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MUSICAL GRAMMAR.

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MUSICAL GRAMMAR,

IN FOUR PARTS.

I. NOTATION, III. HARMONY, II. MELODY, IV. RHYTHM.

BY DR. CALLCOTT,

ORGANIST OF COVENT-GARDEN CHURCH.

4" The better Music is known and understood, the more it will be valued and esteemed."
simpson's compendium, 1678.

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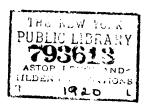
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THE present Edition of the "Musical Grammar" was advanced nearly to the end of the Third Part, under the inspection of its Author, when he was unhappily prevented from attending to business of any kind.

Fortunately, however, for the Work, my excellent Friend had expressed his intentions concerning it, on various occasions, especially in the last conversation we had together; during which he fully explained himself, on all those points which he conceived to be important.

In every respect, therefore, it is hoped, a.3.

that the "Musical Grammar" may now be considered as presented to the Public with Dr. Callcott's latest corrections. Little has been attempted, in the way of improvement; for it would have been hazardous, if not presumptuous, to attempt improvements in a Work which has been so long honoured with the unequivocal approbation of all liberal and competent judges.

WILLIAM HORSLEY.

Brompton, February 22, 1817.

LIST OF TREATISES

QUOTED IN THE FOLLOWING WORK,

With References to the Aistories of Sir John Bawkins, Dr. Burney, and the Essay of M. La Borde, for a more particular Description.

[The Pages in Parenthesis refer to the present Work.]

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CONTENTS.

PART I.

THE NOTATION OF MUSIC

						•	LOW
CHAP	. I.	Of the	Staff,		-	-	1
	II.	Of the	Clef,	-	•	-	5
	1	Sect. 1.	Of Cl	efs in gener	al, -	÷	
		2.	Of the	G, or Tre	ble Clef,	-	7
		3.	Of the	F, or Bas	e Clef,	-	8
		4.	Of the	Counter I	enor Clef	, -	10
		5.	Of the	Tenor Cle	ef, -	-	11
		6.	Of the	Soprano C	lef, -	-	12
		7.	Of the	Mezzo Soj	prano, the	Bari-	
				o, and high			13
	ш.	Of the	Notes,	-	•	-	14
	:	Sect. 1.	Of No	otes in gene	eral, -	-	
		2.	Of the	Tune of N	Totes,	-	20
•		3.	Of the	Time of N	lotes,	-	25
		4.	Of the	Accent of	Notes,	-	41
	IV.	Of the	Rests,		-	-	46
	v.	Of the	Sharps,	Flats, &c.	-	-	49
	5	Sect. 1.	Of the	Sharps,	-	•	
		2.	Of the	Fiats,		•	52
		3.	Of the	Naturals,	-	-	56
		4.	Of the	Double Sh	arp,	•	58
		5.		Double F	• '	-	59
				b 2	*		

		,						AGE
Силр.	VI.	Of (Graces, Ci	haracters	, Mai	rks of	Ex-	
		2	reption, at	d Abbre	viatio	us,	•	61
	S	ect. 1.	Of Grac	es,	- `	-	-	
	•	2.	Of the G	heracte	rs,	-	-	73
		3.	Of the I	Marks of	Expr	ession,	,	79
		4.	Of Abb	revintion	5,	•	•	83
•••		•	-	-				
		•	PAF	RT II	•			
	•	ŕ	MEI	LODY.				
	•							
Спар	. I.	Of In	tervals,	-		-	•	85.
	. 8	ect. 1	Of Inte	rvals in	gener:	rl,	-	
. 1	-	. 2	Of the	names of	Inter	vals,	-	88
	-	3.	Of the	fourte e n	Diate	mic Ir	iter-	
	•		vals,	-	-	-	-	90
		4.	Inversi	on of Int	ervals	,	-	100
-	Ħ.	Of Co	n son ant a	nd Disso	nant l	Inte r v	zło,	104
	ĬΠ.	Of th	e Genera,	-		•	-	109
	5	Sect. 1	. Of the	three kir	nds of	Melo	dy,	
		2	. Of the	Chromat	ic Sca	de, an	d its	
			Inter		-	•	-	111
	-	· 3		Enharm				
			its In	terval, th	se Qui	arter 7	'one,	119
	īv.	Of K	eys or Sca	les, and	their	two M	Todes,	
		M	[ajor and]	Minor,	-		. •	129
	,		. Of Key	s or Sca	les,	•	-	
		9	. Of the	Major S	cales v	with S	harps,	, 124
		_		8 t - 1 C				

	CONTRANT	
	CONTENTS.	MAH
		PAGE
	Of the Signature,	127
5.	Of the Minor Scale or Mode,	128
6.	Of the relative Minor Scales,	131
7.	Of the Tonic Minor Scales, -	132
. 8.	Of Transposition, &c	133
CHAP. V. Of the	Qualities of the Notes which con	2-
	se the Scale,	136
Sect. 1.	Of the Tonic, Dominant, &c.	•
2.	Of the characteristic Notes, -	140
VI. Of A	scient Signatures,	142
Sect. 1.	Of ancient Signatures in ge-	•
	neral,	•
2.	Of ancient Sharp Signatures,	144
3.	Of ancient Flat Signatures,	145
	PART III.	
	HARMONY.	
CHAP. I. Of the	Triad,	148
Sect. 1.	Of the Consonant and Dissonan	t
	Triads,	
2.	Inversions of the Triad,	153
~ 3.	Of the direct and contrary Mo) -
	tions, and the rules for their	
	use in Harmony,	157
4.	Of Harmonical Progression, -	159

CONTENTS.

					PAGI
CHAP. II. Of the I)ominant	Seventh, its	Inversi	ons,	,
Resoi	ution, an	d of Modul	ation,	-	.165
Sect 1. (of the Do	minant Ser	enth,	-	
2. (of the In-	versions of	the Do	mi-	
	nant Sev	enth,	-	-	171
3. (of the Re	solution of	the Do	mi-	
	nant Se	venth,	-	-	174
4. C	of Modula	tion,	-	-	179
III. Of Disco	rds,		•	-	187
Sect. 1. I)iscords o	f Transition	١,	-	
2. I	is c ords o	f Suspensio	n,	-	193
3. I	isco rd s o	f Syncopati	on,	-	201
4. I	oiscords o	f Addition,		-	202
IV. Of Cader	ices,	-	-	-	217
Sect. 1. O	f Radical	Cadences,		-	
2. O	f Medial	Cadences,		-	222
V. Of Seque	nces,	-	_	-	226
Sect. 1. O	f Domina	nt Sequence	es,	_	
2. O	f Mediant	Sequences	,	-	227
3. Ó	f Inverted	Sequences	,	-	228
4. O	f Simple S	Sequences,		-	230
-5. O	f Compou	nd Sequenc	es,	-	232
6. O	f Irregulai	Sequences	,	•	234
VI. Of Licence	:es, -		•	-	236
Sect. 1. O	f Pedal H	armonies,		-	
2. O	the extre	eme Sharp S	Sixth,	-	238
		Modulation,		-	241
4. O	the Rule	of the Oct	ave,	-	243
5. O	f Chroma	tic Modulat	tion,	-	246
6. Of	Enharme	onic Modul	ation,	-	248

PART IV.

RHYTHM.

CHAP. I. Of Ac	cent,		-	252
Sect. 1.	Of Simple Measures,		-	
2.	Of Compound Measure	s, ·	-	257
3.	Of Mixed Measures,		-	259
4	ıEmphasis, -	•	-	261
_	Muncal Foot, -	-	_	264
Sect. 1.	Of Simple Feet,	•	-	
2.	Of Compound Feet,	-	-	268
III. Of the	: Musical Cæsure,	-	-	270
IV. Of the	Phrase,		-	275
Sect. 1.	Of the Regular Phrase,		_	
2.	Of the Irregular Phrase	,	-	280
3.	Of Interwoven Phrases,	, ,	-	. 284
V. Of the	Section, -		-	287
Sect. 1.	Of the Regular Section	,	-	
9.	Of the Irregular Section	a,	-	290
3.	Of the Interwoven Sec	ion,	-	292
4	Of the Codetta,		-	296
VI. Of the	Period,	-	-	299
Sect. 1.	Of the Tonic Period,	- 4	-	
2.	Of the Dominant Perio	d,	-	30 2
S.	Of the Interwoven Peri	od, •	•	305
	04.1 (1.1			

MUSICAL GRAMMAR.

PART I.

THE NOTATION OF MUSIC.

CHAP. I. of the staff.

Art. 1. FIVE lines drawn over each other, form a Staff*, or support for the Notes of Music; thus,

On these Lines, and in the Spaces between them, the heads of the Notes are placed.

2. The Lines and Spaces of the Staff are counted upwards, from the lowest to the highest.

LINES { SPACES { SPACES }

^{*} Sir John Hawkins (vol. i. p. 427) writes the word Stave for Staff.—Dr. Burney, v. ii. p. 87: "The regular Staff of four lines was not generally used in the Church till the 18th century."

Every Line, or Space, is called a Degree*: thus the Staff includes nine Degrees, viz. five Lines, and four Spaces.

3. The Notes of Music consist generally of two parts, a Head and a Stem.

The Head is either open or close (that is, white or black); and must always be placed on a Line, or in a Space.

The Stem may turn up or down, without making any difference in the Music.

WHITE NOTES.



BLACK NOTES.

In Spaces.



4. When more than nine Notes are wanted, the Spaces above and below the Staff are used, and two more Degrees are gained; thus,



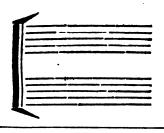
^{*} Christopher Simpson, Compendium of Practical Music, 1678 (3d edit.), p. 2.

5. If more Notes than these are required, then added Lines* are drawn above or below the Staff, and the Notes are placed on them; thus,



Any number of Lines may be added above or below; thus the Degrees of the Staff are increased at pleasure.

6. In Music for Keyed Instruments, when a Staff is wanted for each hand, they are joined together by a Brace; the upper Staff for the right hand part, and the lower Staff for the left.



^{*} The added Lines were formerly called Ledger or Leger, short or light lines. The latter term is adopted by Mr. Holden, in his Essay (1770), p. 21, art. 56.

I. NOTATION.

When more than two Staves are joined together by the Brace, they contain Music for different voices, or instruments, to be performed at the same time. This union of Staves is called the Score*.

* Dr. B. ii. 440: "The word Score probably originated from the Bar, which, in its first use, was drawn through all the parts, as it should be still, of a piece of music in partition or partitura."

Vocal Scores are of two kinds; those for equal, and those for unequal voices. Equal voices are all female, or all male; unequal, are female and male intermixed. Instrumental Scores, have the names of the different parts placed before the Staves at the commencement. The wind Instruments. Trumpets, Horns, Flutes, Clarinetts, Hautboys, and Bassoons above; the Violins, Tenors and Violoncellos, below. In Choral Scores, the Vocal Parts are placed under the Instruments and the Organ Part, or General Base at the bottom, with the figures comprehending the Harmony of the whole Score. The voices of boys are considered the same as those of females. Those of men are divided according to their pitch, into Counter Tenors, Tenors and Bases. double Chorusses, the two Choirs have each their separate Vocal Parts of Soprano, Alto, Tenor and Basso, braced together to shew their distinction. Such are those of Handel's Israel in Egypt, Solomon, &c. -

CHAP. II.

SECT. L-OF CLEFS IN GENERAL.

Art. 7. The Notes of Music are named from the first seven letters of the alphabet,

A, B, C, D, E, F, G.

When the Melody, or Tune, exceeds these seven, the same series of letters must be repeated.

8. A Clef* is a mark representing a letter, placed at the beginning of the Staff, to determine the names of the Degrees, and is always situated on a Line. There are three Clefs:



These are commonly called the Base, the Tenor, and the Treble.

9. The sounds of Music are distinguished by their difference in respect of pitch, and divided into High and Low: the high sounds are

^{*} Sir J. H. writes Cliff, i. 431; iii.51, 89; iv. 162.—Dr. B. ii. 90: "Clefs were originally nothing more than the letters of the alphabet, placed opposite to notes of the same name."

placed in a Staff with the G Clef, and called *Treble*; the low sounds are placed in a Staff with the F Clef, and called *Base*.

- 10. The upper sounds of the Base, and the lower ones of the Treble, are also called *Tenor*, and sometimes placed in a Staff with the C Clef.
- 11. These three Clefs are five Degrees distant from each other; the C or Tenor Clef, being the Note where the Base ends and the Treble begins; the G or Treble Clef, is five Degrees above; and the F or Base, is five Degrees below, both inclusive.

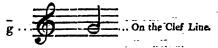


12. All the Degrees of the Staff depend upon the Clef; and consequently take their names from that Line on which the Clef is placed. It must always be remembered, that these Clefs are representatives of the letters, f c and g*.

[•] The utility of Clefs, in respect of human voices, is explained by Dr. B. ii 457.—See also Malcolm, p. 982; and Holden, p. 20, art. 54.

SECT. II.-OF THE G, OR TREBLE CLEF.

13. The G Clef* must turn on the second Line of the Staff; all the Notes on that Line are called g; the other Degrees take their names from that, as the Clef Line.



The nine Degrees of the Treble Staff are,



14. The Degrees above and below the Staff



The other added Degrees are reckoned from these, whether above or below,

^{*} The G Clef is a compound character of the letters G and S, for the syllable Sol. In old Music, the two letters, G and S, are sometimes seen distinctly marked.—Turner's Essay (1724), p. 34; Dr. Pepusch, Treatise on Harmony (1731); Rameau, Treatise (1752).—Sir J. H. iii. 105, ascribes the earliest use of our present character to Lampadius (1537), ii. 408; iii. 54.

SECT. III.-OF THE F, OR BASE CLEF.

15. The F Clef* must be placed on the fourth Line of the Staff, so that the two dots are in the third and fourth Spaces: all the Notes on that Line are called f; the other Degrees take their names from that, as the Clef Line.

f ... On the Clef Line.

The nine Degrees of the Base Staff are,



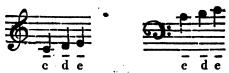
16. The Degrees above and below the Staff, are,



* The F Clef is a compound character, formed originally of three Notes, one placed on the Line, and two others in the adjoining Spaces; thus,

The C Clef was distinguished from the F, by having only the two Notes in the Spaces; and these Clefs were adopted in the Gregorian, while coloured lines were used for the more ancient Ambrosian, Chant. Franchinus Gafurius, *Practica*, lib.i. cap. 3, fol. 4, b. edit. 1496 and 1502.

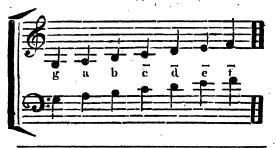
17. The Note C, on the added Line* below the Treble, and on that above the Base, are exactly the same sound; thus the lower Notes of the Treble may be expressed in the Base,



and the higher Notes of the Base may be expressed in the Treble.



18. The same Notes may be thus written in both the F and G Clefs,



^{*} When the added lines between the Treble and Base frequently occur, it is usual in old Music to find the C Clefs in both upper and lower Staves.—See Scarlatti's Lessons, ii. 12.

SECT. IV.—OF THE COUNTER TENOR CLEF, OR C ON THE THIRD LINE.

19. When the C Clef is placed so that the two cross strokes enclose the middle Line, it is called the Counter Tenor*, or Viola Clef.



The nine Degrees of the Viola Staff are,



These correspond with the Notes in the Treble and Base Clefs, given in the Example of Art. 18.

20. The Counter Tenor Clef is used for the high voices of men in Vocal Music, and for the Viola or Tenor Violin in Instrumental Pieces.

^{*} This is also called Alto and Contralto. It borrows the two lower lines of the Treble for its upper Degrees, and the two upper lines of the Base for its lower Degrees. The middle line is the added one between the Treble and Base. This Clef is used in Handel's 400 Songs, ii. No. 190: "O fairest of ten thousand;" iii. No. 192: "See the Conquering Hero comes;" v. No. 379: "Hide me from day's garish eye."

SECT. V.—OF THE TENOR CLEF, OR C ON THE FOURTH LINE.

21. When the C Clef is placed so that the two cross strokes enclose the fourth Line, it is called the *Tenor* Clef*.

The nine Degrees of the Tenor Staff are,



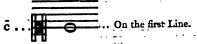
These Notes are five Degrees above those in the Base Clef, Art. 15, p. 8.

22. The Tenor Clef is used for the middle voices of men, and for the Violoncello or Base Violin, in Instrumental Music, when the passage ascends above the Base Staff.

^{*} The Tenor Clef borrows the lowest line of the Treble for its upper Degree, and the three highest lines of the Base for its lower Degrees. The fourth line is the added one between the Treble and Base.—Examples of this Clef may be found in Handel's Songs, i. No. 49: "How blest the Maid;" No. 57: "But oh, sad Virgin;" ii. No. 148: "What passion cannot."

SECT. VI.-OF THE SOPRANO CLEF, OR C ON THE FIRST LINE.

23. When the C Clef is placed so that the two cross strokes enclose the lowest Line, it is called the Soprano*, or Canto Clef.



The nine Degrees of the Soprano Staff are;



These Notes are three Degrees below those in the Treble Clef, Art. 13, p. 7.

24. The Soprano Clef is used for the voices of females and children. In Italy and Germany, no other Clef is in general use for the Harpsichord; the G Clef being reserved for the Violin, Flute, &c.

The Soprano Clef borrows the four lowest lines of the Treble for its upper Degrees; and the first line is the added one between the Treble and Base.—These three C Clefs, the Soprano, Alto, Tenor, with the Base F Clef, form the four regular Clefs of Choral Counterpoint.—See Dr. Boyce's Cathedral Music, 3 vols. 1760; and new edition 1788. This Clef is also used in Handel's Songs, iii. No. 176: "Hark! he strikes the golden lyre;" and in his thirteen Italian Duets.

SECT. VII.—OF THE MEZZO SOPRANO, THE BARITONO, AND HIGH TREBLE CLEFS.

25. In old Vocal Music, the C Clef is placed on the second Line, and called the Mezzo Soprano.



26. In old Church Music, the F Clef is placed on the third Line, and called the Baritono.



27. In old French Music, the G Glef is placed on the first Line, and called the High Treble*.



• These three Clefs are inserted here, chiefly to shew how entirely the other Degrees depend on the Clef Line, and to impress on the mind, that the Clefs themselves are the letters C, F, and G. Examples of these two first Clefs are found in Padre Martini, Saggio di Contrappunto, 1774. The last G Clef is used by Bethizy (Exposition de la Musique, 1764), in some of the plates at the end of his Work.

CHAP. III.

OF THE NOTES.

SECT. I.—OF NOTES IN GENERAL.

- Art. 28. The Notes of Music represent sounds, with their difference of pitch, and their duration in time*. These two qualities are called the *Tune*, and *Time* of Notes.
- 29. When to any series of the seven letters the eighth is added, the whole number is termed an Octave+; and the word is frequently used to express the two extreme Notes of the series, the first and the eighth.
- 30. That series of the seven letters which begins and ends with C, ascending or descending, is most satisfactory to the ear.

cdefgabō

^{*} Our present Notation was considerably improved (if not invented) by Guido of Aresso, and Franco of Cologne. Sin J. H. i. 492; ii. 17, 140, 217, 237. Dr. B. ii. 35, 184, 152, 443.

[†] The seven letters were formerly called Septemeries; but, as they are incomplete and insperfect in their melody or turns without the eighth, they are new termed Science. Butler's Principles (1696), p. 18.

- 31. On keyed instruments, these Notes are performed by striking the long keys, whose names are known by their situation with respect to the short keys, which are generally black.
- 32. The black keys are placed in alternate divisions of two and three, throughout the keyboard; and, as the long key between the two short ones is always D*, the other six letters may be readily found from that; E being the next long key towards the right hand; C the next towards the left, &c. &c.
- 33. The C† nearest the middle of the instrument is the *Tenor* Clef Note; the next G towards the right, is the *Treble* Clef Note; and the nearest F towards the left, is the *Base* Clef Note.
- 34. To distinguish the different Notes of the same letter from each other, the Germans have adopted a literal Notation, called their *Tablature*;, which, from its ingenuity and utility, de-

^{*} The Keys which enclose the divisions of two short ones, are C D E; and the remaining four, F G A B, have the other division of three short ones between them.

[†] The number of Keys varies on different instruments; but the C nearest to the middle is always the Tenor Clef Note.

[†] The German Tablature was invented in the 16th century; a specimen of it may be seen in the tract entitled Monocherdum Andrea Reinhardi, Lipsia, 1604 (s, 22), in the Saville Collection, Oxford. Dr. B. ii. 121.

serves to be more universally known than it is at present.

35. The lowest series of seven Notes, which includes both the divisions of short keys in the key-board (beginning with the two), is called by the Germans the great Octave*, being expressed by capital letters†; thus,



36. The next series of seven Notes is called the small Octave, expressed with small letters; thus,



37. The next series commences with the C Clef Note, including the G Clef; and being

^{*} On some old instruments (particularly Organs) the lowest Mote on the left hand is the great C; but, in general, Harpsichords, &c. extend downwards to F F. The six octave Grand Piano Fortes reach to C C below, and as far as C, four times marked in the Treble, on the right. It has been observed, p. 14, that these Octaves are in reality only Septenaries.

[†] In our old Scales, the letters below the Ease A were made double, and those above the Treble Staff termed in all; but the Septenaries were then reckoned from A, not from C; and the limits of Base, Tenor, and Treble, not accurately defined.

expressed by a small stroke over each letter, is called the once-marked Octave.



38. The last series in general use is called the twice-marked Octave.



- 39. The few Notes below the great Octave are marked with double capitals, and called Contra Tones. Those above the Treble form another series, called the thrice-marked Octave*.
- 40. Any musical example, in which all the Notes are of equal length, may be expressed by this Tablature, without the assistance of the

^{*} If these Notes were arranged by Septenaries from G, on the first line of the Base, then the appellations of Base, Tenor, and Treble, might be more appropriate; the Base Septenary would end with the F Clef; the Tenor C Clef would be the middle note of its own series; and the Treble would begin with its own G Clef. This is the Gammut given by Butler, p. 13, 17. The more ancient Scales formed their Septenaries from A₂ and the Gammut at G was added below. Glaresmee Dodecachordon (1547), lib. i. cap. 2, p. 3.

Staff or of the Clef. According to this Notation we may observe,

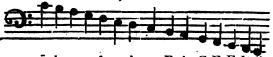
The F Clef Note is the small f.

The C Clef Note is the once-marked c.

The G Clef Note is the once-marked g.

41. The descending series of these Octaves is expressed in Notes, thus in the Treble,





c bagfed c BAGFEDC

42. In Vocal Music these Notes were sung with the syllables introduced, about the year 1022, by Guido, a Monk of Arezzo, in Tuscany: UT, RE, MI, FA, SOL, LA*; called by his followers the Hexachord†.

