jó

Lílé: Ìyàwó agbè ò

Ègbè: Bó se dára ló mộ ón jó

Lílé: Ìyàwó agbè ò

Ègbè: Bó se dára ló mộ ón jó...

Lílé: Àsoò le tàkìtì ò

Ègbè:Ijó ló mộ ón jóLílé:À soò le tà kì tì òÈgbè:Ijó ló mò ón jóLílé:Á soò le tà kì tì òÈgbè:Ijó ló mò ón jó...Lílé:Ó yá Ì yà wó agbè òÈgbè:Bó se dára ló mò ón jó

Lílé: Ìyàwó agbè ò

Ègbè:Bó se dára lộ mộ ón jóLílé:Ewé OlúferejègèÈgbè:Èfúùfù gbe ròke fe

Lílé: Là á méta

Ègbè: Kó lè ró bí agogo Eléjìré là á méta ò Lílé: Ègbè: Kó lè ró bí agogo Lílé: Eléjìré là á méta Ègbè: Kó lè ró bi agogo Eléjìré là á méta Lílé: Ègbè: Kó lè ró bí agogo Lílé: Bàba Bílí là á méta ò Ègbè: Kó le ró bí agogo Lílé: Eléjìré là á bí méta o Ègbè: Kó lè ró bí agogo

Lílé: E bá n gbé kengbe mi rÒyó

Ègbè: Akérémoba

Lílé: E jé n gbé kèngbè mi rÈkó o

Ègbè: Akérémoba

Lílé: E jé n gbé kèngbè mi rÒyó

Ègbè: Akérémoba

Lílé: E jé n gbé kèngbè mi rÈkó

Ègbè: Akérémoba **Lílé:** Kèngbè mi Kèngbé mi ò

Ègbè: Amúnisòyìnbó **Lílé:** Kèngbè mi

Kèngbé mi ò

Ègbè: Amúnisòyìnbó

Lílé: E jé n gbé kèngbè mi rÒyó

Ègbè: Akérémoba

Lílé: E jé n gbé kèngbè mi rÒyó

Ègbè: Akérémoba... Lílé: Kèngbè mi Kèngbé mi ò

Ègbè: Amúnimòyìnbó **Lílé:** Kèngbè mi

Kèngbé mi ò

Ègbè: Amúnimòyìnbó Líl**é:** Bínre lolórí aládé

Ìlèkè oba ní ń be lórùn re ò Akínfémi Oba ìlú Ìmia **Ègbè:** Bínre lolórí aládé

Ìlèkè oba ní ń be lórùn re ò Akínfémi Oba ìlú Ìmia...

Lílé: Akínfémi, Akínfémi ò

Ègbè: Akínfémi ò

Lílé: Akínfémi, Akínfémi ò

Ègbè:Akínfémi òLílé:Ìlúfémilóyè lọbaÈgbè:Akínfémi ò

Lílé: Akínfémi, Akínfémi ò

Ègbè: Akínfémi ò

Lílé: Omo on Míá lawá
Ègbè: Èròò Míá lawá..

Lílé: Oba o pá á má ṣa
Ègbè: Oba o pé á má ṣaré...

Lílé: Énìyàn gbóngbó kẹn
Ègbè: Ènìyàn gbóngbókẹngbó...

Lílé: Omo eléyìí fò lókèlókè ò

Ègbè: Fò láálá

Lílé: Omo eléyìí fò lókèlókè ò

Ègbè: Fò láálá

Lílé: Omo eléyìí fò lókèlókè ò

Ègbè: Fò láálá

Lílé: Omo eléyìí fò lókèlókè ò

Ègbè: Fò láálá...

Lílé: À ń báléré şaré

Wón mà ń bè wá lówè o

Ántórí ara wa Ara wá ò

Ègbè:Ántórí ara waLílé:Ara wá òÈgbè:Ántórí ara waLílé:Ara wá ò

Ègbè: Ántórí ara wa... **Lílé**: Á n báléré şaré

Wón mà ń bè wá lówè o

Ántórí ara wa Ara wá ò

Ègbè: Ántórí ara wa... **Lílé:** Kookó òde

Èrùwà òde Èyin olóde ò È bùn wá lóde ò Ká wa ó ríbi jó

Ègbè: Kookó òde

Ērùwà òde Èyin olóde ò E bùn wá lóde ò Ká wa ó ríbi jó...

Lílé: Akínfémii baba wa ló lagbè

Ègbè: Tá a fi ń jó

Lílé: Akínfémii baba wa ló lagbè

Ègbè: Tá a fi ń jó...

Lílé: Kábíèsí baba wa ló lagbè

Ègbè: Tá a fi ń jó

Lílé: Akínfémi baba wa ló lagbè

Ègbè: Tá a fi ń jó

Lílé: Akínfémi baba wa ló lagbè

Ègbè: Tá a fi ń jó...

Lílé: Omele máa jó şàkàrá

Egúngún yén kesè baso

Ègbè: Omele máa jó ṣàkàrá

Egúngún yén kesè baso

Ègbè: Omele máa jó sàkàrá

Egúngún yén kesè başo

Lílé: Ìyàwó agbè ò

Ègbè: Bó şe dára ló mộ ón jó
Lílé: Ó yá Ìyàwó agbè ò
Ègbè: Bó şe dára ló mộ ón jó...
Lílé: Ma gbe kèngbè mi rÒyó

Ègbè: Akèrèmoba

Lílé: N ó gbé kèngbè mi rÒyó

Ègbè: Akèrèmoba Lílé: Kèngbè mi Kèngbè mi ò

Ègbè: Amúnimòyìnbó

Lílé: Wón ń gbé kèngbè mi rÒyó

Ègbè: Ákérémoba

Lílé: Wón ń gbé kèngbe mi rÒyó o

Lílé: Kèngbè mi Kèngbè mi ò

Ègbè: Amúnimòyìnbó

Lílé: Omele máa ró sàkàrá

Egúngún ló kẹsệ baṣọ

Ègbè: Omele máa ró sàkàrá

Egúngún ló kẹsệ basọ

Lílé: Omele máa ró sàkàrá

Egúngún ló kesè baso

Ègbè: Omele máa ró şàkàrá

Egúngún ló kẹsệ baṣọ...