A particular account of Guido may be found in Dr. B.

ii. 73; M. La Borde (Essai 1780), iii. 345.
† The following Hymn to St. John, is said to be that whence Guido took the six syllables:

UT queant laxis REsonare fibris,

MIra gestorum FAmuli tuorum, SOLve polluti LAbii reatum, Sancte Johannes.

They are also comprized in the following line: UT, RElevet MIserum FAtum SOLitosque LAbores.—See Sir John Hawkins's History, i. p. 422.

The French retain the original six, with the addition of SI for the seventh *.

43. The Italians, for the sake of a softer pronunciation, have changed the UT into DO.

DO, RE, MI, FA, SOL, LA, SI, DO †.

44. This general Scale of Notes was formerly called the Gammut;, from the Greek letter Gamma, placed on the lowest line of the Base Staff, or great G of the German Tablature.

The celebrated Prussian Chapel-master, C. H. Graun, employed the following syllables—da, me, ni, po, tu, la be, which are adopted by Hiller, in his Anweisung zum Gesange (2d edit. 1798); not, like those of Guido, to ascertain the intervals of the Scale, but merely to accustom the vocal student to sing upon all the vowels, intermixed with the principal consonants.

^{*} The addition of the syllable Si was introduced by Le Maire. Sir J. H. i. 435; Dr. B. ii. 98.

[†] The change of Ut to Do, is mentioned by Sir J. H. v. 197; Dr. B. ii. 93.

[†] This succession of Syllables invented by Guido, was also applicable to the two other Notes, F and G (which form our Clefs), and their following sounds. Hence arises the word Ganmut, or Gamma Ut, it being the Ut, or first sound of the G Hexachord, denoted by the Greek letter T. Dr B. ii. 87; Butler, p. 17; Ornithoparcus (Dowland's Translation, 1609, p. 10).

SECT. II.—OF THE TUNE OF NOTES.

- 45. The Tune of Notes depends upon their relation to each other, and upon the distances between them. The intervals between the Degrees of the Scale are unequal*; and, as some are nearly twice the distance of others, the words Tone, and Semitone, are employed to express them.
- 46. Those Notes which on the key-board are not separated by a short key, are said to be distant from each other one Semitone; those which have a short key inserted between them, are distant two Semitones, or one Tone. Thus the distances between B C and between E F, are Semitones; and those between CD, DE, FG, GA, and AB, are Tones:—therefore, every series of the eight regular Sounds, or of the Octave, contains five Tones and two Semitones.
- 47. The greatest care must be taken not to misunderstand the words Note and Tone 1. A

^{*} Holden, p. 2, art. 7; Malcolm, p. 229 (of Degrees), chap. viii. § 2.

[†] An exception to this rule is found in those organs which have what are called short Octaves, and in which the two lower keys are turned to G G and C C, although close together like B C.

¹ Even the accurate and learned Butler uses these terms

Note is the Sound which is heard, or the mark which represents it on the Staff; but a Tone is the distance between two Notes, which are called by the names of two adjoining letters, and separated by one single key of the instrument. Thus, the distance from A to B is a Tone; and therefore A is a Tone lower than B, and B a Tone higher than A.

- 48. The same observation must be applied to the Semitones, which are sometimes called, though improperly, half Notes. The distance from B to C is a Semitone; therefore B is a Semitone lower than C, and C is a Semitone higher than B.
- 49. By comparing the sounds C D E F with the following sounds G A B C, we find that the distances of both these fourths* consist exactly

in a vague manner (p. 22). He first says: "From Mi to Fa, and from La to Pha, is but half a tone; between any other two Notes there is a whole tone." Then he adds: "But in singing, how to tune each Note and half Note to his fellow, cannot be declared by precept."

^{*} The ancient term for the fourth was Tetrachord; and since the theory of Rameau has been known, the old ideas on the subject have been, with some variation, revived. Most of the modern writers (particularly Holden) have thought it necessary to consider the Octave as composed of two fourths, which are disjoined or separated by a tone. As a Practical Introduction to Musical Science, this arrangement may be

of two Tones and a Semitone; therefore any Tune formed by one, will be exactly similar to that of the other.



50. These two fourths, taken in succession, form a Scale, of which the chief sound being C, is from thence called the Key Note*. The descending series of this Scale corresponds with the common tune of eight bells.

Scale of C.



considered as correct; although theory does not allow the perfect mathematical equality of the fourths, in respect to the places of the Tones which compose them.

* The term Key is used by Dr. Pepusch, in the sense of Church Tone, or Ecclesiastical Mode. In this species of Music, the chief Melody, or Plain Chant, was confined to the 51. The effect of these Notes to the ear, depends on the position of the Semitones. This may be easily perceived by playing eight Notes, from d, or e, or any other part of the Scale, which will not produce the same melody.



52. But if the same letters, in any Octave higher or lower, are taken, the same Tune will be heard.



In this series the two Semitones of the Octave are found between the third and fourth,

natural sounds of the Scale. Treatise on Harmony (1731), p. 65; Sir J. H. i. 360. A particular account of the eight Tones of Italy, and the twelve Modes of Germany, may be found in Mr. Kollmann's Essay on Musical Harmony (1796), chap. xviii. p. 124; also in Sir J. H. ii. 410-440.

and between the seventh and eighth, of the ascending Scale*.

- 53. This series of sounds, which is performed on the Organ, &c. with the long keys, is called the Natural Scale, to distinguish it from that which employs the short keys intermixed with the others, called the Chromatic, or Artificial.
- 54. In the Vocal Scale of the Solfeggio, the place of the Semitone is ascertained by the syllables mi fu and si do; between all the others is the distance of a Tone.
- 55. As the whole doctrine of Melody, or the Tune of Notes, must depend on a right conception of the two Semitones, and their places in the Scale, great attention should be paid to this part of the subject by every Musical Student.

^{*} The reason why the Semitones fall in these places, and in no other, may be found in the theoretical writers, Dr. Holder (1731), p. 112; Malcolm, p. 229; Mr. Holden, p. 16, art. 43; Maxwell, Essay on Tune (1781), p. 5.

[†] Malcolm calls this the Semitonic Scale, p. 291; and the short Keys Artificial Notes, p. 292. Its more usual name, Chromatic, will be explained hereafter.—Antoniotto (1760) terms the Minor Mode Artificial, p. 35.

[†] The word Tone will be used throughout this Grammar in this sense, and no other; although it is applied also to the quality of sound in a voice or instrument. Thus it is said, a fine Tone is produced from the Violoncello," &c.

SECT. III.—OF THE TIME OF NOTES.

56. The duration of a Note, with respect to Time, is known by its particular form; and the distinction between Notes in this respect, is shewn by making them white or black, and by the Stem and the Hook. (See Art. 3, p. 2.)

The three principal Notes are, the Minim, the Crotchet, and the Quaver*.

57. The Minim is a white Note with a Stem, made thus, and is as long as two Crotchets, or four Quavers.

58. The Crotchet is a black Note with a Stem, made thus, and is as long as two Quavers.

- 59. The Quaver is a black Note with a Stem and a Hook, made thus, and may be divided into two Semiquavers, or four Demisemiquavers.
- 60. The proportions of these three principal Notes to each other, are therefore as under.



^{*} Butler, p. 27, 28, has given a long account of the origin of these Notes, from Gafurius, Glareanus, and Listenius. See also Sir J. H. ii. 146; Dr. B. ii. 167; Malcolm, p. 388; Holden, p. 34, art. 63.

61. When the Quaver is divided into smaller portions, the two following Notes are employed:

The Semiquaver, which is made like the Quaver, but with two Hooks, being half the length of the Quaver; and the Demisemiquaver, which has three Hooks,



being one quarter the length of the Quaver.

Their proportions to the Crotchet are,



62. In slow Music, especially that in the church style, two longer Notes are used; the Semibreve and the Breve.

The Semibreve† is a round white Note, without a Stem,



and is as long as two Minims, or four Crotchets.

^{*} The Demisemiquaver also is divided in modern Music, and the Notes marked with four Hooks: these may be called half Demisemiquavers, and those which have five Hooks, quarter Demisemiquavers. Playford, Introduction (14th edit. 1700), p. 8, calls the first of these a Demiquaver; which term is also used by some other writers. See Holden, p. 25, art. 64.

[†] The Breve and Semibreve are in daily use for our Choir Service. See Boyce's Cathedral Music.

The Breve is a square white Note,

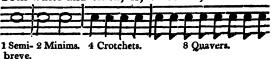


and is as long as two Semibreves, four Minims, or eight Crotchets.

The proportions of the three white Notes are



63. The proportion of our modern Notes, both white and black, is, therefore,



64. Those Notes which are made with Hooks, may be grouped* together by two, three, or four, &c.



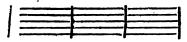
* The term *Groppo*, or Group, is commonly limited to those passages of four Notes in which the first and third are on the same Degree, and the second with the fourth are a Degree higher and lower. Koch's Lexicon, p. 684, art. *Groppo*, die Walze. Playford (p. 20) calls these Hooks, when joined together, *Tyes*: a term which, he also remarks (p. 19), is used for what we now denominate a *Slur*. As the word *Tye* is also applicable to the *Ligature* or *Bind*, the term *Group* has been preferred by the Author.

Semiquavers.



This method is not only convenient in writing, but assists the eye in ascertaining the proportion of the Notes, and is of particular use in Vocal Music, to distinguish the Notes which are to be sung to each syllable.

65. Every Musical Piece is divided into equal portions of time, called *Measures*. These are ascertained by straight Lines, called *Bars*, drawn down the Staff. All the Notes, therefore, contained between two Bars, constitute one Measure.



66. Every Measure must contain a certain

^{*} In common language, the word Bar is used improperly for Measure. Dr. Burney (article Bar, Dr. Rees' Cyclopædia) accurately limits the signification of the term as above. Dr. B. ii. 191. The parts of the Measure are called Times, by Mr. Kellmann, Essay on Harmony (1796), p. 73.

number of Notes, according to the Time marked at the beginning of the Movement. Thus, in Common Time, each Measure includes a Semibreve, or its value in Minims, Crotchets, or Quavers, intermixed as the Melody requires. The exact length of the Measure is known by regularly dividing the Time into equal portions, whether the Notes themselves are long or short; as every Measure must be precisely equal in time, during the continuance of the Movement.

- 67. There are two chief species of Time*, Common or equal—and Triple or unequal Time. In the first, we count two, four, or eight, in every Measure; in the last, we count three, or six.
- 68. I. COMMON, or Equal Time, contains one Semibreve, two Minims, four Crotchets, eight Quavers, or their value, in every Measure. This Time is known by a Semicirclet

^{*} The Germans adopt a third species of Time, containing four equal parts in a Measure; which will be noticed hereafter, in treating of Rhythm.

[†] The old doctrines of Time, Mode, and Prolation, may be found in Morley, Ravenecroft, and Butler. See an account of them. and of the original signification of this mark, in Dr. B. ii. 183, 454; Sir J. H. ii. 155.

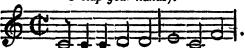
placed at the beginning of the Staff, after the Clef, thus:

(Handel: See the conquering).



69. The barred Semicircle is used to denote a quicker Movement, and is called *Alla Breve*; because it was formerly written with one Breve in a Measure, thus:

(Orlando Gibbons, Dr. Boyce, V. II. 59: O clap your hands).



This is now more commonly written with one Semibreve in a Measure, by dividing those of the Alla Breve into halves.

(Handel, Saul, Dr. Arnold's edition of Handel's Works, No. 112, p. 36: Our fainting courage).



70. All other Measures are marked by figures,

placed one over the other at the commencement of the Staff.

The figure 2 above the figure 4, indicates two Crotchets, or one Minim, in each Measure; and is called half Time, being the division of the Semibreve.

40	(Germ	an H	lymn,	Pleyel).
72	P (-		
37 4				7	

71. The most usual Measures expressed by figures placed at the beginning of the Staff, are the following*:

Of these Figures, the upper one shews how many parts are contained in the Measure; and the lower one represents a word, shewing how many of these Notes constitute a Semibreve. 2, signifies *Minims*; 4, Crotchets; 8, Quavers, &c.; as in the following Table:

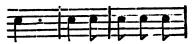
(3 Three	(3 Three (3 Three
2.2 Minims	3 Three 3 Three 4 Crotchets 8 Quavers
6 Six	6 Six 9 Nine 8 Quavers 16 Semiquavers
4 Croicieis	•
	{ 12 Twelve
•	8 Quavers

^{*} Grassineau's Dictionary (1740), p. 292, article TRIPLE, contains a long dissertation, translated from Brassard, on the ancient method of marking these Measures.

72. When it is necessary to lengthen a Note by half its value, a dot* is placed after it. Thus, a dotted Minim is as long as a Minim and a Crotchet, or as three Crotchets.



A dotted Crotchet is as long as a Crotchet. and a Quaver, or as three Quaverst.



73. II. TRIPLE, or unequal Time.

Of this time there are three different species in use; namely,

- 1. Three Minims,
- 2. Three Crotchets, in a Measure.
 3. Three Quavers,
- 1. One dotted Semibreve, or three Minims, in every Measure; thus,

^{*} The dot is also used for other purposes, viz. to mark those Notes which are to be played distinctly; as also to shew the place of repetition, &c. as will be explained hereafter.

[†] All the Notes of Music may also have a double det after them, which makes them longer by three-fourths. Thus a Minim twice dotted, is equal to three Crotchets and a half, or to seven Quavers, &c.

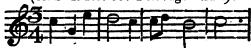
These three species are very similar, particularly if the two last are performed slowly; the accents of all three being. alike.

(Handel's Italian Songs, No. 64, Verdi Prati —Alcina).



2. One dotted Minim, or three Crotchets, in every Measure.

(H. S. I. No. 66: Fell rage—Saul).



- 3. One dotted Crotchet, or three Quavers, in every Measure.
 - (H. S. II. 128: No, let the guilty tremble—Saul).



74. When two Measures of three Crotchets, or of three Quavers, are united in one, by the omission of a Bar, the Time is called Compound Common;—Common, because every Measure is equally divided; and Compound, because each half is a single Measure of Triple.

III. COMPOUND COMMON TIME has three species, in general use:

- I. Six Crotchets,
- 2. Six Quavers, in every Measure.
- 3. Twelve Quavers,
- (1.) Six Crotchets, or two Measures, of three Crotchets each, joined in one.

(H. S. II. No. 124: Every joy-Solomon).



- (2.) Six Quavers, or two Measures, of three Quavers each, joined in one.
 - (H. S. IV. No. 287: Sound an alarm— Judas Maccabæus).



75. When two Measures of six Quavers are further united into one, they form a double Compound of twelve Quavers in each Measure, and are equal to four Measures of three Quavers. The omission of the Bars makes some difference in the appearance of the Music, and influences the counting, according to the degree of quickness in which the piece is performed. But, in other respects, the division

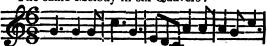
of the Measure has no power of altering the real nature of the Time or Tune; nor can the Auditor perceive whether the Triple Time performed be expressed by the figures

. (3.) Twelve Quavers, or one Measure of twice six Quavers, or four times three Quavers.

(H. S. I. No. 54: The peasant tastes— J_0 -seph*).



The same Melody in six Quavers:



The same Melody in three Quavers:



It may perhaps be useful to those who do not perfectly understand the value of the Notes, to separate this double Compound into single Compound and into simple Triple; and also to turn three Quaver time into six and

^{*} See also the Pastoral Symphony in the Messiah, and the last Movement in Corelli's 8th Concerto.

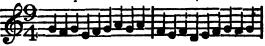
twelve Quavers, by striking out the intermediate Bars which separate the Measure.

76. IV. COMPOUND TRIPLE TIME.

Compound Triple Time is formed by dividing the Measures of simple Triple into nine parts, and by dotting the Measure Note* of the original Time. Of this there are three species:

- I. Three Minims divided into nine Crot-chets.
- 2. Three Crotchets divided into nine Quavers.
- . 3. Three Quavers divided into nine Semiquavers.
- (1.) Nine Crotchets, or three Minim Time, divided into Triplets.

(Handel's Italian Duett, No. 5, p. 31: Và Speme—Randall's edit.)



The commencement of this Movement, and its other Measures, are simple Triple; thus,

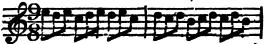


^{*} By Measure Note, is meant that which measures the Time in the lower of the two figures, Art. 71, p. 31.

By thus changing the Notation, the advantage is gained of presenting the simple Measures clear to the eye, without the incumbrance of a dot to each Minim*.

(2.) Nine Quavers, or three Crotchet Time, divided into Triplets.

(H. S. IV. No. 319: Consider, fond shepherd —Acis and Galatea).



The commencement of this Song, and the other parts, are in simple Triple*; thus,

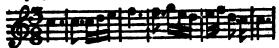


- (3.) Nine Semiquavers, or three Quaver Time, divided into Triplets.
- (H. S. II. No. 156: Hush, ye pretty warbling choir—Acis and Galatea).



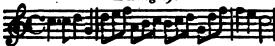
* Malcolm, p. 401.

The vecal part of this song is in simple Triple; thus,



77. From these two species of Compound Time (Common and Triple), arise various kinds of mixt Measures, which are in some parts equally, and in others unequally divided*.

(H. S. IV. No. 315: I'll to the well-trod stage —L'Allegro).



The Triplets; of Common Time, which are here found in the place of each Cootchet of the Measure, have sometimes the figure 3 placed over them; but are generally known by being grouped together, and then form one of the single parts of the whole Measure.

The same use of the Triplet occurs in Triple

Gio. Bat. Don's remarks, that our Morley placed in different puris, two Noote against three, and three against four, in the same Measure or Battetta (Annotation's sopra is Computable. Ruma, 2040, p. 57).—See Dr. Busney fact. Buttute, Dr. Rees' Cyclopedia).

⁺ Kollmann, Essay on Harm p. 75 (chap. xi. § 11).

Time, when the Messure Note is divided occasionally into three parts, instead of two; thus, (H. S. V. No. 328: Far brighter than the

64 III III III

In slow Common Time, when the Quaver is the Measure Note, and is divided into three Semiquavers, instead of two, then the Time is really 24 Semiquavers*.

(H. S. III. No. 240: Cease, Oh Judah— Deborah).



A similar passage of Semiquavers is found in the Triple of Quavers.

(H. S. I. No. 14: The enemy said—Israel in Egypt).



When the Measure itself is compound, as

^{*} Holden, p. 20, art. 27.

Six Quavers, then the Triple Subdivision is 18 16. Of this, an example may be seen in H. S.

III. No. 181: The raptured soul—Theodora.

The same number of Triplets* (viz. six) is also found in the simple Triple of three Crotchets, and in the Compound Triple of six Quavers. An example of 18, as derived from 3, may be found in Dr. Haydn's 2d Sonata, Op. 17, p. 10; and another of 18, as derived from 8, in the same author's 3d Sonata, Op. 13, p. 16.

78. There is also a species of Time, called Quintuple, which contains five Crotchets in a. Bar; but it is very seldom used.

Tartini considered this Quintuple proportion as unfit for Melody, and impossible to be executed. Time has shewn, that neither of these judgments were well founded.

^{*} The Germans, in imitation of these (which they terms Trioles), place sometimes 5, 7, &c. small Notes in the Time of 4, 6, &c. of the same denomination, and term them Quintoles, Septimoles, &c. Koeh's Lexicon (1802), art. Triole, &c.

[†] Tartini, Trattato (1754), p. 114. Dr. B. i. 82. Mr. Reeves's Gypsey Glee: "O who has seen," contains a last Movement in five Crotchet Time—" Come stain your cheek"—which produces a very good effect.

SECT. IV.—OF THE ACCENT OF NOTES.

79. The Bars of Music are not only useful for dividing the Movement into equal Measures, but also for shewing the Notes upon which the Accent is to be laid.

The Measures of Common Time are divided into four parts; of these, the first and third are accented: the second and fourth unaccented. In the course of this work, the accented will be termed strong parts, and the unaccented, weak parts of the Measure*.

(H. S. II. No. 119: Proise the Lord— Esther).

80. The Measures of Triple Time consist of three parts; the first strong, the two others weak; although the last part is rather strong, in comparison of the middle part †.

See Rosseau, Dictionnaire (1768), art. Temps: Sultzer's.
 Theorie (1779), art. Text.

The Author has translated the Temps font et foible of the French writers, rather than the Tempo buono e cattivo of the Stalians, or the Gute und Schlechte Tactizait of the Germans. See Koch's Lexicon (1802), art. Tact.

⁺ Dr. Burney (art. Accent, Dr. Rees' Cyclopædia),

(H. S. III. No. 233: Up the dreadful steep Jephtha)

81. In slow, common Time, the Accents. are more frequent; but they are found in the same proportion on the first, third, fifth and seventh Quavers, which are the strong parts, while the second, fourth, sixth, and eighth, are the weak parts.

In three Crotchet Time, when divided into Quavers, the first, third, and fifth Quavers are strong; the second, fourth, and sixth, weak.

In six Quaver Time, the first and fourth Quavers are strong; the others weak*.

- 82. From the nature of Accent arises the accessity of beginning some Movements with only part of a Measure: thus,
 - (1.) With a single weak part.

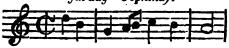
(H. S. III. No. 163: The smiling dawn-Jephtha).



^{*} An example of the same Melody in these two different Measures, may be found in Dr. Arnold's Lessons, Op. XIL Lesson 2, p. 4.

(2.) With a half Measure.

(H.S. III. No. 162: Welcome as the cheerful day—Jephtha).

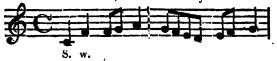


The following Melody, barred in two different ways, produces two opposite effects, the Accent falling upon different Notes.

Scotch Air-Corn riggs.



The same, barred differently.



83. When the Composer intends that the weak parts of the Measure should be made of more importance than the strong parts, such deviation from the regular Accent, in this Work, will be termed Emphasis.

In passages like the following, the Quavers are often grouped together according to the

Emphasis, and not (as in general) according to the Accent.

(Haydn's Symphony, No. III. performed at Salomon's Concert).



In the two first Measures of this Example, the Quavers are grouped according to the Accent; in the third, according to the Emphasis*, contrary to the Accent; and in the fourth, the Accent again resumes its importance.

The Italian words, Rinforzando, Sforzato†, or their contractions, Rinf. Rf. Sforz. Sf. are often used to mark the Emphasis, and sometimes are placed over accented Notes.

As every species of Measure may be subdivided by Accents, according to the degree of quickness in which it is performed; so also the weak parts of every Measure may be occasionally made emphatic at the pleasure of the Composer.

The Germans divide Accent into two principal species— Grammatical and Rhetorical: the first is here termed Accent, the last Emphasis.