Ènìyèn gbóngbókengbó

Lílé: Omo òn Míá lawá Ègbè: Èrò Míá lawá... Lílé: Oba ò pé a má șe Ègbè: Oba ò pé a má seré Lílé: Oba ò pé a má se Ègbè: Oba ò pé a má seré Lílé: Ènìyèn gbóngbó ken Ègbè: Ènìyèn gbóngbókengbó Ènìyèn gbóngbó ken Lílé:

Ègbè:

Lílé: Kábíyèsí baba àwa ló lagbè

Ègbè: Tá a fi ń jó

Lílé: Òjéwuyì baba àwa ló lagbè

Ègbè: Tá a fi ń jó

Lílé: Akínfémi baba àwa ló lagbè

Ègbè: Tá a fi ń jó

Lílé: Kábíyèsí baba àwa ló lagbè

Ègbè: Tá a fi ń jó.. **Lílé:** Baba ó fèwù tọrẹ

Baba o fi láwàní tọre

Ègbè: Baba ó fèwù tọrẹ
Lílé: Baba ó fi láwàní tọrẹ
Ègbè: Baba ó fèwù tọrẹ
Lílé: Baba ó fi láwàní tọrẹ
Ègbè: Baba ó fèwù tọrẹ
Lílé: Yóó fi láwàní tọrẹ
Lílé: Yóó fi láwàní tọrẹ
Baba ó fèwù tọrẹ

Lílé: Baba ó fi láwàní tọrẹ
Ègbè: Oba ó fèwù tọrẹ

Lílé: Baba ó fi láwàní tọrẹ
Ègbè: Baba ó fèwù tọrẹ
Lílé: Baba ó fi láwàní tọrẹ
Ègbè: Baba ó fèwù tọrẹ
Lílé: Èro tó ń roko

Èrò tó ń rodò Èro tó ń roko Èrò tó ń rodò

E súré e wá womo wa

Tó wà lójú agbo

Ègbè: Èro tó ń roko

Èrò tó ń rodò Èro tó ń roko Èrò tó ń rodò

E súré e wá womo wa

Tó wà lójú agbo

Lílé: Èro tó ń roko

Èrò tó ń rodò Èro tó ń roko Èrò tó ń rodò

E súré e wá womo wa

Tó wà lójú agbo

Ègbè: Èro tó ń roko

Èrò tó ń rodò Èro tó ń roko Èrò tó ń rodò

E súré e wá womo wa

Tó wà lójú agbo

Lílé: Àwa ń lọ

Ó dìgbà ó se

Ká má fikú yara wa

Ègbè:

Ká má fàrùn yara wa Àwa ń lọ Ó dìgbà ó ṣe Ká má fikú yara wa Ká má fàrùn yara wa...

APPENDIX VII ĘKA-ỆKỘ ÌMỘ ỆDÁ-ÈDÈ ÀTI ÈDÈ ILỆ ADÚLÁWỘ YUNIFÁSITÌ ÌBÀDÀN ÌBÀDÀN

ÀTÒJQ ÌBÉÈRÈ

ÌWÚLÒ ÀTI BÓYÁ ORIN KETE LE PARUN TÀBÍ KÒ LE PARUN

Olùdáhùn ìbéèrè mi òwón,

Orúkọ mi ni Luqman Abísólá KÍARÍBÈÉ, mo jệ akékòộ ìmò-ìjìnnlệ òyè Ph.D ní Eka-Èkộ Ìmò Èdá-Èdè àti Èdè IIệ Adúláwò, Yunifásítì Ìbàdàn. Lítíréṣò Yorùbá (ewì alohùn) ni ìwádìí mi jẹ mọ. Orin kete ní àárín àwọn ènìyàn Ìbàràpá àti Òke Ògùn ni mò ń ṣe ìwádìí lé lórí. Àfojúsùn àtòjọ ìbéèrè yìí ni láti béèrè nípa bí orin kete ṣe wúlò fún dídékun ìwà ìbàjé ní àwùjọ àti bóyá ó le parun tàbí kò le parun. Mò ń lo àkókò yìí láti rọ yín pé kí ẹ ràn mí lọwó nínú iṣé ìwádìí yìí nípa bíbá mi dáhùn àwọn ìbéèrè tí a kọ sí ìsàlè yìí dáradára bí ó ti tọ. E sa àmì yìí √ sí ibi tí ó yẹ, kí ẹ sì ṣàlàyé kíkún sí àwọn ibi tí a pèsè sílè fún àlàyé. Bí àyè tí a fi sílè kò bá tó, ẹ lè kọ sí èyìn ìwé yìí síwájú sí i. Ṣùgbọn, kí ẹ kọ **ìpín** àti **nọńbà** ìbéèrè tí è ń dáhùn síbè kí ó hàn ketekete. E ṣé púpò.

ÌPÍN A: ÌRÒYÌN AJEMÁKÓPA ÀTI AJEMÁWÙJO AKÓPA

 $\not E$ jòwó yan ìdáhùn tó bá tònà nípa kíkọ àmì ($\sqrt{\ }$) sí inú àwọn àkámó tí a pèsè.