[†] The difference between Rinf. and Sfors, is explained by Mr. Shield (Introduction to Harmony, 1800), p. 88.

84. To this species of effect may be referred all syncopated or driving* Notes, which begin on the weak, and end on the strong part of the Measure.

(Vanhall's Overture in C-Periodical, No. 42).



In this Example, the Emphasis is on the syncopated *Minims*, which begin on the second, and end on the third part of the Measure.

· (H. S. I. No. 6: How vain is man—Judas Maccabæus).



In this Example, the Emphasis is on the syncopated Crotchets, which begin on the second and sixth (or the weak), and end on the third and seventh (or the strong) parts of the Measure.

^{*} Morley (edit. 1597), p. 90 (edit. 1771), p. 100. Butler, p. 64, Simpson, p. 19. Pepusch, p. 57. Rameau, p. 112. Holden, p. 34, art. 98. Kollmann, Essay on Harmony, p. 96, (chap. xiii. § 21). Dr. B. i. 103.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE RESTS.

Art. 85. When, in the course of a Movement, silence is required for one or more parts of a Measure, that silence is denoted by a Rest, or Rests, which are counted exactly in the same time as their corresponding Notes would be, if performed.

The Rests of the white Notes are made in the middle of the Staff; thus,



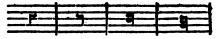
- 1. The Breve Rest extends from Line to Line.
- 2. The Semibreve Rest is made below the Line.
- 3. The Minim Rest is made above the Line*. The Semibreve Rest is also used in Triple and Compound Time, to express the silence of one whole Measure; and the Breve Rest is used for the silence of two Measures.

The Rest of four Semibreves, or two Breves, passes through two spaces. This is only used in the single parts of Instrumental Pieces. Rousseau, art. Baton.

In this last instance, the figure 2 is generally placed over the Rest; thus,



86. The Rests of the Black Notes are made thus,



- 1. The Crotchet Rest turns to the right.
- 2. The Quaver Rest turns to the left.
- 3. The Semiquaver Rest turns to the left, and has two marks.
- 4. The Demisemiquaver Rest has three masks, and turns to the left also.

As the Rests are inserted in the Measures, to fill up the Time when no Sounds are to be heard, the Performer should, of course, pay particular attention to the termination of the Notes which precede them.

In playing Keyed Instruments, the Rests are often much neglected; and, unless the Player carefully raises the finger from the Key (but not too far) at the exact commencement of the Rest, the intended effect is destroyed.

An instance of the great attention necessary to be paid to these signs, is shewn in the following Example, where the variety of these three Measures wholly depends on the Rests, the Music being exactly the same in every other respect of Tune, Time, and Accent*.



* The Author is induced to insert here, in addition to these remarks on the observance of Rests, the excellent ideas of C. P. Em. Bach (Versuch. edit. 1787, p. 85, Vom Vortrage), upon the true method of playing Keyed Instruments.

An abridgment of his system is thus attempted in a few lines.

- "To form a clear, pleasing, and expressive Performer, three things are requisite:
- "1. To play correctly, by covering every Note with the singer before it is struck (when possible), so that, in the most difficult passages, the motion of the hands may be scarcely perceived (p. 13).
- "2. To make the Instrument sing, by taking one finger off the Key at the instant the other strikes the following Note; and by never playing the Notes short or detached, except when expressly marked (p. 88).
- "9. To play with expression, by forcing the finger down upon the Key (already covered and lightly touched), according to the Accent or Emphasis" (p. 93).

On this subject see also Clementi's Introduction, p. 15. Dussek's Instructions, p. 8. Hullmandel's Principles, p. 19.

CHAP. V.

OF THE SHARPS, FLATS, &c.

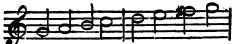
Art. 87. In explaining the Tune of Notes (Art. 45, p. 20), the two different intervals of Tone and Semitone have been noticed. Every Tone in the Natural Scale, is divided into two Semitones, by an intermediate Sound. This Sound is produced, upon Keyed Instruments, by striking the short Key inserted between two long ones, which are consequently Tones to each other.

SECT. I .- OF THE SHARPS.

88. When the short Key is to be played, instead of the natural Note below it (on the left), then the same letter is used, with the additional term sharp*.

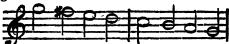
The character now used for the Sharp, was originally designed to represent, by its four cross lines, the four Commas of the Chromatic Semitone. Such is the signification of the mark given by Bontempi (1695), p. 205, from the Recanetum of Vanneo (Roma, 1593); but Marcheto de Padua, who first employed it (1274), does not mention this circumstance. See Gerbert, Scriptores Ecclesiastici (1784), iii. 73, 89. Dr. B. ii. 163, 351. Sir J. H. i. 78.

89. Thus, to make another fourth, similar to the upper one of C (Art. 50, p. 22), with two Tones and a Semitone, and placed immediately above it, at the distance of a Tone; the *F natural* must be omitted, and the *F sharp* taken in its stead.



The character placed before F is called a Sharp*.

90. These two fourths united, form a new Scale, of which G is the Key Note, exactly similar to C, but five Degrees higher. Its descending series proves, by the Melody, that the Tones and Semitones are between the same Degrees of the Scale.



91. As the Scale of G is made complete by this alteration of the F alone, F is reckoned the first Sharp.

^{*} The Germans consider this character as an alteration of the letter B, and call it a Cross (Kreuz), or latticed B (Gegittertes Be, B cancellatum), Adlang (Hiller's edit. 1788), p. 251. Sir J. H. iv. 168. They also add the syllable IS to the names of those letters of the Scale which are sharpened. Thus Fis, Cis, Gis, Dis, Ais, Eis, and His, signify F, C, G, D, A, E, and B sharp.

For a similar reason (that of forming a new fourth above the upper one of G Scale), C is termed the second Sharp*. Thus the series of Sharps ascends by fifths; which, in respect of the Letters, is the same as descending by fourths.

FCGDA

These Sharps are performed, on Keyed Instruments, with the five short Keys above; that is, on the right hand of the long ones: the division of two † consists of C sharp and D sharp; the remaining three are F sharp, G sharp, and A sharp.

92. But, since there are no short Keys between E and F, nor between B and C, which are only Semitones to each other (Art. 46, 48, p. 20, 21), F natural is employed to express E sharp, and C natural to express B sharp.

When these Notes, E and B become sharpened, their own long Keys are never used; and, by their introduction, the series of sharps is extended to all the seven Notes.

F C G D A E B

The French use the term Dièse, derived from the Greek word Diesis, and annex it to the syllables of Guido. Thus, Fadièse signifies F sharp; Ut-dièse, C sharp, &c.

⁺ See Art. 32, p. 15.

SECT. II.—OF THE FLATS.

93. When the short Key is to be played, instead of the natural Note above it (on the right), then the same letter is used, with the additional term flat*.

Thus, to make another fourth similar to the lower one of C (Art. 50, p. 22), with a Semitone and two Tones, placed also below it (extending to the left), at the distance of a Tone, the B natural must be omitted, and the B flat taken in its stead.



The character placed before B is called a Flat.

The mark now used for the Flat, was originally the letter B, introduced to avoid the *Tritone* or sharp Fourth, between F and B natural. By the ancient writers (Guido, &c.) it was termed B-molle: that is, the soft, or (according to some) the moveable B. See Gerbers (De Cantu, 1774, ii. 72).

Walther's Lexicon (1762) contains a long article, and an extract, from Simon de Quercu (1509) on the subject. Before the literal Notation of the middle ages, and its present appellation, B flat was employed as the Trite (or third sound descending), of the Synemmenon or conjunct Tetrachord of the Greek Scale,

94. These two fourths united, form a new Scale, of which F is the Key Note; exactly similar to C, but five Degrees lower. Its descending series proves, by the Melody, that the Tones and Semitones are between the same Degrees of the Scale.



95. As the Scale of F is made complete by this alteration of B alone, B is reckoned the first Flat*. For a similar reason (that of forming a new fourth below the lower one of the F Scale), E is termed the second Flat. Thus the series of Flats ascends by fourths, which, in respect to the letters, is the same as descending by fifths.

B E A D G

This character was formerly of such importance, that it is enumerated by Gafarius among the Clefs (see the Note, p. 8), and was accounted the Clef of the F Hexachord, as the other two Clefs, now called Tenor and Base, were of the G and C Mexachords. These letters were selected from the seven, to shew the places of the three Semitones, in the three different Scales of Guido, termed naturale, durum, and molle; and, being the highest sounds of the two which formed each Semitone, were always sung with the syllable Fa.

These Flats are performed, on Keyed Instruments, with the five short Keys below; that is, on the left of the long ones: the division of two consists of E flat and D flat; and the other three are B flat, A flat, and G flat. For the reason given (Art. 92, p. 51) concerning the Sharps, B natural is employed to express C flat, and E natural is employed to express F flat. Thus the whole series of seven Flats is completed.

B E A D G C F

This series is exactly the reverse of that given of the Sharps (Art. 92, p. 51).

It must be recollected, that every one of the short Keys has two different letters for its name, according to the natural Note for which it is employed.

Thus, the middle Key of the three short ones is equally used as the third Sharp in the place

The Germans add the syllable es to the names of the letters which are flat (except B, which retains its original signification); and their series, B, Es, As, Des, Ges, Ces, and Fes, correspond to the Scale given above. See also Dr. B. ii. 78, 392, upon the subject of B flat.

The French use the term bémol, from the Latin, and annex it to the Vocal Syllable: thus, Si bémol is B flat; Mi bémol, E flat, &c.

of G natural below it, and as the third Flat in the place of A natural above it.

96. When any number of Sharps or Flats are placed after the Clef, at the beginning of the Staff, they affect all the Notes of the same letter in every Octave throughout the Movement, and are termed the Signature.

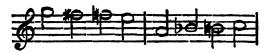
Those which occur in the course of the Movement, in addition to the others, are termed accidental*, to distinguish them from those of the Signature, which are essential to the Scale of the original Key Note.

The accidental Flats and Sharps only affect the Notes which they immediately precede, and those of the same letter which follow them in the same Measure; but, if one Measure ends, and the next begins, with the same Note, the accidental Character which alters the first Note, is understood to affect the second.

^{*} Naumberger (of Reading, Berkshire), in his translation of Turk's Klavier Schule (1804), p. 4, translates the German term, Versetzung-zeichen, Marks of Transposition. Kollmann, Essay on Harmony, p. 8, calls them Accidentals. See also Malcolm, p. 365. Holden, p. 21, art. 57.

SECT. III.-OF THE NATURAL.

97. When any Note, which has been elevated by a Sharp, or depressed by a Flat, is to be restored to its original place, the character called a Natural* is employed; which lowers the sharpened Note, or raises the flattened Note; thus,



The Natural, although a very ancient character, was not used by Morley, Simpson, or Playford. They always employed the Flat to take away the Sharp, and the Sharp to take

[•] Gafurius (Practica, fol. 2), asserts, that the character of the Natural, or B Quadrum (i. e. Quadratum), is formed of two Greek Gammas joined invertedly (conversim conjuncta): but it is generally described as a Gothic or square B, made in that form to distinguish it from the round B, which expressed the Flat.

The ancient printers, not having a proper type cast to represent this character, used the small letter h; a specimen of which may be seen in the Dialogo of Vincentio Galilei (1581), p. 4. Adhing (edit. 1783), p. 196, attributes the German method of using the letter H, instead of B natural, to the same cause. See Kollmann, Essay on Composition (1799), p. 52. Sir J. H. v. 254.

away the Flat, in the same manner as we now use the Natural*.

Hence are found, in old Music, the Sharp before B, and the Flat before F; not, as now, to represent B Sharp and F Flat; but merely to take away a preceding Flat or Sharp.

The Natural, although evidently an accidental Character, and a more general expression for the two others (the Sharp and the Flat), is sometimes placed essentially at the beginning of a Strain, when a former part of the same Movement has had a Sharp or Flat in its Signature. (See Steibelt's Sonatas, Op. 37, Turkish Rondo, p. 10). According to its power, therefore, of raising or lowering any Note of the Scale, the Natural must be always considered as representing a Sharp or a Flat.

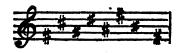
[•] The German Scale of the natural Notes is A, H, C, D, E, F, G; not A, B, C, &c.; the B is always reserved to express B Flat.

The French call the Natural Béquarre (Rousseau).

[†] In Handel's Song of Pious Orgies, Judas Maccabæus (No. I.), the Natural is frequently employed; and, in one particular Measure, sharpens the Treble and flattens the Base. More concerning these characters may be found in Butler, p. 21; Simpson, p. 5; and Holden, p. 17, art. 43. Turner (p. 51), calls the Natural a Mark of Restoration.

SECT. IV.—OF THE DOUBLE SHARP.

98. After all the Notes of Music have been made sharp, the same series of letters begins again, and F, being the first, takes the name of F double sharp*. It is performed, on Keyed Instruments, by striking the long Key G natural; which is not, however, to be reckoned then as a Tone from F Natural, being placed on the same Degree as F (Art. 47, p. 20), and also consisting of two Chromatic (or Minor) Semitones.



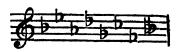
* The Double Sharp is sometimes marked with a single cross, thus, +, which, according to Vanneo (see the Note, p. 49), originally represented the two Commas of the Quarter Tone, or enharmonic Diesis, and which properly represents the distance between the F double sharp and the G Natural.

Keeble (Harmonics, 1784), p. 196, censures Kircher and Zarlino for the improper use of this character. See Kircher, Musungia (1650), i. 145, 659. Zarlino (1589), i. 363. Salinas (1577), p. 121. Padre Martini, Storia (1757), i. 97, 106. Lengue Rossi (1666), p. 45. Sir J. H. i. 110.

SECT. V .-- OF THE DOUBLE FLAT.

99. In the same manner, after all the seven Notes of Music have been made flat, the same series of letters begins again with B; and that, being the first, takes the name of B double flat*.

It is performed by striking the long Key A natural two Chromatic Semitones lower. It is worthy notice, that, as the first Sharp is the lowest, and the first Flat the highest of the three short Keys which are near to each other; so the first Double Sharp and the first Double Flat (the only two in general use) are played with the two long Keys which are enclosed by F sharp and B flat.



The Germans have sometimes employed a large B, as the character of the Double Flat. The difficulties arising from this mark are stated by Turk (Klavier Schule, 1789), p. 50. Dussek, in his Introduction, p. 36, unites the two B's with a kind of Hook, similar to the grouping of Quavers (Art. 64, p. 27). The German names for the Double Sharps, are, Fisfis, Ciscis, &c.; and for the Double Flats, Bebe, Eses, Asas, Desdes, &c. Adlung, p. 254.

100. As these two Characters, viz. the Double Sharp and the Double Flat, seldom occur, the mode of restoring the single Sharp, or Flat, after the use of the double Character, varies with different authors*. Some use a single Sharp or Flat; some employ a Natural, or else unite the single Sharp or Flat with the Natural†; thus, \$\frac{1}{2}\$, \$\frac{1}{2}\$, and others again leave the passage to the ear and judgment of the performer, who ought (they suppose), if able to play in seven Sharps, to know how to restore the altered Note to its proper situation, without any particular mark.

[•] Even in respect of the Double Sharp, instances are found in Handel, where it is not distinguished by any particular mark, but where only a common single sharp is placed against F, already sharp in the Signature. See H. S. i. No. 9: Fly from the threatening.

[†] Some of the writers in Germany are (28 Turk, p. 52, observes), precipitate in their judgments, and therefore frequently erroneous. G. F. Wolfe (1783), p. 22. Lohlein (1765), p. 11. Tubel (1767), p. 9. Merbach (1782), p. 13.

CHAP. VI.

OF GRACES, CHARACTERS, MARKS OF EXPRESSION, AND ABBREVIATIONS.

SECT. I.-OF GRACES.

Art. 101. As the German authors, C. P. Emanuel Bach, and G. D. Turk, have treated at large on the subject of Musical Graces (Manieren*), a short sketch of their doctrines will here be given.

102. The principal Graces of Melody are, the Appoggiatura, the Shake, the Turn, and the Beat; with the Mordent, Beat, Slide, and Spring, peculiar to the Germans. The chief ornaments of Harmony are, the Arpeggio, Tremando, &c. †

^{*} Bach, p. 45. Turk, p. 207.

[†] The old English Graces, published by Simpson (Division Viol. 1667), as defined by Dr. Colman, are divided into two classes,—the smooth and the shaked Graces. In the first class are the Beat, Backfall, double Backfall, Elevation, Springer, and Cadent; in the second are the shaked Backfall, close Shake, shaked Beat, shaked Elevation, shaked Cadent, and double Relish. (See also Playford p. 100).

103. I. The Approgramma* (Vorschlag) is a small Note placed before a large one of longer duration, from which it generally borrows half the value, and always occurs on the strong part of the Measure.

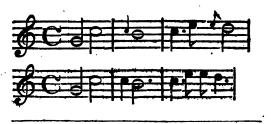
The Appoggiatura, as written.



As performed.



104. Sometimes, however, the Appoggiatura is only one quarter of the Note it precedes, as in the following Example; thus,



^{*} Dr. Burney, art. Appoggiature. Dr. Rees' Cyclopadia.

CHAP. VI. GRACES, CHARACTERS, &c. 63

105. When a small Note follows a larger one, and depends upon that for its time, the name of After-Note (Nachschlag*) will be used in this Work, to distinguish it from the Appoggiatura.

This Grace always occurs on the weak part of the Measure.

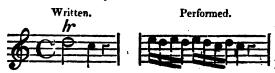


which do not constitute the essential, but the ornamental parts of Melody, into two classes.

I. Passing Notes (Durchgehende Noten); and II. Changing Notes (Wechselnde Noten); but the Appeggiatura, when it is a suspension of the large Note before it, as in the Example just adduced (Art. 103), does not belong to either class. These will be explained in the Third Part of this Work, upon Harmony.

^{*} The German word Nachachley, is also used to express
the turn of the Shake.

107. II. The Shake* (Triller) consists of a quick alternate repetition of the Note above, with that over which the mark is placed; and commonly ends with a turn from the Note below. It is usually defined thus:



In this Example the upper Note is accented: there are, however, instances in which the Composer seems to have designed that the lower Note, or that over which the Shake is placed, should be accented; thus,

(Handel's second Organ Concertos, Dr. Arnold's edit. No. 124, p. 9).



The principal of written Note of the Shake (over which the Character is placed), is called by the Germans the *Haupt-ton*; and the secondary or superior Note, the *Hülfston*.

Bach, p. 51. Turk, p. 252. Sir J. H. iv. 469. Dr. B.
 iii. 528, 616. Clementi, p. 11. Dussek, p. 6. Hullamandel,
 p. 27.

108. The following Method of practising the Vocal Shake, has been communicated to the Author of the present Work by his friend Mr. Greatorex, to whom it was given at Rome, in the year 1786, by Santarelli, Chapel-Master to the Pope.



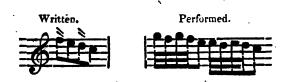
Performed in practice thus:



109. A series of continued Shakes, on Notes rising or falling by degrees, is called by the Germans Triller Kette, and by the Italians Catena di Trilli, both signifying a chain of Shakes.

a.B.

110. The Passing Shake* (Præll Triller) is expressed in Germany by a particular character; and its definition varies with different Masters, and in different passages. The explanation of Dr. Arnold (Op. XII. p. 38) is therefore given here, with the mark he adopted for it.



The Mordente of the Italian School is used in similar passages, and performed thus:



Some remarks on the various methods of performing these Graces, are given by Clementi (Introduction), p. 11.

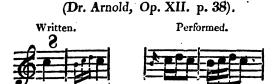
[•] Turk, p. 272.

CHAP. VI. GRACES, CHARACTERS, &c. 67

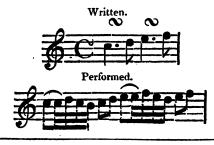
111. III. The Turn* (Doppelschlag) employs the Note above and that below, in the following manner:



112. The *Inverted Turn* begins from the Note below.



The Turn on the dotted Note is in frequent use.



* Bach, p. 61.

113. IV. The Beat* is the reverse of the Shake (but without the Turn), and made generally at the distance of the Semitone below; therefore all the Natural Notes, excepting C and F, require the Note below them to be accidentally sharpened for the Beat.



The Beat upon B natural, however, is seldom made with A sharp, on account of the great harshness arising from the vicinity of the Semitone B C.

In some cases of regular ascent, it is recommended not to make the Beat with the Semitone, unless particularly marked. (See Clementi, p. 11).

Battement. Turk, p. 281.

CHAP. VI. GRACES, CHARACTERS, &c. 69

114. In the Half Beat (Zusammenschlag) the inferior Note is struck only once, and at the same time with the principal Note, but is immediately quitted. This is frequently used upon the Organ, and particularly in the Base*. It may be written by a small Note, like a short Appoggiatura, and is very similar to the Acciaccatura† of the Italians.



115. In the Third Part of this Work, upon Harmony, will be shewn how the Diatonic Suspensions and Transitions arise from the Approgratura and the After Note; while the Chromatic Licenses are derived from the Acciacatura or Half Beat. These Graces are therefore of very great theoretical importance.

^{*} Kollmann, Essay on Composition, p. 98, terms it a Bass-Grace, and shews how it is employed to strengthen the parts, and to supply the want of Pedals.

[†] Dr. Burney, art. Acciaccatura. Dr. Rees' Cyclopædia. Gasparini (Armonica Prattico, 1729, edit. 3d), p. 63.

116. V. The German Mordent* (Beisser) is a species of Beat, commencing with the Note itself, and is either long or short; thus,





This differs considerably from the Mordente before described (Art. 110, p. 66), being made with the next Degree below. That of the Italian School always employs the next Degree above.

117. VI. The German Beat † (Anschlag) consists of two small Notes, which form a Skip, and descends one Degree upon the principal Note.



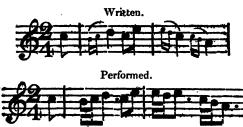
In the translation of Turk (p. 26), Naumberger calls this Grace a double Appoggiatura.

^{*} Bach, 75. Turk, 275.

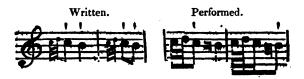
[†] Bach, 77. Turk, 241.

CHAP. VI. GRACES, CHARACTERS, &c. 71

. 118. VII. The German Slide* (Schleiffer) consists of two small Notes, which move by Degrees; thus,



119. VIII. The German Spring + (Schneller) consists of two small Notes, like the Italian Mordente, but very distinct; thus,



120. All these Graces are liable to the occasional alteration of any of their Notes, by Sharps, Flats, or Naturals; and, in that case, the Composer is expected to mark them as they are to be performed.

^{*} Bach, 80. Turk, 245.

⁺ Bach, 83. Turk, 251.