1.	Qkùnrin ni yín tàbí O	bìnrin	?	A. Ok	ùnrin ()		B. Obìr	nrin ())
2.	Kíni ọjó orí yín?	A.	20-39	()	B. 40-59	()	D. 60-7	9	E.
	80- sí òkè								
3.	Èsìn wo ni è ń sìn?	A. Èsì	n àbálá	yé () B.	Ìsílámù () D.	Kìrístén	ì ()	
	E. Òmíràn (è sọ ní pà	ıtó)							
4.	Ìpèle èkó wo ni e kék	ộộ đế ?	A. Ilé è	kó alák	òóbèrè ()	B. Ile	é èkó sék	kọ́ńdìrì	() D.
	Ilé ệkộ gíga () E. Òm	íràn (è	sọ ní pà	ıtó)					
5.	Işé wo ni è ń şe?	Iṣé				•••••			
6.	Qmọ ìlú wo ni yín?								
7.	Ìlú wo ni è ń gbé?								
8.	E jówó, ó ti tó odún n	nélòó tí	ẹ ti ń g	bé ìlú n	áà? A. 20-	39 () B. 40-5	59()	
	D. 60-79 () E. 80- sí	òkè ()							
9.	Ìlú wo ni e ti	gbé	rí yà	tò sí	ìlú tí	è 1	ń gbé	lówó	lówó?
10.	. Odún mélòó ni e fi gb	é ibè?	A. 1-20	() B. 2	21-40 () Г) . 41	-60()		
	E. 81- sí òkè ()								

ÌPÍN B: ÌRÍRÍ OLÙDÁHÙN NÍPA ORIN KETE

Nínú ìpín yìí, ẹ yan ìdáhùn tó tọnà jùlọ sí ìbéèrè tí a bi yín. A fi àyè gba àlàyé sókí fún ìbéèrè tí ó nílò àlàyé. Fún àwọn ìbéèrè tí kò nílò àlàyé, ẹ yan "Béè ni" tàbí "Béè kộ" nípa sísa àmì $\sqrt{}$ sí iwájú ìdáhùn tí ó tọnà jùlọ.

12. Báw			ni							ní	•		
 13. Njé e						A. I							
14. Bí			_			, níl			ė	ti	wò	ó	rí?
 15. Njé e										В. В	éè kó	()
			-			níbo			ti	kópa	ı ní	'nú	rệ?
 7. Njé ì ()						í àwùjọ			Béè n	ni ()	В.	Béè	kó
18. Bí	ó	bá	ń	wáy	yé,	ìgbà	wo	ni	ó	Wa	áyé	gb	èyìn?
20. Bí ó i. ii. iii.							•••••			•••••		•••••	
iv.				•••••	•••••		•••••	•••••	•••••	•••••	•••••	•••••	
v. 1. Njé ì						 hwilio v						•••••	•••••
2. Bí kờ				-		iwuje y	111. 71.	. Бес 1	.11	Б. Б	ÇÇ KÇ		
vi.										•••••			
vii.													
viii.	•••			•••••			•••••			•••••			
ix.	•••		•••••				•••••						•••••
X													

ÌPÍN D: ÌWÚLÒ ORIN KETE FÚN DÍDỆKUN ÌWÀ ÌBÀJỆ ÀWÙJỌ

Nínú ìpín yìí, e yan ìdáhùn tó tọnà jùlọ sí ìbéèrè tí a bi yín. A fi àyè gba àlàyé sókí fún ìbéèrè tí ó nílò àlàyé. Fún àwọn ìbéèrè tí kò nílò àlàyé, e yan "Béè ni" tàbí "Béè kó" nípa sísa àmì $\sqrt{}$ sí iwájú ìdáhùn tí ó tọnà jùlọ.

	g.,
23. Njé or	rin kete wúlò fún dídékun ìwà ìbàjé ní àwùjo? A. Béè ni () B. Béè kó ()
24. Njé or	rin kete wúlò fún dídékun ìwà ìbàjé àwùjọ láyé àtijó? A. Béè ni () B. Béè
kộ (
25. Bí ó b dékun xi.	á jé béè ni, àpeere àwon ìwà ìbàjé àwùjo wo ni e mò tí a lo orin kete láti?
xii.	
xiii.	
xiv.	
XV.	
26. Njé or	rin kete wúlò fún dídékun ìwà ìbàjé àwùjo lóde òní? A. Béè-ni ()
B. Bé	è-kọ ()
27. Bí ó b	á jé béè ni, àpeere àwon ìwà ìbàjé àwùjo wo ni e mò tí a le lo orin kete láti
dékun	lóde òní?
xvi.	
xvii.	
28. Nínú	àwọn ìwà ìbàjé tí e dárúkọ lókè, èwo ni a ti lo orin kete láti dékun rí lóde
òní?	
xviii.	
xix.	
XX.	
xxi.	
xxii.	
29. Orin k	tete le kú torí òlàjú òde-òní tó ti gbòde? A. Béè ni () B. Béè kọ ()
30. Kí ori	n kete má baà kú, a nílò láti ṣe àwọn ohun wọ̀nyí:
xxiii.	
xxiv.	
XXV.	
xxvi.	
xxvii.	

APPENDIX XIII

ĘKA-ĘKÓ ÌMÒ ĘDÁ-ÈDÈ ÀTI ÈDÈ ILỆ ADÚLÁWÒ YUNIFÁSITÌ ÌBÀDÀN ÌBÀDÀN

ÀTÒJỌ ÌBÉÈRÈ

ÌWÚLÒ ÀTI BÓYÁ ORIN AGBÈ LE PARUN TÀBÍ KÒ LE PARUN

Olùdáhùn ìbéèrè mi òwón,

Orúkọ mi ni Luqman Abísólá KÍARÍBÈÉ, mo jệ akékòộ ìmò-ìjìnnlệ òyè Ph.D ní Eka-Èkộ Ìmò Èdá-Èdè àti Èdè IIè Adúláwò, Yunifásítì Ìbàdàn. Lítíréṣò Yorùbá (ewì alohùn) ni ìwádìí mi jẹ mọ. Orin agbè ní àárín àwọn ènìyàn Ìbàràpá àti Òke Ògùn ni mò ń ṣe ìwádìí lé lórí. Àfojúsùn àtòjọ ìbéèrè yìí ni láti béèrè nípa bí orin agbè ṣe wúlò fún dídékun ìwà ìbàjé ní àwùjọ àti bóyá ó le parun tàbí kò le parun. Mò ń lo àkókò yìí láti rọ yín pé kí ẹ ràn mí lọwọ nínú iṣé ìwádìí yìí nípa bíbá mi dáhùn àwọn ìbéèrè tí a kọ sí ìsàlè yìí dáradára bí ó ti tọ. E sa àmì yìí √ sí ibi tí ó yẹ, kí ẹ sì ṣàlàyé kíkún sí àwọn ibi tí a pèsè sílè fún àlàyé. Bí àyè tí a fi sílè kò bá tó, ẹ lè kọ sí èyìn ìwé yìí síwájú sí i. Ṣùgbọn, kí ẹ kọ **ìpín** àti **nọṅbà** ìbéèrè tí è ń dáhùn síbè kí ó hàn ketekete. E ṣé púpò.