- 121. To these Graces of Melody may be added those of Harmony; the Tremolo (Bebung), or reiteration of one Note of the Chord; the Tremondo, or general shake of the whole Chord; and the Arpeggio (Brechung), or imitation of the Harp, by striking the Notes of the Chord in quick and repeated succession.
- 122. Clementi (Introduction), p. 9, has given an explanation of two different characters used for a Chord (or combination of several sounds struck together), upon Keyed Instruments.
- 1. When a Waving Line is placed vertically before the Chord, the Notes are played successively, from the lowest ascending to the highest, and retained down the full time of the Chord.
- 2. When an Oblique Line passes through the Chord, it is played as before, with the addition of a Note* where the oblique Line is placed; but this added Note is not to be kept down.

Written. Played.

^{*} This added Note is the Acciaccatura before described (Art. 114, p. 69), and answers to the Zusammensciag of the Germans. Turk, 279.

SECT. II.—OF THE CHARACTERS.

123. Those Characters used in Music which do not form a part of any particular class, like the Clefs, Notes, Rests, Sharps, Flats, Naturals, or Graces, are the Tye or Ligature, the Pause, the Repeat, the Direct, the Single Bar, and the Double Bar. But, as the Tye is similar in form to the Slur, it will be classed among the Marks of expression in the next Section.

124. The Pause* is placed over a Note, to signify that the regular time of the Movement is to be delayed, and a long continuance of the Sound made on that part of the Measure.

(H.S. II. No. 82: Bless'd the day-Solomon).



[•] Butler, p. 38, calls the Rests Pauses, and the Pause a Close. The Italian term is Coronata, Zaccharia Tevo (1705), p. 55; and the German, Fermate, Petri (Anleitung 1782), p. 145. Holden, p. 37, calls the Pause a Hold.

The Pause, when found on the last Note but one of a Meledy, is a sign for the Vocal or Instrumental Performer to introduce such extemporary passages, previous to the final Shake, as are generally termed a Cadenza. 125. If the Pause is placed over a Rest, then a stop of considerable length is made; and the part must be silent.

(H.S. I. No. 31: Let festive joy-Belshazzar).



126. The same character is employed for another purpose in those Songs of Handel, Hasse, Vinci, &c. which have a second part, and are marked Da Capo*.

(H. S. II. No. 157: As when the dooe—Acis and Galatea).



The pause, in this example, only shews the Note upon which the piece is finally to terminate; but it is not always followed by the Double Bar.

Da Capo are two Italian words, which signify from the beginning, and are frequently joined with al Segno, which mean, that the Performer is to return, and to commence the Repeat at the sign.

CHAP. VI. GRACES, CHARACTERS, &c. 75

127. The Repeat* (\$\sigma\$) is a sign employed to shew the place to which the Performer must return to repeat the passage. It is usually found in Rondos and Da Capo Airs; and it marks that place, in the first strain, where the repetition is to commence. This mark is called in Italian, Segno, or the Sign.

(H. S. I. No. 153: War he sung—Alexander's Feast).



128. The Direct + (W) is a sign employed at the end of the Staff, to shew upon what Degree the first Note of the following Staff is placed.

(Rameau, Treatise, p. 168).

Mark of repetition. Morley, p. 74. Simpson, p. 19.
 Malcolm, p. 411.

[†] The Direct is called by Morley (p. 22), Index or Director. Butler, p. 37. Holden, p. 38, art. 118.

129. The Single Bar* has been already mentioned (Art. 65, p. 28) as dividing the Movement into equal portions or Measures. It is considered in Germany as a mark of the grammatical Accent; since the first Time† of every Measure is always a strong part, and is distinguished by a particular pressure.

When the inner sides of two Bars are dotted, all the Measures between them are to be repeated. See an instance of this kind of repetition, (H. S. I. No. 68: Sin not, O King—Saul).



The word Bis (twice) is sometimes placed over passages of this kind, whether the Bars are, or are not dotted.

^{*} Butler, p. 38, terms the ancient thick single Bar the imperfect Close. Simpson, p. 19. Malcolm, p. 411.

[†] The Author is induced to adopt the expression of the ancient authors, and to call the parts of the Measure, Times. Art. 65, p. 28. See also Malcolm, p. 399. The particular utility of the term will appear in the Fourth Part of this Work, upon Rhythm.

CHAP. VI. GRACES, CHARACTERS, &c. 77

130. The Double Bar* is placed always at the end of a Movement, and is sometimes used at other parts, to shew the rhetorical termination of a Strain.

If the Double Bar is dotted on one or both sides, all the Measures on the same side with the dots are to be repeated from the beginning, or from the antecedent Double Bar.

131. When the rhetorical termination of a Strain does not coincide with the grammatical Accent, the Double Bar is then totally distinct from the Single Bar, and the Measures are only neckoned between the single Bars, although the Double Bar may intervene.

(H. S. V. No. 374: Above Messure— Semele).



This Double Bar does not affect the Measure in which it is placed, but the time is kept exactly as if it were not inserted.

Ornithoparcus, p. 52, calls this a Rest General; considers
it as analogous to the other Rests described, Art. 85, p. 46,
and places it in the same class of characters.

- 132. As it appears, from the preceding observations, that the Double Bar is very different and distinct from the Single Bar, the grammatical use of the latter must not be confounded with the rhetorical employment of the former.
- 133. If every piece of Music ended with a complete Measure, and if the necessity of commencing with single Times (Art. 82, p. 42) did not sometimes exist, the Double Bar might be neglected; but, as it is important to mark the termination of those Strains which have their last Measures incomplete, this character is adopted, and the Double Bar bears the same relation to the Strain as the Single Bar does to the Measure.
- 134. Every Measure contains a certain number of Notes (Art. 66, p. 28), which are terminated by the Single Bar; and every Strain* includes a certain number of Measures, which are terminated by the Double Bar.

^{*}The rhetorical division of the Strain into Phrases, Sections, and Periods, with the utility of the Cæsure, will be explained in the Fourth Part of this Work, upon Rhythm; and, as the Comma, Semicolon, and Full Stop of Elocution, have all their respective analogies in Musical Punctuation, by the Phrase, Section, and Period; so also the Colon is found to resemble that final part of a Movement which is termed the Coda.

SECT. III.—OF THE MARKS OF EXPRESSION.

135. The chief Marks of Expression are, the Slur, and the Dash or Point; to which may be added the Tye, or Ligature.

136. The Tye* is an arch drawn over two Notes on the same Degree, uniting them into one. Upon Keyed Instruments, the first only is struck; but the finger is kept down during the time of both.

(H. S. III. No. 180: Our fruits-Joseph).



137. The Tye is also used to express those syncopated Notes which, in ancient Music, were divided by the Bar.

(Corelli, Concerto I. Opera 6th).



^{*} See Note, p. 27, of this Work. Holden, p. 38, art. 114.

138. The Slur* is a similar arch, drawnover two or more Notes, upon different Degrees, and signifies that all the Notes are to be played as smoothly and as much united as possible. In Vocal Music, it is placed over or under all the Notes which are to be sung to the same syllable.

(H. S. III. No. 191: Our limpid streams— Joshua).



139. When the Slur is placed only overtwo Notes, the second is generally made shorter than its proper length. Formerly, this effect was produced by exact Notation.

(H. S. I. No. 1: Pious Orgies-Judas).



[•] In the Translation of Turk (p. 26), the term Shur is applied to the Grace, Art. 118, p. 71, called Schleiffer, or a Slide.

CHAP. VI. GRACES, CHARACTERS, &c. 81

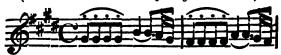
140. The Dash* is a small stroke, placed over those Notes which are to be performed in a very short and distinct manner.

(H. S. III. 'No. 182: Descend, kind pity— Theodora).



141. The Point is a mark employed by many authors instead of the Dash; but its principal use is to distinguish those Notes from which an intermediate effect, different from the Slur or the Dash, is required, and yet uniting both.

(H. S. I. No. 61: Comfort ye-Mesniah).



When these passages are performed on Keyed Instruments, the finger is not kept close, as in the *Slur*, nor raised, as in the *Dash*, but dropped gently on the Note, and taken off before the Time is wholly completed.

^{*} Holden, p. 39, art. 114.

- 142. There are other Marks of Expression, which have been lately adopted, to express the effect of certain Italian terms*.
- 1. Crescendo, or increasing the sound from soft to loud, is marked by an angle, < the lines extending to the right.
- 2. Diminuendo, or diminishing the sound from loud to soft, by the contrary sign.

The union of both, indicates that the first part of the passage is to be soft, the middle loud, and the last soft again, as the figure shews.

3. Rinforzando is denoted by smaller marks of the same kind, > <, which are to increase or diminish the Note as marked.

^{*} Clementi, p. 9. Dussek, p. 45.

[†] Mr. Shield (p. 14). See also Art. 83, p. 44, of this Work.

SECT. IV.-OF ABBREVIATIONS.

143. When the same Note, or similar passages, are to be repeated, much time is saved to the Composer and Copyist, by the use of Abbreviations.

A single stroke, over or under a Semibreve, or through the Stem of a Minim or Crotchet, divides them into Quavers; a double stroke into Semiquavers; and a triple stroke into Demisemiquavers; thus,

(H. S. I. No. 16: Let the bright Scraphin —Samson).



144. These passages, in Italian Music, had formerly the word Crome (Quavers), or Semicrome (Semiquavers), annexed to them. At present we often use the term Segue, to signify that we must perform the following Notes in the manner in which the first are marked.

145. Another kind of Abbreviation is very frequently used in modern Music, viz. grouping the Stems of Minims like those of Quavers (Art. 64, p. 27).

(Pleyel's Duos, Viol. and Violonc. Op. 12, p. 2, Violino).

Written.

Performed.





Several other species of Abbreviation are given in Koch's Lexicon, art. Abkürzung; and also in Clementi, p. 8. Shield, p. 124, &c.

END OF THE FIRST PART.

PART II.

MELODY.

CHAP. I.

OF INTERVALS.

SECT. I.—OF INTERVALS IN GENERAL.

Art. 146. A particular succession of single sounds forms a *Melody** or Tune; as in the following Example:

(God save the King).

This simple and popular definition of Melody, only presents an outline of the true idea annexed to the term. In a more extensive sense, Melody implies not only the progression of one single part, but also that general result of the various parts in Harmony which produce the effect of Melody by the proper distribution of their sounds. Prinz seems to have been the first who distinguished between the Monodie Style, in which the Melody is confined to one single part, and the Polyodic Style, in which the Theme, and its dependent subjects, are distributed among the different parts of the composition. These two epithets, Prinz appears to have taken from Kircher; and this profound and original view of

147. Melody has, in respect of Tune, two distinct Motions; that of Degrees, and that of Skips*.

A Melody proceeds by Degrees, when it moves to the next Line or space above or below; as in the following Example:



148. A Melody proceeds by Skips, when it omits one or more Degrees, as in the following Example:



Melody has been very ably developed by Nichelman of Berlin, who clearly proves, that those pieces which are produced by the Monodic design of the Composer, are far inferior to the Polyodic arrangement of the same ideas. In this last class we may place the Motetts of Palestrina, the Choruses of Handel, and the Symphonies of Haydn. See Prinz (Satyrical Composer, Part III. chap. xi. p. 97; chap. xviii. p. 131), 1696. Kircher (Musurgia, i. p. 531). Nichelman (Melodie), 1755.

- * These expressions, in Italian, are di grado and di salto.
- † Composed by John Weldon (1699) in the Judgment of Paris, and afterwards introduced in the Comic Opera of Love in a Village. Sir J. H. v. 68. Dr. B. iv. 658.
- † Occasional Oratorio, 1745 (Handel's Songs, i. No. 18), Dr. Arnold's edit. No. 104, p. 222.

149. In general, Degrees and Skips are intermixed; as in the Melody of the Easter Hymn.



150. The Degrees † and Skips of Melody are both called by the general term Interval; which is the distance between two Sounds, or their difference in respect of Pitch. Every Interval, therefore, implies two Sounds; one acute, the other grave; in common language, high and low; and as, in measuring, it is usual to consider the termination of distance more than the space contained; so, in Music, the Notes which limit the Interval, are both called by the name of the Interval itself. Thus, from the F Clef to the C Clef, is contained the Interval of a fifth, both terms inclusive; and C is said to be a fifth above F, and F a fifth below C.

[■] Printed by Walsh in 1708, in a Collection of Divine Songs and Hymne, entitled Lyra Davidica. The Air is found at page 11, but written in Quavers.

[†] The word Degree has already been applied to the fine-Lines and four Spaces of the Staff; but it is necessary to extend its signification further, and to comprehend in it the term Interval; since, in the Chromatic Semitone, B flat and B natural are on the same Degree, and yet produce different Sounds, forming thereby a distance or Interval,

SECT. II.—OF THE NAMES OF INTERVALS*.

151. The names of Intervals are derived from the number of Degrees which are contained between the two sounds; both extremes being reckoned inclusively. Thus the Interval of a Second consists of two Degrees; and, as these may be distant from each other, either by one Tone, or by one Semitone, there are consequently two kinds of Seconds, viz. a Major Second or Tone, and a Minor Second or Semitone,

152. The Natural Scale of Music, which, proceeding by Degrees, includes both Tones and Semitones, is called *Diatonic*; a word compounded of *Dia* and *Tonic*, from the Greek *Dia*, through, and *Tonos*, a Tone; because the greater number of Intervals in the Scale, viz. five out of seven, are Tones.

153. The Diatonic Scale includes all the dif-

^{*} The inaccuracies, which sometimes occur in very respectable Authors, concerning Intervals, arise from adopting the terms of common language without sufficient precaution. See Kollmann's Thorough Bass (1801), p. 2. Shield. p. 4.—For example, the distance from one place to another may be two miles, as the Interval from the Note C to the Note D is formed of two Semitones; and as, when we arrive at either place, we say this is (the end of) two miles; so at D we say this is (from C) a Tone; and at C, this is (from D) a Tone; yet the two sounds only form the Interval of two Semitones.

ferent Intervals* formed by the Natural Notes, and also all those which are produced in transposing the Natural Scale higher or lower, by the employment of Sharps and Flats. Those Intervals which exceed the limits of the Octave, as the ninth, tenth, eleventh, &c. being only replicates of the second, third, fourth, &c. are omitted here, but will be particularly noticed in treating of Harmony.

Those Intervals which are less than the Diatonic Semitone, as from F to F sharp, &c. will be distributed, with all other Intervals derived from them, into proper classes in the third Chapter of this Part, upon the Genera.

^{*} It may not be improper to remark, that a considerable difficulty arises from the distribution of Intervals upon Keyed Instruments, and that the Student does not readily perceive how an Interval is to be found between two Keys, as B and C, or E and F, which are close together. The method of stopping the Violin, or the Frets on the Guittar and Lute, shews the nature of Intervals much more clearly. For instance, the third string of the Violin is tuned to the once-marked D (Art. 37. n. 17); but when shortened by one-ninth of the space between the Nut and the Bridge, will sound E, a Tone higher; one-sixteenth of the remaining length being further taken. the sound F, a Semitone higher, is heard. A just idea of Intervals is hereby obtained; and, as the latter is nearly half the magnitude of the former, the Interval from D to E ia called a Tone, and from E to F a Semitone, being real Spaces taken upon the length of the string.

SECT. III.—OF THE FOURTEEN DIATONIC INTERVALS.

154. As the Intervals take their names from the number of included Degrees, so also their species are ascertained by the epithets, Major and Minor, given them, according to the number of Tones or Semitones contained inclusively between their extremes. If the Intervals were all equal in the Scale, eight Degrees would form only seven Intervals; but, as there are two different distances of Semitone and Tone, for which the Notation by the Staff alone does not provide, there are consequently fourteen Diatonic Intervals. These are distinguished by the term Major or Minor, greater or lesser, and, in some few cases, sharp or flat.

155. 1. The Unison, or the same identical sound, although it cannot properly be reckoned an Interval, is always considered as such, when employed in Harmony; it is therefore inserted here among the intervals of Melody. The present opportunity may be taken of improving the Student in the practice of the seven Clefs, and shewing their practical utility.

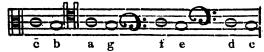
Example of the Unison, or the same Sound, being the once-marked C (Art. 37, p. 17) in all the Clefs.



Example of the Descending Scale of the once-marked Octave in the G and C Clefs.



Descending Scale of the small Octave (Art. 36, p. 16) in the C and F Clefs.



156. II. The Minor Second is formed by two Sounds, at the distance of a Diatonic Semitone, as B C and E F. C is a Minor Second higher than B, and B a Minor Second lower than C. The same is true with respect to E and F. This Interval is sometimes called the Flat Second; and the term is useful in Harmony. It is found also in the other Scales,

between F sharp and G, B flat and A, &c. as in the following example:



All these are Diatonic Semitones, and form Minor or Flat Seconds*.

157. III. The Major Second or Tone, although composed of two Semitones, does not consist of two equal parts. This is evident from the Notation itself; for, if the Tone from F to G be divided by the Sound F sharp, then the Intervals between F sharp and G, or the Diatonic Semitone, will not be the same as that from F to F sharp, or the Chromatic Semitone. The former changes one Degree, the latter remains on the same Degree, and hence the former is, according to the theory of Zar-

From this statement, the nature of Melody, when Sharps and Flats are employed, may be readily perceived; for, after a Sharp, the part rises, and after a Flat the part falls. Thus also E and B have the effect of Sharps, and the Melody in general ascends to F and C; on the contrary, F and C have the effect of Flats, and the Melody in general descends to E and B. The importance of these remarks cannot be justly appreciated till the transposition of the Natural Scale into two Sharps and into two Flats, and also the use of the Semitone in Harmony is understood.

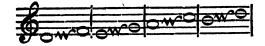
lino, Rameau, and Pepusch, something larger than the latter. The Tones and other Intervals of the Natural Scale are, in this Work, separated into Semitones, &c. by the character called a Direct.



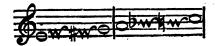
The other Tones introduced by transposition, are,



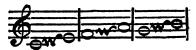
158. IV. The Minor Third is composed of three Degrees, and contains a Tone and a Diatonic Semitone between the two extremes; thus,



It is also divisible into three Semitones, two Diatonic and one Chromatic; thus,



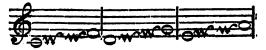
159. V. The Major Third* is composed of three Degrees, and contains two Tones between the extremes; thus,



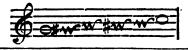
It is also divisible into four Semitones, two Diatonic and two Chromatic; thus,



160. VI. The *Perfect Fourth* is composed of four Degrees, and contains two **Fones** and a Semitone between the extremes; thus,

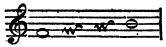


It is also divisible into five Semitones, three Diatonic and two Chromatic; thus,

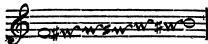


The Major and Minor Thirds were formerly called Sharp and Flat Thirds. These equivocal terms were justly rejected by Dr. Boyce (in his Cathedral Music), and changed to greater and lesser.

161. VII. The Sharp * Fourth is composed of four Degrees, and contains three Tones between the extremes, called by the Ancients, on that account, Tri-tone.



It is also divisible into six Semitones, three Diatonic and three Chromatic; thus,

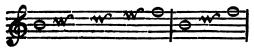


162. These seven Intervals (the Unison included) may be considered, in a practical point of view, as primary; since, if they are rightly understood, all the remaining seven are easily known, being only compounded of these. Thus, the Fifth is formed by uniting two of the Thirds; the Sixth, by the Fourth and Third; the Seventh, by the Fifth and Third; and the. Octave, by the Fourth and Fifth. Compared with the Unison, Second, Third, and Fourth, as primary; the Fifth, Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth, are secondary. This arrangement, however useful in the analysis of Melody, is

^{*} The reason why the terms, Perfect and Sharp, are used to the Fourths, while Major and Missor are applied to the Seconds and Thirds, will appear in the next Chapter, upon Concords and Discords.

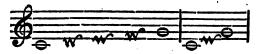
imperfect with respect to Harmony, and the theoretical classification of the Diatonic Intervals*. The true series comprehends the Unison, Octave, Fifth, Fourth, Thirds, Sixths, Seconds, and Sevenths, in the mathematical division of a musical string.

163. VIII. The *Flat Fifth* is composed of five Degrees, and contains two Tones and two Semitones (not three Tones): it may be divided into two Minor Thirds.



It is also (like the Sharp Fourth or Tri-tone) divisible into six Semitones; and when joined with that Interval, completes the Octave.

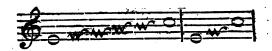
164. IX. The Perfect Fifth is composed of five Degrees, and contains three Tones and one Semitone: it may be divided into a Major and a Minor Third.



It is also divisible into seven Semitones; and, when joined with the Fourth, completes the Octave.

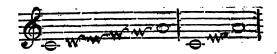
^{*} Butler, p. 46. Malcolm, p. 74. Holden, p. 44. art. 127.

165. X. The Minor Sixth is composed of six Degrees, and contains three Tones and two Semitones: it may be divided into a Minor Third and a Fourth.



It is also divisible into eight Semitones; and, when joined with the Major Third, completes the Octave.

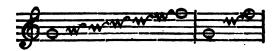
166. XI. The Major Sixth* is composed of six Degrees, and contains four Tones and one Semitone: it may be divided into a Major Third and a Fourth.



It is also divisible into nine Semitones; and, when joined with the Minor Third, completes, the Octave.

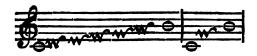
^{*} This Interval is that upon which the ancient system of the Hexachord is formed.

167. XII. The Minor Seventh* is composed of seven Degrees, and contains four
Tones and two Semitones: it may be divided into a Fifth and a Minor Third.



It is also divisible into ten Semitones; and, when joined with the Major Second, or Tone, completes the Octave.

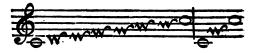
168. XIII. The Major Seventh is composed of seven Degrees, and contains five Tones and one Semitone; and may be divided into a Fifth and a Major Third.



It is also divisible into eleven Semitones; and, when joined with the Minor Second, or Semitone, completes the Octave.

This Interval is also composed of two perfect Fourths; an example of which may be found in the subject of the last Chorus in Handel's Alexander's Feast, Let old Timotheus.

169. XIV. The Octave is composed of eight Degrees, and contains five Tones and two Semitones: it may be divided into a fifth and a Fourth.



It is also divisible into twelve Semitones, and may be considered as the replicate of the Unison.

As the Octave consists of thirteen sounds, and therefore has only twelve Intervals, it must be recollected, that the fourteen Diatonic Intervals, just described, are obtained by reckoning the Unison as one of them, and by distinguishing between the Sharp Fourth and Flat Fifth; both which are, upon Keyed Instruments, performed with the same Keys. The seven Notes of the Scale form seven different species of Octave, according to the places of the two Natural Semitones; and from these species, divided each into two parts, by the Fifth or by the Fourth, arise the eight Tones of Italy, and the twelve Modes of Germany*.

^{*} See the Note, p. 25, of this Work.

SECT. IV.—INVERSION OF INTERVALS.

170. When the lower Note of any Interval is placed an Octave higher, or the higher Note an Octave lower, the change thereby produced is called *Inversion*.

Thus a Second	becomes a Seventh	<u>•</u>
a Phird	a Sixth	O
* Fourth	, a Fifth	<u> </u>

171. The different Intervals (seven), reckoned from each of the seven Natural Notes, form the following Series:

Five Major and two Minor Seconds.

Three Major and four Minor Thirds.

Six Perfect and one Sharp Fourth.

To these may be added their Inversions:
Two Major and five Minor Sevenths.
Four Major and three Minor Sixths.
Six Perfect and one Flat Fifth.

- 172. All the Major* Intervals become Minor, by Inversion, and all the Minor Intervals become Major; the Sharp Fourth becomes the Flat Fifth, and the Unison inverted becomes the Octave.
- 173. The Major Seventh of the Key, from its resemblance to the Tritone (its higher Note being one of the two Sounds which form the Sharp Fourth), is sometimes called the Sharp Seventh.
- 174. Rameau† terms the Intervals of the Third, Fifth, and Seventh, fundamental; and derives the others, viz. the Second, Fourth, and Sixth, by Inversion, reckoning them downward, from the Octave of the former, according to the following Scheme:

nird	ith k	•
		•
BC D	EF	G a Second
I Sireh	Fourth	
	Sixth	Fourth

175. All these Intervals are found in the Diatonic or Natural Scale; and, when this Scale is

^{*} The epithets, Sharp and Flat, were always used, insecad of Major and Minor, by the old writers, Simpson, Playford, and also Pepusch. See Art. 159, p. 94.

[†] Principles of Composition, p. 3.

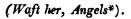
transposed to any other pitch, higher or lower, by the use of Sharps or Flats, these Intervals remain the same, as will be more fully seen hereafter. The remaining Intervals, which are commonly intermixed with these in the general tables given by Authors, and which belong only to the Chromatic and Enharmonic Scales, are omitted here, but will be inserted in the third Chapter of this Part, on the General (p. 109).

176. Of all the Diatonic Intervals, the two Thirds, Major and Minor, are by far the most important, and ought to be very perfectly understood; since upon them depends the nature of the Scale or Mode; and the Thirds give their own epithets to the whole series of the seven Notes, the Scale itself being called Major, when the Third is greater, and Minor, when the Third is lesser.

177. There is another distinction, in respect of Melodies formed of Diatonic Intervals, which, although in some measure obsolete, is yet useful for the Student to understand. Those Melodies which have their principal Notes contained be-

See Rameau, p. 8, and Simpson, p. 35. It may be observed, that the alteration of the Thirds, by sharpening the upper Note of the Minor, or flattening that of the Major, does not change their Diatonic nature.

tween the Key-note and its Octave, are termed authentic, direct, or principal, as in the following Example:





178. Those Melodies, on the contrary, which have their principal Notes contained between the Fifth of the Key and its Octave (or Twelfth), are termed plagal, oblique, or collateral, as in the following Example:

(Streams of Pleasure†).



By these two divisions of the Octave, authentic and plagal, are formed the arrangements of the eight Italian Tones, and twelve German modes, before mentioned.

Jephtha, 1751 (Handel's Songs, v. No. 367), Dr. A.'s edit. No. 120, p. 170.

[†] Theodora, 1750 (Handel's Songs, iv. No. 268), Dr. A's. edit. No. 8, p. 181.

CHAP. II.

OF CONSONANT AND DISSONANT INTERVALS.

Art. 179. Although the terms Consonant and Dissonant are chiefly used in Harmony, yet they are applicable, in a great measure, to the classing of Intervals in Melody.

180. The Diatonic Intervals are therefore divided into Consonant and Dissonant. Those which are most agreeable to the ear, as the Octave, Fifth, Fourth, both the Thirds, and both the Sixths, are called Consonant; those which, when compared with the others, are less agreeable to the ear, as both the Seconds, both the Sevenths, with the Sharp Fourth, are called Dissonant.

The term Dissonant is thought, by some Authors*, inapplicable to the Degrees of Melody, which seem more natural to the human voice than the Skips. This, however, is a prejudice, which a further consideration of Harmony will remove.

181. The foregoing arrangement shews the propriety of distinguishing the species of Seconds, Thirds, Sixths, and Sevenths, by the

[•] Principes Elémentaires de Musique, du Conservatoire, p. 16.

epithets Major and Minor, according to the number of Semitones included between the extremes; while the appellation of Perfect is reserved for the Fourth and Fifth, with the terms Sharp and Flat, when altered a Semitone higher or lower.

182. The Thirds and Sixths, whether Major or Minor, are always consonant; the Seconds and Sevenths always dissonant; but the Fourth and Fifth are consonant only when perfect; when sharp or flat, they are dissonant. The alteration of these two last Intervals, therefore, places them in different classes; and, although the terms Major and Minor have sometimes been applied to the Fourth and Fifth, in the present Work those terms will not be used.

183. The Consonant Intervals are subdivided into Perfect and Imperfect. The Unison (or Prime), the Octave, Fifth, and Fourth, are called *Perfect*, because they are immutable, never changing from Major to Minor (or the contrary), but becoming dissonant whenever altered by a Sharp, Flat, or Natural.

184. The Thirds and Sixths are called Imperfect, because they are liable to change from Major to Minor (or the contrary), still remaining consonant.

185. The Seconds, Sevenths, Sharp Fourth, Flat Fifth, with all the Chromatic and Enharmonic Intervals, are dissonant.

186. According to this classification, every passage of Melody which moves by Degrees, consists of dissonant Intervals; but, as every other Note is, in general, a transient sound, placed between two consonant Notes, these Seconds have not that harshness which is found in the passages which move by Skips, as the Sharp Fourth, Flat Fifth, Minor and Major Sevenths, &c.

187. All dissonant Seconds in Melody, are either passing or changing Notes*; and these are either regular, when found on the weak parts of the Measure, or irregular, when used on the strong parts. If, therefore, these ornamental Notes are taken away, a series of consonant Intervals will remain.



^{*} Art. 106, p. 63.

⁺ Israel in Egypt (Handel's Songs, iii. No. 280), Dr. A.'s. edit. No. 97, p. 214.

CHAP. II. CONSONANT INTERVALS, &c. 107

The foregoing Melody may be reduced to Consonant Intervals, by taking away the alternate Semiquavers, where regular, and omitting two when irregular; it will then appear thus:



188. The concordant series of Thirds and Sixths, from the varied succession of Major and Minor Intervals, is extremely pleasing to the ear*; and most passages of Degrees (like that of the preceding Example), are reducible into Thirds, intermixed wish Fourths, by taking away the passing and changing Notes.

189. A great part of every Duet is composed of Thirds or Sixths; and these Intervals, with the occasional introduction of Fourths and Fifths, allow a double Melody to continue throughout a Movement.

190. A successive series of perfect Fifths is not to be found in Melody, and hence is forbidden in Harmony. In Melody, they would exceed the limits of our regular Scale, as well as the compass of the voice; and, in Harmony, they would produce new and unconnected Scales, of which the species, Major or Minor, would be

^{*} Shield, p. 65.

undetermined, through the omission of the Thirds and Sixths.

191. A more correct idea of passing Notes may be obtained, by considering the Scale as divided into three parts, the two first concerdant, and the last discordant; thus,



In the first part, or the Tonic Division, the passing Notes are, the 2d, 4th, 6th, and 7th of the Scale; thus,



In the second part, or the Subdominant Division, the passing Notes are, the 2d, 3d, 5th, and 7th; thus,



In the third part, or the Dominant Division, the 3d and 6th are the only passing Notes; thus,



VCHAP. III.

OF THE GENERA.

SECT. I.-OF THE THREE KINDS OF MELODY.

Art. 192. That Scale of Music which proceeds chiefly by Tones, called *Diatonic*, has been explained (Art. 152, p. 88), and constitutes the principal part of every piece of Music.

193. When all the artificial Sounds are inserted between the natural Sounds, a Scale is formed of Semitones alone, and called Chromatic.

194. When a Scale yet smaller in its Intervals is formed, which contains in some places Quarter Tones, it is called Enharmonic.

195. These three Scales, the Diatonic, the Chromatic, and the Enharmonic, form the three Genera or kinds of Melody now in use; and, although the terms are borrowed from the Greek authors, yet the modern ideas annexed to them are considerably different from their ancient signification.

196. The origin of the term Diutonic Genus has been explained. The Chromatic takes its name from the Greek word Chroma, colour, because the interspersed Semitones give an ornamental effect to the Diatonic or simple Melody;

and the Enharmonic was so called, from its supposed excellence, being En-harmonic, that is, extremely musical.

197. The two last Genera (Chromatic and Enharmonic) are never used alone, but always intermixed with the Diatonic. Hence it has been asserted, that all the Genera, except the Diatonic, are irretrievably lost*. That they are lost to us, in the precise sense of the ancient descriptions, is undoubtedly true; but we still retain the term Chromatic, in a signification extremely analogous to its primitive meaning, and it seems proper also to retain the terms Diatonic and Enharmonic.

198. The French Theorists † mention two other compound Genera, the Diatonic-enharmonic, and the Chromatic-enharmonic; the first containing a succession of two Diatonic Semitones, and the last a succession of two Chromatic Semitones. These terms and classifications are more curious than useful, since, according to Dr. Pepusch, the Diatonic-enharmonic is the same as the Toniceum Chromatic of the ancients; and the two subsequent Minor

Sir J. H. i. 110, 128; iii. 89, 153. Dr. B. i. 461; iii. 292.
 † M. D'Alembert, Elémens de Musique, 1762, Part I.
 Chap. xx. xxi. p. 112. M. Bethizy, Exposition, &c. 1764,
 180.

Semitones are found in the soft Chromatic of the Grecian system*.



SECT. II.—OF THE CHROMATIC SCALE AND ITS INTERVALS.

199. The Chromatic Scale generally ascends by Sharps, and descends by Flats, as in the following Example:

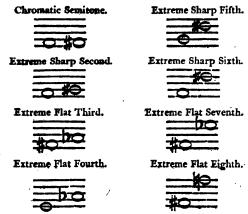


200. From this Scale several Intervals, not yet described, arise, which are all discordant, and are chiefly used in Melody, although they appear sometimes, by licence, in harmonical combinations.

201. The Chromatic Scale consists of thirteen Sounds, which contain twelve Intervals between them. Seven of these have been already described, among the Diatonic Inter-

See Dr. Pepusch's Letter to De Moivre, in the Philoseplaical Transactions, 1746, No. 481.

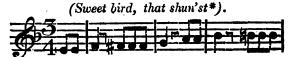
vals*; the remaining five form another species of Intervals, called Extreme or Chromatic. Of these, the Chromatic Semitone, the extreme sharp Second, flat Third, and flat Fourth, are simple or primitive; the extreme sharp Fifth, sharp Sixth, flat Seventh, and flat Eighth, are compound or derivative.



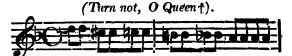
202. I. The Chromatic Semitone is the distance or interval between any Note, and that same Note elevated by a Sharp, or depressed by a Flat.

^{*} Padre Martini (Saggio di Contrappunto, 1774, p. xvii.) has enumerated another Interval, the extreme sharp Third, with its inversion: this will be noticed hereafter.

Example of the Chromatic Semitone ascending:



Example of the Chromatic Semitone descending:



203. This Semitone was termed by the Pythagoreans Apotome;, and the Diatonic Semitone was termed Limmo. They contended, that the Apotome, or distance from B flat to B. natural, was larger than the Limma, or distance from A to B flat. It is now, however, demonstrated, by the experiments of Mersenne, &c. &c. that the theory of Zarlino and Salinas

[•] L'Allegro, 1739, Dr. A.'s edit. No. 150, p. 39, H. S. i. No. 59.

[†] Esther, 1732, Dr. A.'s edit. No. 138, p. 115, H. S. v.. No. 360.

[‡] Sir J. H. i. 73. The term Apotome was also used by Salomon de Caus (Institution Harmonique, 1614), and thence inserted by D'Alembert and Rousseau in the French Encyclopédie. He terms the present Enharmonic Diesis Apotome Major, and the present Minor Comma Apotome Minor (page 5).

is true; namely, that the Interval from A to B flat, is the Major Semitone, and that from B flat to B natural, is the Minor Semitone, contrary to the nomenclature of Boethius and the Pythagoreans.

204. In the Chromatic Scale, the Semitones are alternately Chromatic and Diatonic; and, as there are only five of the former, while there are seven of the latter, two Diatonic Semitones will be found in succession, at the place where the natural Semitone occurs.



205. From this important Interval (the Chromatic Semitone) arise all the other Chromatic Intervals: they are all Diatonic Distances, increased or diminished by this Interval; and hence they all take the additional Chromatic Epithet of Extreme.

206. II. The extreme sharp Second consists of a Tone and a Chromatic Semitone, being composed of two Degrees. Upon Keyed Instruments, this is the same as the Minor Third; which, however, consists of a Tone and a Diatonic Semitone, and therefore contains three Degrees.

(To vanity and earthly pride*).



207. III. The extreme flat Third consists of two Diatonic Semitones, being composed of three Degrees; and is the Minor Third, diminished by the Chromatic Semitone. Upon Keyed Instruments, this is the same as the Tone, which contains only two Degrees.

This Interval being very harsh for Vocal Music, the intermediate Sound is generally inserted, as in the following Example:



In this passage the A, between B flat and G sharp, is only a transient or passing Note.

208. IV. The extreme flat Fourth consists of a Tone and two Diatonic Semitones, being composed of four Degrees; and is the perfect Fourth, diminished by the Chromatic Semitone. Upon Keyed Instruments, this is the

^{*} Joshua, 1747, Dr. A.'s edit. No. 58, p. 86, H. S. i. No. 25.

[†] Joseph, 1746, Dr. A.'s edit. No. 110, p. 161, H. S. i. No. 55.

same as the Major Third, which contains only three Degrees.



The E natural here, is taken instead of E flat.

209. These three last Intervals, viz.

The extreme sharp Second, The extreme flat Third, and The extreme flat Fourth,

When inverted, become the following:
The extreme flat Seventh,
The extreme sharp Sixth,
The extreme sharp Fifth.

210. V. The extreme sharp Fifth is the perfect Fifth, increased by the Chromatic Semitone, and consists of four Tones †, forming five Degrees. On Keyed Instruments it is the same as the Minor Sixth, which consists of six Degrees. This Interval is seldom found in Melody; but its Inversion, the extreme flat Fourth, is generally taken in its place.

^{*} Samson, 1742, Dr. A.'s edit. No. 50, p. 28, H. S. iv. No. 289.

⁺ Called also Tetratonon.

It is also divisible into two Major Thirds.



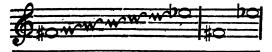
211. VI. The extreme sharp Sixth is the Major Sixth, increased by the Chromatic Semitone, and consists of five Tones*, forming six Degrees. On Keyed Instruments, it is the Minor Seventh, which consists of seven Degrees.

It is also divisible into a Major Third and sharp Fourth +.



212. VII. The extreme flat Seventh is the Minor Seventh, diminished by the Chromatic Semitone, and consists of four Tones and two Diatonic Semitones, forming seven Degrees. On Keyed Instruments it is the Major Sixth, which only consists of six Degrees.

It is also divisible into three Minor Thirds.



- · Called also Pentatonon.
- † Shield, p. 77.

Examples of this Interval in Melody are not uncommon.

(They loathed to drink*).



(And with his stripes +).



213. VIII. The extreme flat Eighth is the Octave, diminished by the Chromatic Semi-tone: it is never used in Melody, but is sometimes found in transient passages of Harmony.



^{*} Israel in Egypt, 1738, Dr. A.'s edit. No. 93, p. 20.

⁺ Messiah, 1741, Dr. A.'s edit. No. 10, p. 94.

SECT. III.—OF THE ENHARMONIC SCALE, AND ITS INTERVAL, THE QUARTER TONE.

214. When a series is formed by uniting the ascending with the descending Scale of the Chromatic Genus, a new Kind of Music arises, by the use of the Interval formed between the sharpened Note and the Flat of the next succeeding Note above. This Scale is called Enharmonic, and contains Intervals smaller than the Semitone; which, although not exactly half the Semitone, are, however, from their near approach to that quantity, called the Diesis* (that is, the Division), or Quarter Tone.

215. To form this Interval, it is necessary that, of any two Notes which are distant by the Tone, the highest should be depressed, and the lowest elevated, by the Chromatic Semitone. Thus, from G to A is a Tone. Now if G sharp be taken instead of G, and A flat instead of A, the difference between these extremes of the two Chromatic Semitones, G sharp and A flat, will form the Enharmonic Diesis, or Quarter Tone.

216. To understand this, it must be observed,

^{*} This was also called Apotone Major by Salomon de Caus. See before, Art. 203, p. 113, of this Work. Sir J. H. i. 110; iii. 142, 155. Dr. B. i. 29; iii. 580.

that the Interval of a Tone, in the theory of Harmonics, is not always the same. That Tone which is between the Fourth and Fifth of the Scale*, is supposed to be divided into nine small parts, termed Commas; while that which is between the Fifth and Sixth of the Major Scale, is divided only into eight Commas. The Diatonic Semitone consists of five Commas, and the Chromatic Semitone of three, or four, according to the magnitude of the Tone.

217. The two Chromatic Semitones, therefore, being taken from the Minor Tone (of eight Commas), leave a residue of two Commas for the Diesis or Quarter Tone: hence on the Temple Organ +, and on some other instruments, the Tones from G to A, and from D to E (which are naturally Minor, or of eight Commas), are divided into three parts, by two distinct Keys, one for G sharp, another for A flat: also one for D sharp, and another for E flat. But upon Keyed Instruments, in general, the Temperament, or method of tuning, is such. that the single short key between the two longer keys serves for both purposes, that between G and A being tuned higher than G sharp, and lower than A flat.



[•] The Diazeuctic Tone of the ancient system.

⁺ Sîr J. H. iii. 144; iv. 354. Dr. B. iii. 439.

218. The Enharmonic Scale divides each Tone into two Chromatic Semitones and the Quarter Tone; thus,



219. In some examples of the Enharmonic Scale*, the Intervals, F flat and E sharp, as also C flat and B sharp, are inserted; but they do not belong to that Scale. This distance, as Dr. Pepusch observes, is smaller than the Quarter Tone.



This arises from the division of the Diatonic Semitone into two Quarter Tones, and a smaller Interval, termed the *Hyperoche* †, which is found by theoretical calculation to be nearly a Comma and a half.

220. Such are the three modern Genera, the

^{*} Shield, p. 37.

[†] This term was first adopted by M. Hensling in the Berlin Miscellanies, 1708. For a more particular account of the small Intervals in Music, see the articles Eschaton, Hyperocke, and Interval, which first appeared in the Supplement to Chambers's Cyclopædia, 1753, probably written by George Lewis Scott, Esq. the Editor, and which were inserted afterwards in the edition published by Dr. Rees, in four folio volumes, 1788, 1789.

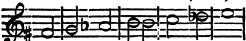
Diatonic, Chromatic, and Enharmonic: they are (as before observed, Art. 195) derived from the ancient Grecian Scales, but are used in a manner extremely different.

Dr. Pepusch*, in defining the six Genera of Aristoxenus, namely, two Diatonics, three Chromatics, and one Enharmonic, observes, that the Syntone or intense Diatonic, is in general use; that enharmonic passages are sometimes found; and that two of the Chromatics might be brought into practice; for instance,

The Sesquialter Chromatic; thus,



And the Toniœum Chromatic; thus,



But, he adds, that the soft Diatonic, and the soft Chromatic, are not to be found in any modern production.

^{*} Sir J. H. i. 109. Dr. B. iv. 638. In the Dictionary of Chambers (just quoted), at the article Genera, an able analysis of Dr. Pepusch's ideas is given, probably written by the same Author, (George Lewis Scott), as it also first appeared in the Supplement.

CHAP. IV.

OF KEYS OR SCALES, AND OF THEIR TWO MODES, MAJOR AND MINOR.

SECT. I.—OF KEYS OR SCALES.

Art. 221. A Diatonic Scale, of which the Notes bear certain relations to one principal Note from which they are all, in some respects, derived, and upon which they all depend, is termed a Key; and the principal Note is called the Key Note, or Tonic.

222. Every Scale in which the two Diatonic Semitones are found between the third and fourth Degrees, and between the seventh and eighth Degrees, ascending from the Tonic, is termed the Major Mode of that Key; because the Interval between the Tonic and its Third (or Mediant), consists of two Tones; that is, of the greater Third. The only series of this mode among the natural Notes, is that which commences with C; and hence this Key must be taken as an example of all the Major Scales.



223. Every Scale in which the two Diatonic Semitones are found between the second and third Degrees, and between the fifth and sixth Degrees, as ascending from the Tonic, is termed the Minor Mode of that Key; because the Interval between the Tonic and its Third (or Mediant), consists only of one Tone and one Semitone, that is, of the lesser Third. The only series of this mode among the natural Notes, is that which commences with A; and hence this Key may be taken as an example of all the Minor Scales*.



SECT. II.—OF THE MAJOR SCALES WITH SHARPS.

224. In the First Part of this Work (Art. 89, p. 50), it has been shewn how the intro-

The necessary variation of the ascending Scale, in the Minor Mode, from the descending Scale, will be explained hereafter. Malcolm, p. 265. Pepusch, p. 20. Holden (Part I. Chap. ix. p. i.), art. 257, p. 90. Sir J. H. i. 163, has entered minutely into the subject of our two modern Scales, with their Transpositions; and their extensions to three Flats and four Sharps, are noticed also by him, iii. 144.

duction of Sharps change the pitch of the Tone, without altering the relative Intervals of the Scale. All the other Major Keys with Sharps are constructed in the same manner, viz. by sharpening the Fourth of the former Key, to make a new sharp Seventh, or leading Note, to the following Scale; thus,



225. In this last Scale, the sixth Sharp E is, on Keyed Instruments, performed by means of F natural; but it cannot be called by that name, nor situated on the same Degree, for, in that case, only six letters would be used instead of seven; and, between D sharp and F natural, the Chromatic Interval of the extreme flat Third would be found, which does not belong to the Diatonic Series.

SECT. III.—OF THE MAJOR SCALES WITH FLATS.

226. It has been also shewn (Art. 93, p. 52), that the introduction of a new Flat takes place on the Seventh of the original Key, which then becomes the Subdominant or Fourth of the next Scale: hence are formed all the following Scales with Flats:

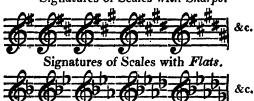


227. In this last Scale, the sixth Flat C is, on Keyed Instruments, performed by means of B natural; but it cannot be called by that name, since, between B natural and the next Degree in the Scale (which is D flat), the Chromatic Interval of the extreme flat Third would be found, which does not belong to the Diatonic Series.