ÌPÍN A: ÌRÒYÌN AJEMÁKÓPA ÀTI AJEMÁWÙJQ AKÓPA

E jòwó yan ìdáhùn tó bá tònà nípa kíkọ àmì $()$ sí inú àwọn àkámó tí a pèsè	Ė	jòwó	yan	ìdáhùn	tó bá	tònà	nípa	kíko	àmì	(√) sí	inú	àwon	àkámó	tí a	pèsè
-----------------------------------------------------------------------------	---	------	-----	--------	-------	------	------	------	-----	----	------	-----	------	-------	------	------

1.	Okunrın nı yın tabi O	binrin	?	A. Qkı	unrin ()	Ė	3. Obin	rın ()
2.	Kíni ọjó orí yín?	A.	20-39	()	B. 40-59 () [) . 60-7	9
	E. 80- sí òkè ()							
3.	Èsìn wo ni è ń sìn?	A. Èsì	n àbálá	yé () B.	Ìsílámù ()	D. K	ìrísténì	i ()
	E. Òmíràn (è sọ ní pà	ıtó)						
4.	Ìpèle èkó wo ni e kék	òó dé ?	A. Ilé é	kó alák	òóbèrè () B	. Ilé è	kó sék	cọndìrì () D.
	Ilé ệkộ gíga () E. Òm	íràn (è	sọ ní pà	àtó)				
5.	Işé wo ni è ń şe?	Iṣé						
6.	Qmọ ìlú wo ni yín?							
7.	Ìlú wo ni è ń gbé?							
8.	E jówó, ó ti tó odún n	nélòó tí	ẹ ti ń g	bé ìlú na	áà? A. 20-39	9()1	B. 40-5	59 () D. 60-
	79 () E. 80- sí òkè ()						
9.	Ìlú wo ni e ti	gbé	rí yà	ntò sí	ìlú tí è	ń	gbé	lówólówó?
				•••				
10.	Odún mélòó ni e fi gb	eé ibè?	A. 1-20	() B. 2	21-40 () D.	41-6	0()	
	E. 81- sí òkè ()							

ÌPÍN B: ÌRÍRÍ OLÙDÁHÙN NÍPA ORIN AGBÈ

Nínú ìpín yìí, ẹ yan ìdáhùn tó tọnà jùlọ sí ìbéèrè tí a bi yín. A fi àyè gba àlàyé sókí fún ìbéèrè tí ó nílò àlàyé. Fún àwọn ìbéèrè tí kò nílò àlàyé, ẹ yan "Béè ni" tàbí "Béè kó" nípa sísa àmì $\sqrt{}$ sí iwájú ìdáhùn tí ó tọnà jùlọ.

11. Njé e	ti gbó ní _l	oa orin a	gbè rí? A.	Béè ni ()	B. Bé	éè kó ()	
12. Báwo	1	ni	ė	șe		gbó	nípa	rè?
_								
13. Nje e	ti wòran		Č			, ,	B. Béè l	, ,
	ó bá						ti wò	ó rí?
			orin agbè				B. Béè l	κό ()
16. Bí	ó bá	ję́ l	péè ni,	níbo	ni	ę ti	kópa	nínú rè?
			sì ń wávé			7 A Réè	ni () R	Béè kó ()
_		_	-	_	-		wáyé	
18. Bí			•	C		III C	o waye	gbèyìn?
19. Njệ ìṣ	eré orin a	agbè le p	arun ní àw	vùjọ yín?	A. Béé	èni ()	B. Béè l	κό ()
20. Bí ó t	oá le paru	n, kí ni ó	le fà á?					
i.								
ii.								
iii.								
21. Nié is	èré orin a	agbè kò l	e parun ní	àwùio v	ín? A.	Béè-ni	B. Béè-l	kó
22. Bí kò		•	-			• •	•	•
	-							
iv.	•••••			•••••	,	••••••		••••••
v.	•••••			•••••		•••••	•••••	
vi.	•••••					•••••		
vii.	•••••			•••••		•••••	•••••	
viii.								

ÌPÍN D: ÌWÚLÒ ORIN AGBÈ FÚN DÍDỆKUN ÌWÀ ÌBÀJỆ ÀWÙJQNínú ìpín yìí, e yan ìdáhùn tó tònà jùlọ sí ìbéèrè tí a bi yín. A fi àyè gba àlàyé ṣókí fún ìbéèrè tí ó nílò àlàyé. Fún àwọn ìbéèrè tí kò nílò àlàyé, e yan "Béè ni" tàbí "Béè kó" nípa sísa àmì √ sí iwájú ìdáhùn tí ó tònà jùlọ.

iju idaliuli	ti o tona juio.
23. Njé or	in agbè wúlò fún dídékun ìwà ìbàjé ní àwùjo? A. Béè ni ()
B. Bé	è kó ()
24. Njé or	in agbè wúlò fún dídékun ìwà ìbàjé àwùjọ láyé àtijó? A. Béè ni ()
B. Bé	è kó ()
25. Bí ó b dékun ix.	á jé béè ni, àpeere àwon ìwà ìbàjé àwùjo wo ni e mò tí a lo orin agbè láti ?
X.	
xi.	
xii.	
xiii.	
26. Njé or	rin agbè wúlò fún dídékun ìwà ìbàjé àwùjo lóde òní? A. Béè-ni ()
B. Bé	è-kọ ()
27. Bí ó b	á jé béè ni, àpeere àwon ìwà ìbàjé àwùjo wo ni e mò tí a le lo orin agbè lát
dékun	lóde òní?
xiv.	
XV.	
xvi.	
xvii.	
xviii.	
28. Nínú a	àwọn ìwà ìbàjệ tí ẹ dárúkọ lókè, èwo ni a ti lo orin agbè láti dẹ́kun rí lóde
òní?	
xix.	
XX.	
xxi.	
xxii.	
xxiii.	
29. Orin a	gbè le kú torí òlàjú òde-òní tó ti gbòde? A. Béè ni () B. Béè ko ()
30. Kí ori	n agbè má baà kú, a nílò láti se àwọn ohun wọnyí:

XX1V.	
XXV.	
xxvi.	
xxvii.	
xxviii	

APPENDIX IX

DEPARTMENT OF LINGUISTICS AND AFRICAN LANGUAGES UNIVERSITY OF ÌBÀDÀN

QUESTIONNAIRE

THE RELEVANCE AND SUSTAINABILITY OF *ORIN KETE* My dear respondents,

My name is Luqman Abísólá KÍARÍBÈÉ, I am a Ph.D student of Department of Linguistics and African Languages, University of Ìbàdàn. My research is based on Yorùbá Literature (oral poetry). I am researching *orin kete* among the people of Ìbàràpá and Òke Ògùn. The focus of the study is to ask about the relevance of *orin kete* in curbing anti-social behaviours in society. Am using this period to plead with you to help me in this study by providing answers to the questions listed below properly. Write this sign √ to the appropriate place and supply detailed explanations to fill the spaces provided for it. If the space provided is not enough, you can further write at the back of this questionnaire. However, you should write along, the **section** and the **number** of the question clearly. Thank you.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Please select the right option by writing the sign ($\sqrt{}$) in the provided bracket.

1.	Male or female?	A. Ma	le ()	B. Female ()			
2.	What is your age?	A.	20-39 ()	B. 40-59 ()	C. 60-79 ()		
	D. 80- sí òkè						
3.	What is your religion	? A. Af	rican Tradition	al Religion ()	B. Islam ()		
	C. Christianity ()						
	D. Others (say exact)	y)					
4.	What is your level of	educati	on/educational	qualification?	A. Primary School ()		
	B. Secondary Scho	ol ()	C. Tertiary	Institution () D. Others (say		
	exactly)						
5.	What is your occupat	ion?			occupation		
6.	You are a native of which town?						
7.	Where is your of resid	dence?					
8.	How many years have	e you b	een living/stayi	ng in the town?	? A. 20-39 ()		
	B. 40-59 () C. 60-79	() D.	80- and above	()			
9.	Which town are livin	o in cur	rently?				

	10.		_	nd above	· ·	en nving t	here? A. 1-2	U() B. 21	-40 () C	. 41-00
SE	CT	ION I	B: EXI	PERIEN	CE OF T	THE RESI	PONDENTS	S ABOUT	ORIN KI	E TE
In	this	sectio	n, tick	the corre	ct answe	r to the que	estion asked.	A space is	provided	for the
qu	estic	ons tha	at need	explanati	ons. For	the questic	ons that do no	ot need exp	lanations,	choose
"Y	es"	or "N	o" by v	vriting th	e sign √a	at the front	of the most	appropriat	e option.	
	11.	Have	you h	eard abou	ıt <i>orin ke</i>	te before?	A. Yes ()	В.	No ()	
	12.	How		did		you	hear		out	it?
	13.						xete before?			
	14.	If		is			did	•	watch	
	15.	. Have					ce of <i>orin kei</i>			
	16.	If	it	is s	so, w	here	did you	perfor	m in	it?
	17. 18.	B. N	fo ()	is	so	when	ccurring in yo	did	it	occur?
	19.						tinue to exis			
		A. Y	es ()	B. No	()					
	20.	If it c	an disc	continue	existence	, what can	be the cause	??		
		i.							•••••	•••••
		ii.	•••••		•••••		•••••	•••••	•••••	•••••
		iii.	•••••	•••••	•••••	••••••			•••••	•••••
		iv.	•••••							•••••
		v.	•••••		•••••				•••••	•••••
	21.	Wou	ld the p	performa	nce of ori	<i>in kete</i> con	tinue to exis	t in your co	ommunity	?
		A. Y	es ()	B. No	()					
	22.	If it v	would o	continue	to exist, v	what can can	ause it?			
		vi.	•••••		•••••					•••••
		vii								

viii.	
ix.	
х.	
SECTION C	: THE RELEVANCE OF <i>ORIN KETE</i> IN CURBING ANTI-SOCIAL
BEHAVIOU	RS
In this section	, tick the correct answer to the question asked. A space is provided for the
questions that	need explanations. For the questions that do not need explanations, choose
"Yes" or "No"	" by writing the sign $$ at the front of the most appropriate option.
23. Is <i>orin</i>	kete useful in curbing anti-social behaviours? A. Yes () B. No ()
24. Is orin	kete useful in curbing anti-social behaviours in the olden days?
A. Yes ()	B. No ()
	so, what are the examples of the anti-social behaviours you know that ete has been used to curb?
xii.	
xiii.	
xiv.	
XV.	
26. Is <i>orin</i>	kete useful in curbing anti-social behaviours nowadays? A. Yes ()
B. No	()
27. If it is	so, what are the examples of the anti-social behaviours you know that orin
kete ca	nn be used to curb nowadays?
xvi.	
xvii.	
xviii.	
xix.	
XX.	
	of the anti-social behaviours you mentioned above has been curbed before ne use of <i>orin kete</i> ?
xxii.	
xxiii.	