SECT. IV.—OF THE SIGNATURE.

228. When the whole number of Sharps and Flats are placed at the Clef, instead of being occasionally inserted before each Note as they occur, such collection of Sharps, or of Flats, is termed the Signature, (Art. 96, p. 55).

Signatures of Scales with Sharps.



229. Two examples of the Signature extended to the first double Sharp and to the first double Flat, may be seen, Art. 98, 99, p. 58. 59.

230. The Scale of F sharp with six Sharps, being the same on Keyed Instruments as that of G flat with six Flats, all the Signatures beyond six may be expressed by a smaller number, by changing the name of the Tonic.

Thus C sharp with seven Sharps, is the same as D flat with five Flats; and C flat with seven Flats, is the same as B with five Sharps, &c. &c. &c.

SECT. V.-OF THE MINOR SCALE OR MODE.

231. The Minor Scale not only differs from the Major, as before observed (Art. 223, p. 124), in the place of its Semitones, but also in the variation of its Scale, of which the ascending series differs from the descending one.

232. The Minor Mode requires, that whenever the Seventh of the Scale (which is naturally a tone below it) ascends to the Eighth, it should become sharp, as the proper leading Note or sharp Seventh to the Tonic. Now the insertion of this essential Note in the Signature, would appear irregular, as in the following Examples*:



It is therefore always omitted in the Signature, and placed accidentally before the Seventh which it is to elevate, whenever the Melody requires its use.

^{*} If this irregularity were adopted in the three first Examples, the essential leading Note would appear as if it were inserted by mistake one Degree too high.

233. That this leading Note or Sharp Seventh is essential to the Key, although not to its Signature, may be proved by performing the subsequent Melody, omitting the sharp F.



In which instance, the harshness produced by F natural, if taken instead of F sharp, is extremely perceptible.

234. As the Signature, therefore, does not decide the Key or Scale of the Movement, a careful observation must be made, whether any accidental Sharps or Naturals occur in the first Phrase or Section. If any such are found, the Tonic is on the next Degree above them; but, if none are used, then the Signature itself determines the Major Tonic, which is always the Note above the last Sharp, or the fourth Note below the last Flat.

Deborah, 1738, Dr. A.'s edit. No. 145, p. 219, H. S. ii.
 No. 133.

235. The accidental Sharp used in the Minor Mode, raises the Minor Seventh of the Scale a Chromatic Semitone: hence the Minor Scale may be said to belong to the Chromatic Genus; and its true essential Scale is thus formed:



236. In this series is found the harsh Chromatic Interval of the extreme sharp Second (between F natural and G Sharp); to avoid which, the Sixth is made sharp, to accommodate the Seventh: thus the accidental Scale of the Minor is formed with two Notes altered from the Signature.



237. But, in the descending Scale, the essential leading Note is depressed, to accommodate the Sixth: thus the *natural* Scale of the Signature remains unaltered.



SECT. VI.—OF THE RELATIVE MINOR SCALES.

238. The Minor Scale whose Tonic is found on the sixth Note ascending of that Major Scale which has the same Signature, is termed the *Relative Minor*, because its Signature is similar to that of the other.



These Tonics, it may be observed, are one Degree below the last Sharp of the Signature.

239. In the Signatures with Flats, the Relative Minor (or Sixth of the Key) is always on the third Degree above the last Flat; thus,



SECT. VII.—OF THE TONIC MINOR SCALES.

240. Every Major Scale, when its Third and Sixth are depressed by the Chromatic Semitone, becomes a Minor Scale on the same Key Note, and will be called, in this Work, the *Tonic Minor*.

241. But, as the Signature requires that the essential sharp Seventh should not be inserted at the Clef, the *Tonic Minor* must have in its Signature another Flat, making in all three Flats more, or three Sharps less, than the Major Scale of the same Key Note; thus,



In the last Example, the F #, E ‡, and B ‡, are all to be considered as Sharps, when contrasted with the F ‡, E ‡, and B ‡, of the Minor Scale.



In this Example, the C , F , and B , of the Minor Scale, are all to be considered as Flats, when contrasted with the C , F , and B , of the Major Scale.



In this Example, the G \$\overline{4}\$, F \$\overline{4}\$, and C \$\overline{4}\$, of the Minor Scale, are all to be considered as Flats, when contrasted with G \$\overline{4}\$, F \$\overline{4}\$, and C \$\overline{4}\$, of the Major Scale.

SECT. VIII.—OF TRANSPOSITION, &c.

242. That change which arises from the performance of the same Melody in a higher or lower pitch, is called *Transposition*.

243. Every Melody in a Major Scale may be transposed into any other Major Scale, by altering the Signature according to the pitch of the new Tonic. The same alteration may take place in every Minor Melody. When, how-

ever, any tune is performed in the Relative, or in the Tonic Minor, which tune was originally Major, such change is not called Transposition, but Variation.

244. When, in the course of a Melody, the Tonic is changed, and the original Scale altered, by the introduction of a new Sharp or Flat, such change is called *Modulation*. This will be further explained in treating of Harmony.

245. Every Scale has two others immediately connected with it; one on the Fifth above, which adds a new Sharp to the Signature; the other on the Fifth below (or Fourth above), which adds a new Flat to the Signature. These two Scales will, in this Work, be called Attendant Keys; an epithet given them by Dr. Boyce, in his Manuscripts.

246. As every Major Key has a Relative Minor, and as this Relative Minor has its two Attendant Keys, hence arise, from every Signature, six Scales*, nearly connected with each other; three with Major Thirds, and three with Minor Thirds.

^{*} Mr. Keeble (Harmonies, 1784) describes these Scales p. 68, 71), and terms them auxiliary. Padre Martini (Saggio.) R. II. p. xxxvii.) has given a Table of them.

247. Of these, two are principal, viz. the Major and Minor of the Signature itself; and four are subordinate, viz. the Attendant Keys, both of the Major and of the Minor: these two require another Sharp or Flat, to complete their Scales, when a Modulation occurs.

248. Thus, in the Major Scale of C, its Attendant Scales are G (its Fifth), with one Sharp, and F (its Fourth), with one Flat; to which are annexed the Relative Minor A, and its two Attendant Scales, viz. E Minor with one Sharp, and D Minor with one Flat.

249. The same arrangement takes place in every Key; and it is necessary to observe, that when the Minor Key is first taken, the Major Key of the same Signature is called the Relative Major, and is found on the Minor Third above the original Minor Key-note.

✓ CHAP. V.

OF THE QUALITIES OF THE NOTES WHICH COMPOSE THE SCALE.

SECT. I.—OF THE TONIC, DOMINANT, &c.

Art. 250. Every one of the seven Notes which form the Scale of any Key, Major or Minor, has an effect peculiar to itself: from this effect they derive particular names, which are these.

251. I. The Tonic, or Key-note, before described (Art. 221, p. 123), is that chief sound upon which all regular Melodies depend, and with which they all terminate*. All its Octaves, above or below, are called by the same name.

252. II. The *Dominant*, or Fifth above the Key-note, is that sound which, from its immediate connexion with the Tonic, is said to govern it; that is, to require the Tonic to be heard after it, at the final perfect cadence in the Base.

253. III. The Subdominant, or Fifth below the Key-note, is also a species of governing Note, as it requires the Tonic to be heard after it in the Plagal Cadence. It is the Fourth in the regular ascending Scale of seven Notes, and

^{*} This only relates to the chief Melody, or to its Base; the internal parts of Harmony, as will be hereafter shewn, conclude upon the Mediant or Dominant.

CHAP. V. QUALITIES OF NOTES. 137

is a tone below the Dominant; but the term arises from its relation to the Tonic, as the Fifth below.

254. These three principal Sounds, the Tonic, Dominant, and Subdominant, are the radical parts of every Scale; of the Minor, as well as of the Major. All Melodies whatever are derived from these Sounds, and are wholly dependent upon them.

255. IV. The leading Note, or sharp Seventh of the Scale, is called, in Germany, the Subsemitone of the Mode. This is always the Major Third above the Dominant, and therefore, in the Minor Scales, requires an accidental Sharp or Natural, whenever it occurs.

256. V. The Mediant, or middle Note between the Tonic and Dominant ascending, varies according to the Mode; being the greater. Third in the Major Scale, and the lesser Third in the Minor Scale.

257. VI. The Submediant*, or middle Note between the Tonic and Subdominant descending, varies also according to the Mode, being

^{*} The Submediant in the Major Mode, is the relative Minner Key-note; and the Mediant in the Minor Mode, is the relative Major Key-note.

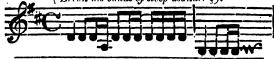
the greater Sixth in the Major Scale, and the lesser Sixth in the Minor Scale.

258. VII. The Supertonic*, or second above the Key-note, has seldom been distinguished in England by this or any other appellation. In theory it is considered as a variable Sound, being a Comma higher in the Major Scale than when the Mode changes to the relative Minor †.

259. The effect of the principal Notes abovementioned may be impressed on the mind by the following short phrases.



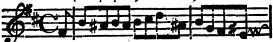
11. Topic and Subdominant. (Break his bands of sleep asunder §).



- * This is a translation of the French term Sutonique; and it may be observed, that in the descending Rule of the Octave, the Sixth of the Key might be called Superdominant (Sudominante), from its analogy to this Note. Bethizy, p. 15.
- † This alteration is explained by Mr. Maxwell, in the Essay on Tune, p. 23, and by Rousseau, in his Dictionary, art. Diacommatique.
 - \$ Dettingen Te Deum, 1743, No. 17, p. 1.
 - 4 Alexander's Feast, 1736, No. 66, p. 85.

III. Tonic and leading Note, or Subsemitone.

(The people that walked*).



IV. Tonic and Mediant.

(Softly sweet in Lydian measurest).



V. Tonic and Submediant.

(In the battle Fame pursuing 1).



260. The Signature of two Sharps has been chosen for these Examples, that the effect of the same Tonic (and of its relative Minor in the third example from the Messiah) may be perceived in performing them all §.

^{*} Messiah, No. 9, p. 43. H. S. iv. No. 301.

⁺ Alexander's Feast, No. 66, p. 58. H. S. ii. No. 154.

[†] Deborah, 1733, No. 144, p. 173. H. S. i. No. 70.

⁵ The further utility of these denominations will appear hereafter. In Harmony, especially, the terms Tonic, Dominant, Subdominant, and leading Note, or Subsemitone, will frequently occur; the two former, as the principal and governing Notes; the two latter as the characteristic Notes of the Key. (See Art. 191, p. 108).

SECT. II.—OF THE CHARACTERISTIC NOTES OF THE SCALE.

- 261. The leading Note and the Subdominant are the two characteristic Sounds, by one of which every Scale, whether Major or Minor, is known, and its Tonic immediately ascertained.
- 262. Thus, in sharp Signatures, the leading Note or Subsemitone, is a species of Index, which points invariably to the next Degree above, as its Major Tonic: this is always the last Sharp in the Major Mode.
- 263. In flat Signatures, the Subdominant is also a species of Index, which points to the fourth Degree below, as its Major Tonic: this is always the last Flat in the Major Mode.
- 264. In the Minor Modes whose Signatures have less than four Sharps or four Flats, the Subdominant being always one of the natural Notes, is not apparently a characteristic of the Key; and therefore, in those Modes, the leading Note or Subsemitone, is the only certain Index from which the Key-note is to be found.
- 265. The great importance of these two Notes appears evident, when, in occasional Modulation, the new Key is required to be found by their assistance. In all flat Signatures (F Ma-

CHAP. V. QUALITIES OF NOTES. 141

jor, B flat Major, E flat Major, &c.) the leading Note is a Natural; and this is the sharp Seventh of the Key, as in the following Example:



Here the Natural B is the leading Note of the new Key C.

266. In the Sharp Signatures, on the contrary, the Subdominant is distinguished by a Natural, and requires, in Modulation, the alteration of the Sharp in the Signature.

(When warlike ensigns†).



Here the natural F is the Subdominant of the new Key C.

267. Hence it appears, that whenever the characteristic Note of the new Key is marked by a Natural, that Natural always has the effect of a Sharp, or of a Flat; of a Sharp, when it is a leading Note; of a Flat, when it is a Subdominant.

^{*} Solomon, 1749, No. 90, p. 216. H. S. iv. No. 294,

[†] Art. 148, p. 86.

^{\$} See the remarks in Art. 97, p. 57, in Note.

CHAP. VI. OF ANCIENT SIGNATURES.

SECT. I.—OF ANCIENT SIGNATURES IN GENERAL.

Art. 268. In the music of Corelli, Geminiani, Handel, &c. the general rules of finding the Tonic, either in the Major Mode, by the characteristic Notes of the Signature, or in the Minor Mode, by the leading Note accidentally inserted, are not always sufficient.

269. When, instead of the complete series of Sharps or Flats of the Signature, the last Sharp or Flat is suppressed, and inserted accidentally when requisite (like the leading Note of the Minor Mode), such deviation from the usual method of Notation, will in this Work, be termed the Ancient Signature.

270. Thus, in the seventh and twelfth Sonatas (or Violin Solos) of Corelli, Opera quinta, the Signatures* appear to be either C Major, or A, its relative Minor; but the accidental Notes,

Although the term Signature is defined, Art. 228, p. 127, to be the number of Sharps or Flats at the Clef, yet the word will be also applied to the two natural Keys of C Major and A Minor.

C sharp and B flat, shew that the real Key is D Minor, and that the B flat, which is used in the modern Signature, is omitted at the Clef.

271. Examples of the ancient Signature of D Minor, may also be found in the third and fifth Concertos of Geminiani, Opera seconda, and in the fourth Concerto of Opera terza. For instance, the first Movement of his third Concerto begins thus:



Here the Key is known to be D, by the accidental C Sharp, and to be also D Minor, by the natural F, which remains unaltered, as in the Signature.

272. The same ancient method of Notation is sometimes found in the Key of G Major, where the Sharp of the leading Note F, is inserted accidentally when requisite; as in the following Example from the first Chorus of Handel's Oratorio of Saul, How excellent thy name, O Lord. One of the intermediate Movements commences thus:

(The youth inspired by thee, O Lord).



Here the Key is known to be G by the Sharp before the F, which is used in the second Treble as a Third below the A; and the B Natural of the Clef shews it to be G Major.

SECT. II.—OF ANCIENT SHARP SIGNATURES.

273. The ancient Signature of one Sharp is applicable to the Keys of D Major and B Minor; but the Sharp Signatures of this ancient method are never found in the Minor Mode; for, as the Second (or Supertonic) of the Key would then require an accidental Sharp, the irregularity before mentioned (Art. 232, p. 128) would perpetually recur.

274. In the Solos of Corelli (Opera quinta), however, several instances occur of the ancient Sharp Signature in the Major Mode; viz. the sixth and ninth Sonatas in two Sharps are in the Key of Λ Major; and the G sharp is accidentally inserted.

275. The eleventh Sonata of the same work bears the signature of three Sharps, and is in the Key of E Major*, the D sharp being inserted accidentally.

Handel's Duett, in the Oratorio of Athalia (Joys in gentle rain uppearing), is also in this Key, and has this Signature.

CHAP. VI. ANCIENT SIGNATURES. 145

276. The ancient Signature of four Sharps is found in Handel's beautiful air, Rendi il sereno al ciglio, from the Opera Sosarmes*. This is in B Major, with the Sharp to its leading Note A, occasionally inserted.

SECT. III.—OF ANCIENT FLAT SIGNATURES.

277. The objection to the Sharp Signatures (Art. 274, p. 144), does not apply to the Flat, since the Second of their Minor Modes is not affected by the Flat. For this reason, and from the variable nature of the Sixth or Submediant in the Minor Scale (Art. 236, p. 130), the ancient Flat Signatures are very frequently found.

278. I. The Signature of one Flat belongs to E flat Major and G Minor. The following Example, in the opening of Corelli's fifth Concerto (Opera Sesta), is in B flat Major †.



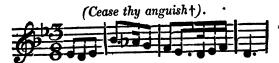
^{*} Introduced by Dr. Arnold, 1786, in the Oratorio of Redemption, to the words, Lord, remember David.

⁺ This will be mentioned hereafter, as a very striking instance of the use and effect of Harmony in deciding the Key and Mode, independent of the Signature.

• 279. The eighth Concerto of Corelli opens with this Signature in G Minor, as in the following Example*:



280. II. The Signature of two Flats, belongs to E flat Major.



281. The Signature of its relative Minor Mode C, is very common.

(The Flocks shall leave the mountains 1).



282. III. The Signature of three Flats, is unusual in the Major Mode of A Flat, but extremely frequent in the Minor of F. Handel,

^{*} This also depends upon Harmony for the decision of its Key and Mede. The Melody, as it here stands, might be equally in B flat Major or G Minor; but the F sharp, which accompanies the C in the second Measure, decides the Key.

⁺ Athalia, 1733, No. 3, p. 125. H. S. ii. No. 98.

¹ Acis and Galatea, 1720, No. 90, p. 72. H. S. iv. No. 320.

CHAP. VI. ANCIENT SIGNATURES. 147 indeed, has seldom (if ever) used the modern Signature in this Mode.



283. In this Example, the *E natural* is the leading Note, and points to the Key-note F; of which A flat is the lesser Third, and decides the Mode.

END OF THE SECOND PART,

^{*} Sampson, 1742, No. 53, p. 172. H. S. i. No. 19.

PART'III.

HARMONY.

CHAP. I.

OF THE TRIAD.

SECT. I.—OF THE CONSONANT AND DISSONANT TRIADS.

Art. 284. Two or more Melodies, heard at the same time, form Harmony *; and the different combinations of Notes in Harmony are termed Chords.

285. The union of any Sound with its *Third*, (Major or Minor), and its *perfect Fifth*, forms the Harmonic Triad†, or common Chord.

^{*} Dr. B. i. 136. Harmony was formerly (according to *Tinctor*—see Dr. B. ii. 458) synonymous with Melody, and the term *Counterpoint* was applied to what we call Harmony. This term is derived from the ancient *Points* or Notes, which were placed *counter*, or opposite to each other on the Staff. The Examples in this Third Part will be given in Counterpoint; that is, heads of Notes, without their Stems, will be used.

⁺ Triad, in Music, signifies three different Sounds combined together, at the distance of a Third and a Fifth from the lowest.

This is termed the Major or Minor Triad, according to the nature of its Third.



286. When the Octave of the lowest Note is added, four Sounds are heard in the Harmony.



- 287. There are also, besides these two Consonant Triads, two Dissonant Triads*; one Diatonic, the other Chromatic.
- 1. The Diatonic Dissonant Triad, or diminished Triad of the Germans (B, D, F) consists of two Minor Thirds.



Marpurg (Handbuch, 1755) adopted this classification, which Kirnberger rejected. Kollmann follows the system of this last ingenious Writer, and considers the diminished Triad o 3

II. The Chromatic Dissonant Triad, or superfluous Triad of the Chromatic Scale (C, E, G sharp), consists of two Major Thirds.



The Consonant Triads are formed of the two dissimilar Thirds, Major and Minor, united; the Dissonant Triads are formed of two similar Thirds, both Minor or both Major.

288. In the natural Diatonic Scale (Art. 50), p. 22), there are six Consonant Triads*; three Major and three Minor.



All the Major Triads become Minor, by flattening their Thirds; and all the Minor

as a consonant Harmony. The Author of this Work prefers the arrangement of Marpurg, which seems most agreeable to the theoretical doctrine of Harmonics.

^{*} From these Triads are derived the six Scales beforementioned, Art. 247, p. 135. The primary and secondary Scales of Mr. Keeble (p. 68), are reckoned in the Major Mode, 1st, 4th, and 5th C, F, G, 2d, 3d, and 6th D, E, A, ascending, and are inverted in the Minor Mode (p. 71).

Triads become Major, by sharpening their Thirds; thus,



259. The Diatonic Dissonant Triad has (by license) its Third sometimes flattened and sometimes sharpened; and thus are formed two altered Triads *, which are very seldom used.



These altered Triads consist of a Major and an extreme flat Third, and are consequently both Chromatic.

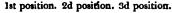
290. The *Prime*, or lowest Note of the Triad, was called by Rameau its fundamental Base †. In this Work, the term *Radical Base* or simply the *Root*, will be adopted.

^{*} See Heck (Thorough Base, p. 20). The German Authors term these Triads anomalous. See also Kollmann (Essay on Harmony, 1796), p. 34.

⁺ The Root being placed one or two Octaves below the Chord of the Accompaniment, makes no difference in its derivation; the radical Base depending always on the three combined Sounds of the Triad, whether in close or dispersed Harmony. For an account of Rameau and his system, see Dr. B.

291. The Roots of the two Consonant Triads are easily understood, as every radical Base must have a perfect Fifth; but the Roots of the two Dissonant Triads (Art. 287, p. 149), and of the two altered Triads (Art. 289, p. 151), cannot be explained till the nature of Discords is known.

292. When the three Sounds of the Triad are taken as an accompaniment, and the Root remains in the Base, the Chord assumes three different positions.





The first position is that of 3d, 5th, and 8th. The second, of 5th, 8th, and 3d. The third, of 8th, 3d, and 5th.

iv. 609. Sir J. H. v. 384. See also a very satisfactory account of the discoveries of Galileo Galilei, by Dr. Burney, art. Bass fundamental, in Dr. Rees's Cyclopædia, lately published.

It must be observed, that the second position, in reality, consists of the Fifth, Eighth, and Tenth, and the third position, of the Eighth, Tenth, and Twelfth of the Root; but, as the Tenth and Twelfth are Octaves of the Third and Fifth, and as they are represented by the same letters, they are also called by the names of Third and Fifth, whatever may be their distances above the Root.

SECT. II.—INVERSIONS OF THE TRIAD.

293. When the lowest Note, instead of being the Root, is the Third or the Fifth of the Triad, such change is termed Inversion*.

294. The Inversions of the Triad differ from its Positions; as the former relate to the whole Harmony, including the Base, and the latter to the Accompaniment alone, independent of the Base. Hence every Triad has three Positions, but only two Inversions; for, when the Root is in the Base, the Chord is called Direct, what-

^{*} Dr. Pepusch (p. 8), calls the two inversions supposed Basses, and terms the Chord of the Sixth the uncommon Chord; not because it is unusual or improper, but in contradistinction to the common Chord, or that of which the lowest Note is a fundamental Base (p. 16).

ever may be the positions of the Accompani-

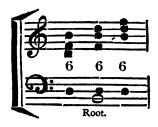
295. I. The Chord of the Sixth, is the first Inversion of the Triad, when the Base Note becomes the Third of the Harmony, instead of the Root. This Chord, in the figures of Thorough Base, is expressed by a 6; to which also belongs the Third of the lowest Note (or Fifth of the Root); and, in the practice of Counterpoint, the Octave of the lowest Note is either omitted, or, if four parts are requisite, the Sixth or the Third may be doubled.