XX1V.	
XXV.	
29. Perfor	mance of <i>orin kete</i> can discontinue as a result of modern civilisation?
A. Ye	s () B. No ()
30. For the	e performance of orin kete not to discontinue (to die), we need to take these
action	s:
xxvi.	
xxvii.	
xxviii.	
xxix.	
vvv	

APPENDIX X

DEPARTMENT OF LINGUISTICS AND AFRICAN LANGUAGES UNIVERSITY OF ÌBÀDÀN

QUESTIONNAIRE

THE RELEVANCE AND SUSTAINABILITY OF *ORIN AGBÈ* My dear respondents,

My name is Luqman Abísólá KÍARÍBÈÉ, I am a Ph.D student of Department of Linguistics and African Languages, University of Ìbàdàn. My research is based on Yorùbá Literature (oral poetry). I am researching *orin agbè* among the people of Ìbàràpá and Òke Ògùn. The focus of the study is to ask about the relevance of *orin agbè* in curbing anti-social behaviours in society. Am using this period to plead with you to help me in this study by providing answers to the questions listed below properly. Write this sign √ to the appropriate place and supply detailed explanations to fill the spaces provided for it. If the space provided is not enough, you can further write at the back of this questionnaire. However, you should write along, the **section** and the **number** of the question clearly. Thank you.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Please select the right option by writing the sign ($\sqrt{}$) in the provided bracket.

1.	Male or female?	A. Mal	le ()	B. Female ()	
2.	What is your age?	A.	20-39 ()	B. 40-59 () C. 60	-79
	D. 80- sí òkè				
3.	What is your religion	A. Afı	rican Traditiona	al Religion () B. Islan	n ()
	C. Christianity () D.	Others	s (say exactly)		
4.	What is your level of	educatio	on/educational	qualification? A. Prin	nary School (
	B. Secondary Scho	ol ()	C. Tertiary	Institution () D.	Others (say
	exactly)				
5.	What is your occupation	on?		occ	cupation
6.	You are a native of w	hich tov	vn?		
7.	Where is your of resid	lence?			••••
8.	How many years have	you be	en living/stayi	ng in the town? A. 20	-39 ()
	B. 40-59 () C. 60-79	() D. 8	80- and above (()	
9.	Which town are living	g in curi	ently?		•••••
10.	How many years have	you be	een living there	e? A. 1-20 () B. 21-4	0 () C. 41-60
	() D. 81- and above (

SECTION B: EXPERIENCE OF THE RESPONDENTS ABOUT ORIN AGBÈ

In this section, tick the correct answer to the question asked. A space is provided for the questions that need explanations. For the questions that do not need explanations, choose "Yes" or "No" by writing the sign $\sqrt{}$ at the front of the most appropriate option.

11. Have	you hea	ard abou	ıt <i>orin a</i> g	gbè befor	e? A. Y	es ()	В	. No ()	
12. How		did		you	1	hear	a	bout		it?
				ce of <i>orin</i>						
14. If	it	is	so,	where	e e	did	you	wat	ch	it?
•••••	•••••	•••••	•••••		•••••		••••••		•••••	••••
15. Have	you par	ticipate	d in the	performa	nce of a	orin agb	è before	? A. Y	es ()
) ()									
16. If	it	is s	so, v	vhere	did	you	perfo	orm	in	it?
17. Is the	perform	nance of	f orin ag		occurr	ing in yo	our com	munity	? A. Y	es (
18. If	it	is	SO	when	1	last	did	it	O	ccur?
19. Can to A. Ye 20. If it c i. ii.	es () an disco	B. No	() existence		nn be th	e causes	?			
iv.										
v.		•••••				•••••				
21. Woul	d the pe	erformar	nce of or	in agbè c	ontinue	to exist	t in your	comm	unity?	,
A. Ye	es ()	B. No	()							
22. If it w	vould co	ontinue t	o exist,	what can	cause it	t?				
vi.		•••••			•••••	•••••				•••••
vii.	•••••	•••••			•••••		••••••	••••••		
viii. ix.										

SECTION C: THE RELEVANCE OF $ORINAGB\grave{e}$ IN CURBING ANTI-SOCIAL BEHAVIOURS

In this section, tick the correct answer to the question asked. A space is provided for the questions that need explanations. For the questions that do not need explanations, choose "Yes" or "No" by writing the sign $\sqrt{}$ at the front of the most appropriate option.

C5 01 110	by writing the sign variate front of the most appropriate option.
23. Is <i>orin</i>	agbè useful in curbing anti-social behaviours? A. Yes () B. No ()
24. Is <i>orin</i>	agbè useful in curbing anti-social behaviours in the olden days?
A. Yes	s () B. No ()
	so, what are the examples of the anti-social behaviours you know that $gb\grave{e}$ has been used to curb?
xii.	
xiii.	
xiv.	
XV.	
26. Is <i>orin</i>	agbè useful in curbing anti-social behaviours nowadays? A. Yes ()
B. No	()
27. If it is	so, what are the examples of the anti-social behaviours you know that orin
agbè c	an be used to curb nowadays?
xvi.	
xvii.	
xviii.	
xix.	
XX.	
	of the anti-social behaviours you mentioned above has been curbed before ne use of <i>orin agbè</i> ?
xxii.	
xxiii.	
xxiv.	
XXV.	
29. Perfor	mance of <i>orin agbè</i> can discontinue as a result of modern civilisation?
A. Yes	s() B. No ()

30. For th	ne performance of orin agbè not to discontinue (to die), we need to take
these	actions:
xxvi.	
xxvii.	
xxviii.	
xxix.	
XXX.	

APPENDIX XI

TABLE OF COMPARATIVE PERFORMANCE SEMIOTICS OF ORIN KETE

		A	AND ORIN AGB	\grave{E}		
SN	Orin I	Kete		Orin Agbè		
	Performance Features	Signifier	Signified	Performance Features	Signifier	Signified
01	The genre is named after the main musical instrument (kete)	Kete	i. Water, life ii. Metonym -mic iconic signifier of fertility and medicinal cure of barrenness		Agbè	i. Wine, merriment, preciousness ii. Metonymic iconic signifier of social merriment
02	The name of the genre (orin kete)		A plea for fertility and a manner of worshipping Alárá-Igbó, Obàtálá, Ìbejì, Ìrókò, Kórìkóto, etc.	the genre (orin agbè)	J	An index of royalty and supremacy of the Òyó Kingdom
03	Status of the genre (religious genre)	Orin Kete	A plea and a manner of worship	Status of the genre (social genre)	Orin Agbè	An index royalty, the supremacy of Òyó Kingdom
04	Performance Structure i. prelude a b. ibà c. iwúre ibèrè d. ifira-eni- hàn-ibèrè ii. body iii. farewell/ valedictory statements	i	ii. A religio- cultural sign and a manner of worshipping Alárá-Igbó, Obàtálá, Ìbejì, Kórìkóto among other children related deities	Performance Structure i. prelude a. isèlù b. ibà c. iwúre ibèrè d. ifira-eni- hàn-ibèrè ii. body iii. farewell/ valedictory statements	i. Ìsèlù ii. Ìbà	i. A qualising of realising a good tune/melody of agbè instrumentation ii. A sociocultural sign of greeting, respect, and honour to the elders
05	Performance Space			Performance Space		