296. The same arrangement takes place in the Minor Triad*, and its first Inversion; in

^{*} An ingenious Theorist, Pizzati (Scienza de' Suoni, 1782), reckons the Minor Triad dissonant (p. 313), because it does not produce the third Sound of Tartini, &c. On the contrary, Kirnberger (1774) asserts, that the diminished Triad is consonant, because it is used in Harmonical Progression, like the other two Triads.

the first Inversion of the Diatonic Triad, B, D, F, however, the Sixth is never doubled, but the Octave preferred, when four parts are requisite.



297. A stroke through the figure six, thus &, elevates the Sixth Note from the Base, a Chromatic Semitone, and when used on a Minor Sixth, makes it the first Inversion of the Dissonant Triad; thus,



When the same mark occurs on a Major

Sixth, it makes it the first Inversion of the altered Triad (Art. 289, p. 151); thus,



These two Chords, which are of great importance, will be hereafter distinguished by the names of the sharp Sixth and of the extreme sharp Sixth; the first always accompanied by a Minor, and the second by a Major Third.

298. II. The Chord of the Fourth and Sixth*, is the second Inversion of the Triad, when the Base Note is the Fifth of the Harmony, instead of the Root. It is expressed, in Thorough Base, by a 4 under a 6, and, in four parts, the three positions † of the Triad

[•] Kirnberger considers this Harmony, when suspended, as dissonant (see Mr. Kollmann, Essay on Harmony, p. 31); but Marpurg has, in the Appendix to his Essay on Temperament (1776), shewn that the classification of his opponent is not well founded, and that the theory is not strictly true.

[†] Mr. Shield (p. 3) has given the *Positions*, without distinguishing them by this name; the *Inversions* are described by him (p. 26) under the Titles of first and second *Derivatives*.

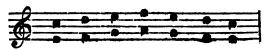
p. 152), without any regard (as in the Chord of the Sixth) to the omission of one Note, or the doubling of another (Art. 295, p. 154).



SECT. III.—OF THE DIRECT AND CONTRARY (
MOTIONS, AND THE RULES FOR THEIR USE
IN HARMONY.

299. Before the Harmonical succession of Triads can be rightly understood, it is necessary to explain the different Motions of the parts which constitute Harmony. Two of these are essential, viz. the direct Motion and the contrary Motion.

300. In the direct Motion, the parts move the same way, ascending or descending.



301. In the contrary Motion, one part rises, while the other falls.



- 302: By the knowledge of these two Motions, the power of avoiding many harmonical irregularities may be obtained, and the following rules* of Harmony correctly observed.
- 1. All consecutive Octaves and Fifths must be avoided in the direct Motion.

Octaves and Fifths by the direct Motion.



The same avoided by the contrary Motion.



- II. All unnecessary Skips are to be avoided, and all the Chords are to be taken as closely and as much connected as possible.
- III. All false Relations (such as the extreme sharp Second, &c.) are disallowed, unless for the expression of some particular effect.
 - IV. All irregular Motions of the parts in

^{*} The ten Rules of Pietro Aron (1523, Dr. B. iii. 155) were afterwards extended to twelve. See Cerone (El Melopeo, 1613, p. 571), and Lorente (El Porque, 1678, p. 298).

Harmony are to be avoided. Every Major or sharp Interval ought to ascend, and every Minor or flat Interval ought to descend; that is to say, the part in which those Intervals are found in combination, is to rise after the Sharp, and to fall after the Flat. This rule, however, is always subordinate to that of avoiding Octaves or Fifths*, and is not regarded when the Melody is to produce an effect opposite to the rule. The internal parts of Harmony, however, are to be regulated by these observations.

SECT. IV.—OF HARMONICAL PROGRESSION.

303. The term Progression + will be used, in this Work, in contradistinction to the term Modulation ‡, to signify that succession of Triads or perfect Chords, which, by being con-

^{*} Nicolas Burtius (Musices Opusculum, 1487), the Guidonian adversary of Bartholomew Ramis, was a Pythagorean follower of Boethius, and admitted no Consonances but Octaves, Fifths, and Fourths. He calls the Thirds and Satths allowable Dissonances (Dissonances compussion), and has given (fol. e, 5) five Precepts of Counterpoint, which will ever be classical, particularly that of avoiding Fifths and Octaves in succession.

[†] Tonfuhrung, Koch's Anleitung, ii. 199.

I Tonausweichung, Kech's Anleitung, ii. 169.

fined to the Scale of the original Key, only admits the Tonic and its two attendant Harmonies, occasionally interspersed with the relative Tonic and the two Harmonies attending on that Scale; whether the original Mode be Major or Minor.

. Although a change into the relative Scale implies a partial Modulation, yet in all cases, where the new Scale remains undecided*, by the omission of the leading Note, and the original Tonic still continues a predominant Sound, the term Progression will be retained.

304. As the Scale consists of seven different Notes, it is evident that two Triads, which only contain five Notes (one Note being common to both), cannot decide the Key. Hence the following Examples, although perfectly similar in Notes, appear, by means of the Accent, to be in two different Keys, and are therefore equivocal.



305. If, however, three different Chords are

^{*} Particularly in Sequences, as will be explained hereafter.

taken, the Key may be decided: this is performed by the progression* of Tonic, Subdominant, and Dominant.



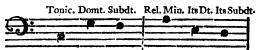
306. Thus, in the Tonic Harmony, are found the 3d and the 5th

In the Subdominant, the 4th and 6th

And in the Dominant, the 2d and 7th

of the Root of the Scale†.

307. The Major Mode, with its relative Minor, and the four attendant Harmonies, may be thus arranged:



The following excellent observation of Dr. Pepusch (p. 8) cannot be too often, or too strongly, impressed upon the mind of the Student, viz. All melodies have their per. Fect concords of the key they are in, for their fundamental basses.

⁺ This arrangement is like that before given (Art. 191, p. 108), where the Chords are shown detached in Minima.

308: The Minor Mode, with its relative Major, and the four attendant Harmonies, may be thus arranged:

Tonic. Domt. Subdt. Rel. Maj. Its Subdt. Its Dt.



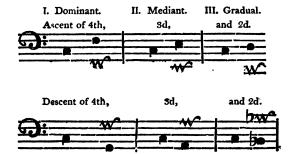
- 309. The relative attendant Harmonies are very seldom used, particularly the relative Subdominant, or Second of the Major Mode (as D in C Major; but, in modern Music, this Harmony more frequently occurs, and will be further explained hereafter *.
- Roots of these Chords, are reducible to six, divided into three classes.
 - I. The Dominant † Motion, or ascent of the 4th or 5th.
 - II. The Mediant Motion, or ascent of the 3d or 6th.

^{*} Dr. Pepusch, although he expressly allows the Harmonnies of A, and of E, in C Major, makes no mention of D, p. 18.

[†] The Dominant Motion is the foundation of the perfect and imperfect Cadences, as the Gradual Motion is of the false and mixt Cadences: these will be explained in the Fourth Chapter of this Part.

III. The Gradual Motion, or ascent of the 2d or 7th.

These may, of course, be inverted, and become the same descending; as the *Directs* towards the remoter distances shew in the Example.



- 311. Of these Motions, the *Dominant* and the *Mediant* are regular, having a Sound common to both Chords; but the *Gradual* is irregular, as the Chords have no connexion with each other.
- 312. When the *Melody* moves regularly, by Degrees ascending or descending, the following Progressions * in the Base are often employed.

^{*} See Koch's Lexicon, art. Dreyklang, i. 491.

I. Dominant Motion by Fourths.

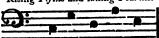
Rising Fourths and falling Fifths.

Descending Melody.



Rising Fifths and falling Fourths.

Ascending Melody.



H. Mediant Motion by THIRDS.

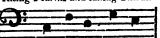
Rising Thirds and falling Fourths.

Descending Melody.



Rising Fourths and falling Thirds.

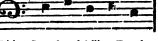
Accending Melody.



III. Gradual Motion by Seconds.

Rising Seconds and falling Thirds.

Bescending Melody.



Rising Seconds and falling Fourths.

Descending Melody.



CHAP. II.

OF THE DOMINANT SEVENTH, ITS IN-VERSIONS, RESOLUTION, AND OF MODULATION.

SECT. I.-OF THE DOMINANT SEVENTH.

313. When a Minor Seventh is joined to the Major Triad, a Chord of four different Sounds is formed, and, as this only occurs when the Fifth of the Key is the Base Note, the Harmony is called the Dominant* Seventh.



The Note which forms the Discord in this Harmony, is the Subdominant or Fourth of the Scale; and, being a Minor Interval, requires the part in which it is heard, to descend one Degree.

^{*} The Dominant before-mentioned (Art. 252, p. 136) derives its name from the ancient Church Tones, in which it was the Fifth in the Authentic, and the Octave in the Plagal Scales, but always a Fifth above the final or modern Tonic. Mersenne, in his learned work, entitled, Traitè de l'Harmonie Universelle, first published in 8vo. under the assumed

314. In the Major Mode, this descent is a Semitone, as in the following Example:



In the Minor Mode, the E becomes flat, and the descent is consequently that of a Tone.

315. The Major Third of the Dominant, which is also the sharp Seventh or leading Note of the Scale, must ascend. Thus, in the Major Scale, the two characteristic Notes are united, and form, between themselves, the Interval of the flat Fifth, of which the Root is the Dominant; thus,



316. In all regular progression, the Dominant Seventh requires the Triad of the Tonic to succeed it, and hence its Base-note is called by Rameau, the governing Note or Dominant of the Key.

name of Le Sieur de Sermes (Paris, 1627), has given the following explication of the term:

[&]quot;Il faut remarquer que le Pseaume est dit se chanter en fa, en la, &c. non qu'il n'ait que cette seule note; mais parce qu'elle est plus souvent repetée que les autres; de là vient qu'on l'appelle Dominante, car elle s'entend plus souveat que les autres, et gouverne le ton." (P. 248, 249).

CHAP. 11. DOMINANT SEVENTH. 167

317. The Dominant Seventh is used, like all other Discords, either by Transition, Addition, or Suspension*; and must in all cases be resolved, that is, taken away, by the descent of the part in which it is found. As a passing or added Note, it is employed without preparation; thus,



318. But, as a suspended Note, it must be prepared, that is, heard in the preceding Harmony; thus,



In this instance, the F prepares the Seventh in the first Harmony; is heard as a Discord in the second; and resolves, by descending to E, in the third.

⁻ Every Discord of Suspension must be prepared, struck, and resolved; hence arise the three terms, *Preparation*, *Percussion*, and *Resolution*, described by Padre Mastini, Saggio di Contrappunto, p. xxvii.

319. There are several other Sevenths, used in Harmony, upon the different Triads of the Scale (whether Consonant or Dissonant), in both Modes. These Sevenths*, although not exactly Chords of the Dominant, are nevertheless used in its place, to avoid Modulation; as will be hereafter explained in the fifth Chapter of this Part, on Sequences. They also preserve a uniform motion in the progression of their Roots (Art. 312, p. 164), and, at the same time, produce a Melody, descending by degrees, in the original Key. These are,

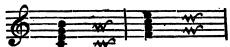
320. I. The Minor Sevenths with Minor Thirds, on the Triads of A, D, and E, which belongs to A Minor.



^{*} M. Framery (Encyclopédie Méthodique, art. Dominante) controverts the Nomenclature of Rameau, Bethizy, &c. in which these Sevenths are called simple Dominants, and the principal one Tonic Dominant; and shews that the term ought to be confined to the Fifth of the Key: this arrangement is followed in the present Work.

[†] The first inversion of this Chord, taken on the Subdominant of the Major Key, is in the system of Rameau a fundamental Chord with the added Sixth. It will be shewn hereafter, that the Root depends upon the Key or Scale, and that the Seventh, D, F, A C, has D for its root in A Minor, and F for its root in C Major.

321. II. The Major Sevenths with Major Thirds, on the Triads of C and F, which belong to C Major. These are often found in passages of Transition, as the Directs shew in the following Examples:



322. III. The Minor Seventh with the flat Fifth, upon B.



This belongs either to C Major, or to A Minor, according to its Resolution, as shewn by the Directs. If, however, the Dominant on E should require G natural instead of G sharp (as shewn by the last Directs), the Chord becomes part of a Sequence, and the Minor Mode of A changes.

323. IV. The extreme flat Seventh*, upon G sharp in A Minor, formed of three Minor Thirds.

^{*} Or equivocal Chord. Shield, p. 122.

324. The Seventh, consisting of four Sounds, admits of four different positions*; thus,



The first position is that of 3d, 5th, 7th, and 8th.

The second, of 5th, 7th, 8th, and 3d. The third, of 7th, 8th, 3d, and 5th.

The fourth, of 8th, 3d, 5th, and 7th.

These positions, like those of the Triad (Art. 292, p. 152), contain the Tenth, Twelfth, and Fourteenth of the Root, when the Third, Fifth, and Seventh, are taken above the Octave.

^{*} In general, the Octave to the Root is omitted, otherwise a Chord of five Sounds would be employed; a combination seldom necessary. Pasquali (Thorough Base, p. 20) has uniformly given the Chord of the Seventh full, with four Notes in the Accompaniment; but this appears irregular, as three Notes are generally sufficient. At a final Cadence, indeed, the Dominant may be taken thus, D, F, G, B, but then the following Tonic ought to consist of C, E, G, C.

CHAP. II. DOMINANT SEVENTH. 171

SECT. II.—OF THE INVERSIONS OF THE DO-MINANT SEVENTH.

325. This Harmony, which consists of four different Sounds, has, consequently three Inversions, besides its direct form of 3d, 5th, and 7th, just described.

326. I. The Chord of the Fifth and Sixth is the first Inversion of the Dominant Seventh, when the Base Note becomes the Third of the Root. In Thorough Base, it is expressed by a 5* under a 6 (to which the Third is understood), and, in practice, the Octave of the Base Note is omitted.



[•] It is often usual to omit the six, and to express this Chord by a five singly, with the stroke through it, thus \$5, like the sharp \$\mathbb{G}\$ (Art. 297, p. 155); and, as this always implies the flat Fifth (Art. 163, p. 96), the Sixth and the Third are consequently understood. This Inversion is employed in the Hailstone Chorus (Israel in Egypt), and finishes the Sequence of Sixths, to the words, "ran along upon the ground."

327. II. The Chord of the Third and Fourth is the second Inversion of this Harmony, when the Base Note becomes the Fifth of the Root. It ought, according to its derivation, to be expressed by a 3 under a 4 (to which the Sixth is understood); but, as the Fourth* (or proper Root of the Harmony) is not pleasing to the ear, it is usually omitted. Thus, the Chord appears as a simple Sixth, and also as the first Inversion of the Diatonic Dissonant Triad, D, F, B.



Mattheson (Orch.i. 1713, p. 128) rejects the Fourth from among the Concords, and asserts its dissonant nature. Handel, Corelli, &c. have uniformly omitted it in this Harmony. The theory of the one, and the practice of the others, seem to be, in this instance, justified, by the want of Melody in the intermediate part, when the Fourth is inserted. In modern Music, however, this Inversion is used complete with considerable success, when the Tonic Base both precedes and follows it. See an admirable instance in the Opera of Motezuma, by Sacehin, at the Chorus, "Nell'orror," p. 62, 65a

173

CHAP. II. DOMINANT SEVENTH.

328. III. The Chord of the Second and Fourth* is the third Inversion of this Harmony, when the Base Note becomes the Discord; and the Triad commences on the next Degree above. It is expressed by a 2 under a 4 (to which the 6th is understood); sometimes by a 2 alone.



As the third inversion of the Dominant produces a very great effect, the compositions of the best Masters afford frequent examples of its utility. In the last Chorus of the Messiah (Amen), before the final pause, this inversion of the Dominant Harmony of A, upon the Base Note G, is a remarkable instance of the sublimity of Handel.

SECT. III.—OF THE RESOLUTION OF THE DOMINANT SEVENTH.

- 329. The descent of the part in which the Dominant Seventh is found, is called its Resolution; and, as before observed (Art. 314, p. 166), that descent is either a Tone or a Semitone, according to the Mode.
- 330. This Resolution of the Seventh, occasions two apparent irregularities*, viz.
- I. The four sounds of the Dominant, followed by the three of the Triad; in which the last Harmony is weakened by two parts becoming Unison †.



^{*} See the remarks on Pasquali, in the Note, p. 170.

⁺ The Unison parts are placed in the middle Staff, with Stems turning both ways.

II. The omission of the Fifth in the Tonic Triad, when the antecedent Dominant is taken without the Octave to the Base; thus,



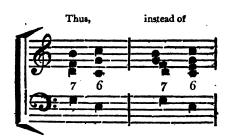
331. When, however, instead of the Octave, the Fifth or Third of the Dominant itself is omitted, the subsequent Triad can be taken complete; thus,



In all these Examples, the Minor Seventh (or Subdominant of the Scale) descends; and the Major Third of the Dominant (or leading Note of the Scale) ascends*. (See Art. 315, p. 166.)

^{*} Rousseau, art. Sauver—Koch and Sulzer, art. Auftösung, have written long and useful articles on this subject. See also Shield, p. 69.

- 332. Two instances also occur, when this general rule of resolving the Seventh by the descent of the Melody, is apparently neglected.
- I. When, by licence, the Base itself takes the Resolution*;



H. When, after the third Inversion (Art. 328, p. 173), the Base, instead of descending a Semitone, descends a Fourth to the Tonic, and another part takes the Resolution;



[•] Kollmann, Essay on Harmony, p. 38. Holden, p. 65.

CHAP. II. DOMINANT SEVENTH.

333. A more unusual licence is taken in the following Example, from what are called Haydn's Sonatas, Op. 40*, where the Base descends to the Root by the contrary motion, and the Seventh is resolved by the intermediate part, as shewn by the Direct.

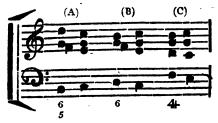


334. The same Base, in respect of the letters, but in the direct motion (which may be found in some attempts at composition), is decidedly false, and ungrammatical (as at A); although the very same Melody, on the Tonic Base continued (as at B), is frequently and very properly employed.



The two first of these three Sonatas were composed by Pleyel, and only the last in G by Haydn.

- 335. Not only the Positions of the Dominant Seventh may be changed, but the Inversions also may succeed each other, previous to its Resolution *. Great care however must be taken, in the arrangement of the parts, to prevent transgressing the rules given, p. 158.
 - 336. I. The first Inversion, or Chord of the Fifth and Sixth, resolves by the Base ascending a Semitone, as in the following Example (at Λ).
 - II. The second, or Chord of Third and Fourth, resolves by the Base descending a Tone (as at B); and
 - III. The third, or Chord of Second and Fourth, resolves by the Base descending a Semitone (as at C).



337. The other Sevenths (p. 168), when used in Sequences, have similar Inversions; and the method of Resolution is generally applicable to them all.

^{*} Rameau, p. 84.

SECT. IV.—OF MODULATION.

338. As all changes of Key are known decidedly by the use of the Dominant Seventh, the different Modulations from both Scales will be now explained.

Modulation from the Major Scale.

339. I. To the Scale of its Subdominant. The principal, and most simple change of Key, is that which, by adding a Minor Seventh to the Tonic, makes it a new Dominant; and hence the Subdominant becomes a new Tonic; thus,



340. This Modulation being continued, forms a circle of descending Fifths * (or ascending Fourths), of which the series is as follows:



^{*} Shield, p. 46, 78.



341. II. To the Scale of its Dominant. The second change is that which, by retaining the Octave of the Tonic itself, as a Seventh, and by making the Base ascend a Tone in gradation*, descends from the Supertonic to the original Dominant; thus,



342. This Modulation being continued, forms a circle of ascending Fifths (or descend-

[#] Holden, p. 72, art. 210.

CHAP. II. DOMINANT SEVENTH. 181

ing Fourths), of which the series is as fol-



343. These two Modulations are in continual use; the last, or Dominant change, in the former part of a Movement; and the first, or Subdominant change, towards the conclusion, to restore the original Tonic. The Subdominant Modulation only requires two Roots, but that of the Dominant requires three.

344. III. To the Scale of the Submediant or Relative Minor*. The third change is that

^{*} Rameau, p. 67.

in which the Base rises from the Tonic to the Mediant; and, making that a new Dominant, by the addition of the Seventh, descends to the Relative Minor Tonic.



345. A similar Modulation being continued, forms a circle of Keys, in which the Major and Relative Minor succeed each other alternately, and of which the following series is part:



This Modulation requires four Roots, previous to the alteration of its Signature; but the sudden addition of the Seventh (especially after the Minor Tonic), is rather harsh and unexpected.

346. IV. To the Scale of the Mediant, or Relative Minor of the Dominant. The fourth change is that which, through a previous Mo-

CHAP. II. DOMINANT SEVENTH. 183

dulation into the Dominant, makes the original Mediant a Tonic; thus,



347. V. To the Scale of the Supertonic, or Relative Minor of the Subdominant. The fifth change is that which, by making the Submediant a Dominant, forms a new Scale on the Supertonic; thus,



348. This change, although apparently simple, is in reality very remote, as before observed, Art. 309, p. 162, and will be hereafter more particularly considered.

Modulation from the Minor Scale.

349. I. To the Scale of its Subdominant. The principal change, like that in the Major Mode (Art. 339, p. 179), is made by adding R 2

a Seventh to the Tonic, and sharpening its Third, to form a new Dominant; thus,



350. II. To the Scale of its Dominant. The second change requires an additional Harmony (borrowed from the Sequence of Sevenths*) to alter its Signature, previous to the use of the new Dominant; thus,



351. III. To the Scale of its *Mediant* or Relative Major. The third change is made by the reversed Gradation[†], or the descent of a Tone; thus,



^{*} This will be more fully explained hereafter.

[†] Shield, p. 20. Diatonic Succession of Chords. Holden, p. 72. Rameau, p. 116.

352. IV. To the Scale of its Submediant. The fourth change adds a Seventh to the Mediant, as in the Minor Modulation before given, Art. 345, p. 181.



353. V. To the Scale of its Seventh. The fifth change, which is very unusual, is made from the original Subdominant with a Major Third; thus,



354. Although no Modulation is complete without the use of the Dominant Harmony, which contains always one, and in the Major Mode both, of the characteristic Notes of the New Scale (see Articles 261, p. 140, and 315, p. 166), yet the order in which this Harmony is given in the foregoing Examples, is not in all cases necessary to be observed.