	i. generic arena	i. generic arena	i. social interrelation	i. generic arena	i. generic arena	i. social interrelation-
			-ship			ship
	ii. procession performance space	ii. procession performan- ce space	ii. signifying a procession to the performance space and also from the performance	ii. procession performance space	ii. procession performan -ce space	ii. procession performance and the forward and backward dance movement
	iii. religious performance space	iii. ojú ęgbę́	space (a sign of reason) iii. (a) a centre of the meeting of Alárá-Igbó worshippers (b) a sinsign of sobriety and respect of the deity of Alárá-Igbó	iii. religious performance space	iii	iii
06	Costumes i. informal/ casual costume	i. bùbá- ṣòkòtò; ìró- bùbá	i. informal performance	Costumes i. informal/ casual costume	i. bùbá- ṣòkòtò; ìró-bùbá	i. informal performance
	ii. official/ formal or ceremonial importance	ii. yèrì ajókete iii. aṣọ funfun	ii. a religious sign of humility to the deity of Alárá-Igbó ii. an iconic representation of women's sexual parts in making humour and satire in the performance of <i>orin kete</i> iii. symbolic signifier of purity and holiness	ii. official/ formal or ceremonial importance	ii. <i>ìyàwó</i> agbè costume	ii. social satire of women's sexual gesticulation
07	Props i. ariwaya/ woroworo	i. ariwaya /woroworo		Props i	i	i

	ii. ìrùkệrệ iii. ààjà	ii. ìrùkệrệ iii. ààjà	i. a sinsign of communication ii. performan-ce commandment iii. idiophonic symbol of communication between the performer and deities	ii. ìrùkệrệ	ii. ìrùkệrệ	ii. (a) symbol of royalty (b) magical power of stickiness iii
08	Musical Instruments i. membrano- phones	i. a. <i>bènbé</i>	i.a. iconic signification of Obàtálá	Musical Instruments i. membrano- phones	i	i
	ii. idiophones	b. kete ii. ààjà	b. voice of Àyàn See no. 7 above	ii. idiophones	ii. agbè	ii. The harshness of tune at the inception of the genre is a signification of the fierceness of the combative
	iii. lamello- phone	iii		iii. lamello- phone	iii. àgídìgbo	power of the user and the possibility of defeating enemies. iii. a signifier of current innovation in orin agbè
09	Voice tempo i. èle/ iwéréndé	i. èle	i. social songs	Voice tempo i. èle	i. èle	i. social songs
	ii. <i>ègò/ìfàlè</i>	ii. ègò/îfàlè	ii. indexically signification of religious respect and honour	ii. wérò	ii. <i>wę́rò</i>	ii. an indexical signification of sociocultural

						respect and honour
10	Call for order	:	1	Call for order		
	i. a. call: músò o	i. músò	i.a. a legisign metonymic symbol of			
	b. response: <i>músò o</i>		happiness but also by extension a signifier of respect, praise and honour for Alárá-Igbó b. a call to			
	ii. a. call: epo ò	ii. a. epo	order ii. a. a legisign signification of order at the performance of Òrìṣà Ìbejì b. symbolic signification of Táíwò			
	b. <i>ệwà</i>	b. <i>èwà</i>	b. symbolic signification of Kéhìndé			
11	Voice modulation i. tonal counterpoint	i. tonal counter-point	i. technical know-how of the use of tune by the	Voice modulation i. tonal counterpoint	i. tonal counter- point	i. technical know-how of the use of tune by the
	ii. tonal distortioniii. vowel lengthening	ii. tonal distortioniii. vowel lengthening	vocalists ii. rhythmic tune of the song iii. primary voice aesthetics	ii. tonal distortion iii. vowel lengthening	ii. tonal distortion iii. vowel lengthen- ing	vocalists ii. rhythmic tune of the song iii. primary voice aesthetics
	iv. vibration of voice	iv. vibration of voice			iv. vibration of voice	iv. a sign of quality of the good voicing capacity of the vocalists
	v. nasalised voice	v. nasalised voice	v. either dialectical or	v. nasalised voice	v.nasalis- ed voice	v. either dialectical or

	vi. guttural voicing vii. humming		aesthetic signification	vi. guttural voicing vii. humming	vi. guttu- ral voicing vii. humming	aesthetic signification vi. an iconic signification of the deity of Orò vii. a sign of attainment of a quality agbè rhythm, however, a qualisign
12	Call and response i. complementary	i. comple- mentary	i. harmonious complementing the lead part is an indexical signification of proper planning and	Call and response i. complementary	i. complementary	i. harmonious complementing the lead part is an indexical signification of proper planning and
	ii. mono- refrain	ii. mono- refrain	rehearsals that had preceded the performance. ii. indexically signifies a repetitive call and response style	ii. mono- refrain	ii. mono- refrain	rehearsals that had preceded the performance ii. indexically signifies a repetitve call and response style
	iii. repetitive	iii. repetitive	iii. semiotically emphasises the thematic contents of the call	iii. repetitive	iii. repetitive	iii. semiotically emphasises the thematic contents of the call
	iv. poetic combat	iv	iv	iv. poetic combat	iv. poetic combat	iv. a. symbolic signification of rowdy nature of the performance b. entertainment and encourage to performers to put in more efforts

12	T1	<u> </u>		TP14:-	Γ	
13	Thematic preoccupations			Thematic preoccupations		
	i. homage	i. homage	i. a religio- cultural sign of respect ii. worship	i. homage	i. homage	i. a socio- cultural sign of respect and honour ii. humility
	ii. praise and description of status, position and worth of poetic characters	ii.a. aáyán	ii. a. metaphorically signifying followers/ students	ii. praise and description of status, position and worth of poetic characters	ii. a. àbệrà	ii. a. qualisign of expensi- veness of the performers
		b. ìrệ	b. metaphorically signifying master of <i>kete</i> performance		b. ààfin	b. socio-cultural symbol of central authority among Yorùbá people
	iii. religious themes	iii. músò	iii. praise, excitement with Alárá- gbó	iii. religious theme	iii	iii
	iv. women and children related issues	iv. <i>òròrò</i>	iv. a symbolic satirical signification of children's poor state of health	and children	iv. ìyàwó agbè	iv. an iconic signification of fragility and perishability of fake body parts which many contemporary women/ celebrities and cross-gender men spend millions on to fix through plastic surgery
	v. socio- political discussion	v. a. èèrè	v. metaphori- cally signify- ing king's subject	v. socio- political discussion	v. àlùjẹn- rẹnkújẹn	v. anthropomorp hic portrayal of the socio-

	vi. prayer, curses and jokes for satirical purposes	b. pòpórò vi. a. hoe b. ridges	metaphorically signifying a king vi.a. a metaphoric representation of the vocalist who cannot be queried by the ridge b. a metaphoric representation of the vocalist's enemy who may want to query him	vi prayer, curses and jokes for satirical purposes	vi. oyin	political imbalance of Nigeria during the regime of General Murtala Muhammed which eventually led to his death vi. a. sweet- ness b. well-being
	vii. satirical theme	vii. òkúndùn	vii. high level of covetousness	vii. satirical theme	vii.a. ewúré vii.b. àgùntàn vii. c elédè	vii.a. zoomorphic metaphor of good-social behaviours vii.b zoomorphic metaphor of good-social behaviour vii.c zoomorphic metaphor of anti-social behaviour
14	Instrumenta- tion styles i. leg-raising style of instrumenta- tion	i. observed during dancing and playing a musical instrument	i. signification of being a master player	Instrumentation styles i. leg-raising style of <i>ìyá agbè</i> instrumentation	i. leg- raising style of iyá agbè instru- mentation	i. a sign of technical know-how

	ii	ii	ii	ii. squatting/kneeling style of agbè instrumentation	style of agbè instrument ation	dancing style (a <i>cliché</i>)
	iii. combining instrumentation with dancing,	iii. combining instrumentation with dancing,	iii. significa- tion of being a master player	iii. combining instrumentation with dancing,	iii. combining instrumentation with dancing,	iii. a high skill in agbè instrumenta- tion
	iv	iv	iv	v. throwing up of iyá agbè	iv. throwing up and catching the <i>ìyá</i> agbè at regular intervals	iv. a performance signification, usually translated into an appropriate sequence of dance punctuations by the dancer
	v. directing the dancer using master musical instruments	the dancer		v. directing the dancer using <i>ìyá</i> agbè	ing the	v. an indexical signification of dance communication
	vi	vi	vi	vi. interchanging the position of iyá agbè during instrumentat ion	vi. interchanging the position of iyá agbè during instrument ation	vi. a qualisign of instrumenta- tion skill
15	Dance styles i. ìlù jíjá/	i. ìlù jíjá	i. a sign of quality of the technical know-how of the dancer	Dance styles i. agbè jíjá	i. agbè jíjá	i. a. signifies the quality of the performers' dance skills and knowledge

					b. the fitness of the dancer
ii. <i>ìyíkàá</i>	ii. <i>ìyíkàá</i>	ii. representa- men that are made up of both the cultural and religious laws	ii. ìdộbálệ/ ìyíkàá	ii. ìdộbálệ/ ìyíkàá	ii. socio- culturally used to pay homage, a signification of respect
iii	iii		iii. yopá- yosè/ elèyo-èyo	iii. yopá- yosè/ elèyo-èyo	iii. stretching out movement of the hands and legs in different patterns of dancing orin agbè
iv. shoulder dance-style	iv. shoulder dance-style	iv. signifies high level of dancing skills of the dancer	iv. shoulder dance-style	iv. when an instrumen -talist dances shoulder style	iv. the signification of mastering agbè's rhythm
v. dancing and playing with a musical instrument	v. dancing and playing with a musical instrument		_	v. dancing and playing with musical instrument	v. qualisign of having a technical competence in handling $agb\grave{e}$
vi			vi. fiwájújó- fèyìnjó	vi. fiwájú- jó-fèyìnjó	vi. a qualisign that shows the dance perfect skills of the instrumental- ists of <i>orin</i> <i>agbè</i>
vii. <i>bírípo</i>	vii. <i>ìyíkàá</i>	vii. total submission of the dancer to the deities of Alárá-Igbó	vii. olóbìí- rípo	vii. olóbìí- rípo	vii. a yardstick in rating the good dancer of <i>orin agbè</i>
viii	viii		viii. <i>fò-lálá</i>	viii. fò- lálá	viii.a representamen of physical

	ix. open and close	ix. open and close	ix. a gesticu- lation of the state of women's sexual desire	ix	ix	reality (strength) involved in agbè acrobatics ix.
	x	x	x	x. méta- méta-èlà/là- á-méta	x. méta- méta- èlà/là-á- méta	x. a sinsign of physical fitness of the dancer
16	Acrobatic and magical displays i	i	i	Acrobatic and magical displays i. olóbìírípo-bírí	i. olóbìírí- pobírí	i. signifying homage to all and sundry present in the arena of the performance
	ii	ii	ii	ii. lifting with the brooms		ii. <i>òṣùṣù-owò</i> (a bunch of brooms), also a social symbol of
	iii	iii	iii	iii. lifting with the leaves	iii. ewé olúfę- rejègè	unity iii. leaf used to prepare the charm of lifting