355. Modulations are continually formed from one Scale to another, by means of Tonic Harmonies alone; but, in those instances, it is pro-

per to introduce the new Dominant as soon as possible, to decide the Key; otherwise, the equivocal effect, before adduced (Art. 304, p. 160), would frequently occur.

356. The limits of the present Work will not allow a more extensive consideration of this important branch of Harmony. The changes here given are the foundation of all regular Modulation; and, in the Chapter of Licences, a more ample explanation of irregular Modulation will be found.

CHAP. III. OF DISCORDS.

Art. 357. Discords are used in Harmony, either by Transition, Suspension, Syncopation*, or Addition.

SECT. I.—DISCORDS OF TRANSITION.

358. Any Note which passes by one Degree between the other Notes of the Triad, forms a Discord of Transition, and, if found on the weak part of the Measure, is termed a passing Note.



The following radical Base shews which are the Discords of regular Transition, and which are Concords, in the preceding Example.



^{*} The Discords of Suspension and Syncopation must be regularly prepared, struck, and resolved (Art. 318, p. 167); but those of Transition and Addition require, as their names imply, no preparation.

⁺ Dr. A. No. 47, p. 29.

359. The Notes of irregular Transition are found on the strong parts of the Measure, and are called by the Germans, *Changing* Notes (Art. 106, p. 63).

In the following Example, a particular instance of irregular Transition occurs.



The last Note but one (viz, the F sharp), is here taken as a Discord by irregular Transition, which the radical Base placed below demonstrates.

360. The Notes of regular and irregular Transition are intermixed in the following passage.

(Thus saith the Lord*).



361. In modern Music, all the Discords of Transition may be reduced to Appoggiaturas or After-notes (Art. 105, p. 63). Thus, the Quavers in the following Phrase may be turned into Crotchets preceded by Appoggiaturas.

(Pleyel's Sonata 1, to the Qucen).



362. The reduction of this Phrase shews the real Notes of the Harmony, and explains the nature of irregular Transition[†], in which Appoggiaturas are always employed.



^{*} Messiah, Dr. A. No. 6, p. 19.

[†] Morley observes (p. 81) concerning Passing Notes, that

363. When the Notes of Transition are prolonged, they appear as integral parts of the Harmony, and are sometimes marked* with the figures of Thorough Base; thus,

(Corelli, Concerto 8th, Dr. Papusch's edition).



[&]quot;it is impossible to ascend or descend in continual Deduction without a Discord;" but he seems to condemn (p. 79) those which are now termed Discords of irregular Transition. See some excellent remarks on these Discords in Dr. Burney, ii. 462.

^{*} A stroke also drawn over the Notes, instead of the figures, is used as a mark, to show the continuance of the first Harmony. Emanuel Bach (Versuch, 2d Part, p. 25) has proposed several methods of distinguishing the Notes of irregular Transition from those of the Harmony. He prefers the

These two intermediate Notes between the Tonic and the Dominant descending, are Discords of regular and irregular Transition. They are explained by an After-note and an Appoggiatura, as in the following Example:



√364. The same Base Passage (a Semitone lower in D Major) is employed by Handel; in which the Notes are not transient, but each bears its own proper Harmony, according to the reversed Gradation from the Dominant*.



oblique stroke; a specimen of which may be seen in Heck, p. 12. Mr. Kollmann (Essay on Harmony, p. 50), has explained the two kinds of Transition in the class of Accidental Chords.

* The Hypodiatonic Cadence of Mercadier de Belesta (1776, p. 28); a progression which will ever remain classical, notwithstanding the objection of M. La Borde, and his remarks upon M. Levens, iii. 646, 654. (See also Lampe's Thorough Bass (1737), p. 26.)

365. In passages of Double Transition, particularly when regular, the slow time of the Note does not affect the Harmony of the Root, as in the second measure of the following Example:



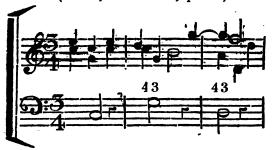
366. In this passage, the Harmony of D flat is succeeded by that of F, and the transient Fourth and Sixth are unnoticed in the radical Base.

SECT. IL-DISCORDS OF SUSPENSION*.

1. Of the Fourtht.

367. The Fourth, accompanied with the Fifth and Eighth, is an Appoggiatura, continued in the place of the Third, on the strong part of the Measure. It is generally prepared, and is resolved by descending one Degree.

(Carelli, Concerto 10, p. 140).



368. It has two Inversions, viz. the Second and Fifth, which suspends the Sixth (Art. 295,

[•] While Rameau, in France (1722), was confusing his System with a false Theory of these Discords, Fuz, at Vienna (1725), explained them in a few words, as simple Retardations of the following Note: "Notas ligatas haud aliud esse, quam Notas sequentis Retardationem." P. 70.

[†] This Chord, under the title of eleventh Heteroclite (that is, used only in part, or in an imperfect state), makes a conspicuous figure in the theory of Rameau. P. 41, 96, 98, &c.

p. 154), and the Fourth and Seventh, which suspends the Fourth and Sixth (Art. 298, p. 156), the two Inversions of the Triad.



II. Of the Ninth.

369. The Ninth, accompanied with the Third and Fifth, is an Appoggiatura, continued in the place of the Eighth. It is, like the Fourth, generally prepared, and always resolved*.

[•] The intermixture of the Discords of Suspension with those of Transition, is beautifully exemplified in the opening of Pergolesi's Stabat Mater. (See Mr. Shield, p. 66).

(Corelli, Concerto 10th, p. 140).

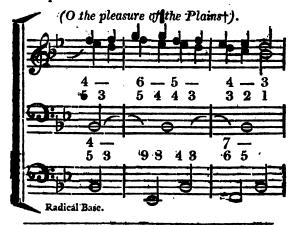


370. The double Suspensions of the Fourth and Ninth, and of the Seventh and Ninth, frequently occur. An early example is found in Carissimi*.



See his "Plorate filize Israel," printed in Kircher, i, 604.
 § 2

- 371. The Chord of the Ninth has two 1n-versions; one figured with a Seventh, followed by its Resolution the Sixth, on the Third of the Root; the other figured as Fifth and Sixth, on the Fifth of the Root.
- 372. The following Tonic Pedal or Organpoint, is a very important study for the Chords of Suspension*.



This passage is also used by Corelli, and by Handel, in Samson, "Hear Jacob's God," &c. Dr. B. iv. 146. Sir J. H. Tv. 92. La B. iv. 460. (See also Rameau, p. 97).

The Abbé Roze (see La Borde, tom. iii. p. 476), chews telearly that these passages form a species of Supporition, in which the Holding Note is not considered in the radical Base, art. 9, p. 482.

⁺ Acis and Galatea. Dr. A. No. 28, p. 8. See a similar pas-

III. Of the Appoggiaturas of Suspension.

- 373. Although every Note of Suspension may be reduced to an Appoggiatura*, yet, in modern Music, some Notes are more particularly used as such than others, and differ from those just described by greater freedom in their resolution.
- 374. Any part of the Dominant Seventh may be retained on the Tonic Base, and afterward proceed according to its proper motion (Art. 331, p. 175).
- 375. The Ninth also may resolve by ascending into the Tenth, and the sharp Seventh (or leading Note) must resolve by ascending into the Eighth.

sage in the celebrated air of Vinci—" Vo solcando un mar crudele." The remarks of Tartini (p. 148) are also important.

The opinion of Emanuel Bach is very decisive on this subject; he even agrees with Fux, &c. that all Ligatures and Dissonances may be reduced to Appoggiaturas.

[&]quot;Man kann alle Bindungen und Dissonantien auf diese Vorschlage zuruck-führen."—Versuch, p. 45.

This is, however, extending the term somewhat too far, as the essential Sevenths of Kirnberger, which are used in the Sequence of descending Fifths (Art. 383, p. 201), cannot be considered as Apprograturas (Verschlage), although they are bound by the Ligature (Bindung).

376. In this ascending Resolution of the Dominant Seventh, the figure of the suspended Ninth often becomes a Second*; thus,

- 7	78	7.	7 8 4 3	7	7 8 2 3	7	7 8 4 5 2 3	
		į				D		3
VID								3
					0			3
								1

377. In Diatonic Sequences, as will be shewn hereafter, every Note of the Scale may bear single or double Suspensions.

All these Notes are nothing more than the retardation or retention of a Sound, longer than the duration of its own Root, upon a new radical Base+.

[•] In modern Music, the whole Harmony of the Dominant is often retained in the place of the Tonic, and the radical Base Note of the Tonic itself suspended till the latter part of the Measure. This will be further explained in treating of the Cæsure.

[†] That peculiar effect which is produced from an internal Melody by the employment of Suspension, has been well described by Rousseau, art. Unity of Melody. In this valuable article, while he wishes to exalt his favourite branch of Music, Melody, at the expence of Harmony, he actually proves the superiority of the latter, and praises those beautiful effects which, without Harmony, could not exist.

IV. Of Anticipation*, &c.

378. When a Note is diminished by half its value, and the following Degree employed to fill up its time upon the former Base, such change is termed Anticipation. These anticipated Notes are considered wholly as relating to Melody, and are not noticed by the figures of Thorough Base.



379. In the foregoing Example, taken from the Lexicon of Koch† (article Vorausnahme), the first Measure (A) contains the simple Notes; the second (B) shews the Anticipation in Quavers; and the third (C) repeats the same Anticipation in syncopated Notes.

^{*} The term Anticipation is used in a different sense by Heck, p. 53,

[†] Anticipations are considered by Koch as After-notes, which may be tied on to the chief Note of the following Meadow.

380. The Postpositions of Dr. Pepusch*, are in reality nothing more than irregular Suspensions, being the reverse of the Anticipations, and used in the following manner:



381. Many other Chords of Suspension may be formed, by combining all the preceding indifferent ways. Hence arise the Second and Third†, the Sixth and Ninth, &c. &c.; which may be found in Kirnberger, Kollmann, Shield, &c.

[•] Treatise on Harmony, 1731, p. 49. "Postposition, or Retardation of Harmony, is the putting a Discord upon the accented part of the Bar, followed by a Concord on the next unaccented part, but not prepared and resolved according to the rules for Discords." Example 130, 131, 132.

[†] This Chord, which arises from a Suspension of the Base, is described by Emanuel Bach, p. 91; Heck, p. 54; and Shield, p. 50.

SECT. III.—DISCORDS OF SYNCOPATION.

- 382. The Discords of Syncopation* only differ from those of Suspension †, by constituting part of the radical Harmony, and by not being merely Appoggiaturas.
- 383. The Diatonic Sequence of Sevenths, is one of the principal passages in which these Discords are used.



384. The German Authors, previous to the writings of Kirnberger (1774), seem to have classed the Discords of Suspension with those

The term Syncope, or Syncopation, signifies the division or cutting through a Note by a Bar, or Accent expressed or understood.

[†] The term Suspension is used in its most extensive sense in a former article (p. 167, Art. 317), for the purpose of shewing the difference between prepared and unprepared Discords.

of Syncopation*; but his arrangement of Chords, into essential and accidental, establishes that difference between them which is adopted in this Work.

SECT. IV.—DISCORDS OF ADDITION.

385. When any Discord which has not been heard in the preceding Harmony, is united to the perfect Triad, it is termed in this Work a Discord of Addition+.

386. The Discords of Addition are the Seventh, the Ninth, both on the Dominant; and the Sixth on the Subdominant; these are particularly useful in distinguishing those two Harmonies from that of the Tonic.

I. Of the added Seventh.

387. The whole Second Chapter of this Part, from p. 165 to 186, relates to the Dominant

Heck places them together, p. 13; and Heck was well wersed in the Musical Literature of Germany.

[†] The Discords of Addition, although implied in the writings of Morley, p. 143; Simpson, p. 67; Pepusch, p. 40, 168, &c. were not fully established until Mr. Holden's Essay appeared in 1770. The term Addition is now adopted in France by M. Langlè (1801), but in a less extensive sense.

Seventh, particularly Art. 317, where the difference between the added and the transient Seventh is shewn. The third Section, p. 174, treats of its Resolution; which term is equally applied to the descent of the Seventh, whether used by Transition, Suspension, Syncopation, or Addition.

II. Of the added Sixth.

388. As the Dominant Harmony is distinguished from that of the Tonic by its added Seventh, so the Subdominant is distinguished from the Tonic, and from the Dominant, by its added Sixth*.

389. Whenever the Melody of a single part (as at A), or the Harmony of the whole (as at B), requires it, the Subdominant may have its

Theorists are divided in their opinions concerning the Reot of this Chord; but a great majority of Authors are in favour of its derivation from the Second or Supertonic of the Key. (See Shield, p. 21, 22, &c. &c.)

Rameau seems to have been the first who classed it as a theoretical Chord; but Morley (p. 160, 2d edit.) gives a specimen of its practical use, and even allows it in Counterpoint, where Concords are chiefly employed. Holden follows D'Alembert and Serre, and inclines to the doctrine of Double Fundamentals. Marpurg and Kirnberger unite in rejecting this Chord as an addition, and both censure Rameau.

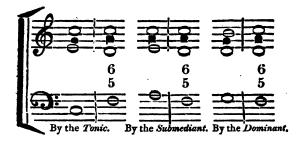
own Sixth (or Supertonic of the Scale) added to its Triad.





390. The Fifth and Sixth on the Subdominant may be prepared by the Tonic, by the Submediant, or by the Dominant*, as radical Bases; thus,

The preparation of the added Sixth by the Dominant, is found in the final Cadence of Steffani's Motes. Qui diligit.



391. This Discord may resolve two ways, viz. into the Tonic (on its second Inversion), or into the Dominant Harmony*.



392. The Inversions of this Harmony are seldom used; one instance, however, occurs in Handel's Overture to Esther.

Rameau has resolved it also into the Tonic Base, as an arregular Cadence. (See also Playford (1700), p. 163).



393. When this Harmony appears in the form of a Seventh on the Supertonic, it frequently constitutes part of the Diatonic Sequence of Sevenths, and, as such, may be accounted radical, like the diminished Triad of Kirnberger.



394. Rameau* estimates the Root of this Harmony by its Resolution, calling it D when followed by G, and F when followed by C. Meck† considers it as a compound of both the Harmonies of D and of F. Dr. Boyce (in. his MSS.), and with him the Author of this Work, thinks, that the Root is decided by the Scale of the Key in which it is found; thus,



395. Koch, in his Lexicon (art. Verbindungs Accord), has placed his accidental † Harmo-

Rousseau, Art. Double Emploi.

⁺ Heck, p. 74, says, "The Ascending Fourth of the Scale bears its own natural Harmony with an additional Sixth, in order to prepare the succeeding Fifth, and is thus compounded of two common Chords, that of D and F."

[‡] Koch terms the three Harmonies of the Key essential, and the three relatives accidental. (See before, Art. 305, p. 160).

nies in a different point of view. He considers them as connecting Chords, and seems to agree with Kirnberger*, who asserts that, by a species of Transition, the Harmony of the Triad is thus united to another of its Inversions.



In these Examples, the middle Harmony is said to pass, or to be wholly transient.

396. Which of these opinions is nearest the truth, the Author does not at present presume to decide; but the consideration of the Minor

[•] See Kirnberger (die wahren Grundsatze, p. 34).

Heck thinks that the Seventh used by Transition(as in this passage), does not resolve at all (p. 14).

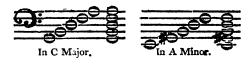
Keeble also (p. 90), has accounted for this Seventh in a similar manner, under the name of Extension.

Mode with the imperfect Fifth on its Supertonic B, authorizes him to assert, that the system which makes that Note a radical Base cannot be true.



III. Of the added Ninth*.

397. When to the Chord of the Dominant Seventh, the Ninth is also joined, a Chord of five Sounds is formed. It rises from the Root by regular Thirds †, in the following manner:



^{*} M. Langlè (Nouvelle Methode pour chiffrer les Accords, Paris, 1801), has completely overthrown the doctrine of Rameau, concerning Supposition, and the absurdity of imagining Sounds under a fundamental Base.

[†] The construction of all Chords by uniting Thirds, was

398. This Harmony being generally used in four parts, the radical Base is commonly omitted; for the Leading Note is always sufficiently powerful to guide the ear to its proper Root. In this form, the two Chords have been already described, Art. 322, and 323, p. 169.

399. The added Ninth* of the Dominant is really the Submediant of the Scale, or Sixth from the Tonic; it is consequently Major in the Major Mode, and Minor in the Minor Mode. Thus, although there is but one added Seventh, there are two added Ninths.

400. The omission of the Root forms a

a favourite notion of Rameau's: it has had some success; but the simplicity of Kirnberger's system of Suspension has evinced its fallacy, particularly in the Chords of the Fourth and Ninth. Marpurg extended it beyond the Chord of the Eleventh to that of the Thirteenth; but it will not be easy to find examples to justify any addition after the Ninth.

^{*} Mr. Kollmann (Essay on Harmony, p. 43), terms this Ninth, a Suspension of the original fundamental Note. Such is also the system of Kirnberger (p. 19); but the Nomenclature is defective, since the above Harmony is used generally without preparation, and in some instances actually rises from the Dominant by Thirds. See Handel's Chorus in Israel in Egypt—" The people shall hear," at the words "till thy people pass over."—See also the opening of Haydn's celebrated Overture in D, composed for Bach and Abel's Concerts; where, upon a Dominant Pedal Base, the Fourth is suspended, and the Ninth added.

Chord of the Seventh (Art. 322, p. 169) on the Leading Note, which may be known from the other Sevenths (either of the Sequence or of Suspension) by its resolution into the Tonic. It may sometimes be prepared, but is generally used without preparation.



- 401. The Inversions of this Seventh are not often employed in the Major Scale, but all are used in that of the Minor.
- 402. This Chord has been considered as a combination of the Dominant and Subdominant Harmonies, since it contains the B and D of the former, and the A and F of the latter, while the resolution of D and F falls on the same Note*.

This explanation of the Chord corresponds with the system of M. Bemetzrieder, whose Calls (Appels) are precisely the four Sounds of this Harmony. Leçons de Clavecin, p. 220.







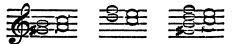
403. It is observable, that the above combination of Sounds includes every Note of the Scale, excepting the three Notes of the Triad on the Tonic, and that it also decides the Mode of the Scale, since the Sixth or Submediant is part of the Chord of the Subdominant, which is Major or Minor, according to the Key (Art. 399, p. 210).

404. The same Chord in the Minor Mode, consists of three Minor Thirds*; and its extreme Notes are the Sharp Seventh and Minor Sixth of the Scale. It is of great importance in modern Music, and is generally termed the Diminished Seventh (Art. 323, p. 169), or Equivocal Chord. In the resolution of its parts, it

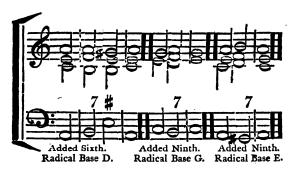
Paris, 1771. Translation by Bernard, 1778 (p. 317). The union of these two Harmonies, G and F, is a system far mere plausible than the combination of D and F in the added Sixth (Art. 394, p. 207).

^{*} Rameau, p. 100, terms this Harmony a borrowed Chord, because the Dominant "lends her Fundamental to the sixth Note of Minor Keys." This explanation is very obscure, although it is finally reducible to the theory of Kirnberger. (See Art. 399, p. 210).

conforms to that of the Major Chord in the last Example (Art. 402, p. 211).



405. This Harmony has a great advantage over the former (Art. 402), since it decides the Key; for the Harmony of B with a Seventh, may be in A Minor or in C Major.



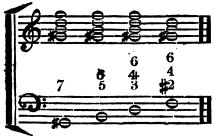
But the Seventh of G sharp can only be found in the Key of A Minor*.

- 406. The radical Base of this Chord may be found in extreme Modulations by two methods.
 - I. By the Major Third below the last Sharp.
 - II. By the Semitone below the last Flat.

^{*} See the Note in the preceding page.

When Naturals occur, the observations concerning them (Art. 97, p. 57) must be strictly regarded.

407. This Chord is not only considered as a direct Harmony, but all its three Inversions are occasionally employed.



Supposed First Second Third Radical. Inversion. Invers. Invers.

408. In those Keys where the Clef does not agree with the Modulation, the second Inversion* requires a Flat or Natural under the sharp Fourth.

[•] The effect of this Harmony is truly sublime in Handel's Deborah. See the first Chorus, "Immortal Lord," at the words, "whose anger, when it awful glows."



409. These two Chords of the added Ninth have been termed Chords of Major and of Minor Substitution*; since they are considered as derived from the Dominant Seventh, by substituting the Ninth in the place of the Eighth.

They are also styled Chords of borrowed Harmony; since the Seventh and Ninth are

The Abbé Roussier (Traité des Accords, 1764, p. 158), seems to employ the terms Substitution and borrowed Harmony (Emprunt) as Synonymes. Neither term is found, as an article, in the Dictionary of Rousseau. (See Holden, p. 100).

The principle of Supposition, from which Rameau has deduced these Chords, by placing Sounds below the Fundamental, is now (except in Pedal Harmonies) deservedly forgotten.

supposed to be derived or borrowed from the-Subdominant*.

410. All these Chords are liable to have any of their Sounds suspended on the following Tonic Harmony; and hence arise many figured Bases, too numerous to be inserted within the limits of the present Work.

[•] Mrs. Gunn (Introduction to Music, 1803, p. 207, 209) has given this explanation of borrowed Harmony, which differs from the original idea of Rameau, although it is not inapplicable to the combination. (See Art 402, p. 211).

CHAP. IV.

OF CADENCES.

Art. 411. A Cadence* in Harmony consists of two distinct Chords (the last of which is generally accented), and is used to terminate the Sections and Periods of Musical Rhythm.

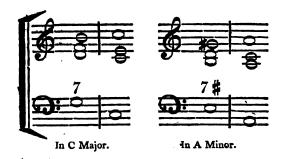
SECT. I.—OF RADICAL CADENCES.

412. When the Bases of both Chords are the Roots of their respective Triads, the Cadence is termed Radical; and, of these Radical Cadences, there are four in general use, the Perfect, Imperfect, False, and Mixt †: to these may be added the Plagal, or Church Cadence, which is only a variation of the Imperfect; and the Authentic, which is only the ancient term for the Perfect.

[•] The term Cadence was formerly applied to the final Melody of a Musical Close. See Morley, p. 73, and Butler, p. 66. The Germans adopted the Latin word Clausula in the same sense. (See Walther's Lexicon, 1732, p. 171).

[†] See the origin of the Cadences before explained, Art. 310, p. 162.

413. I. The Perfect Cadence* consists of the Dominant Harmony, followed by that of the Tonic; thus,



The first or leading Harmony is always Major. 414. II. The *Imperfect* Cadence† consists of the Tonic, followed by the Dominant without its added Seventh, and is the former Cadence reversed.

See Rameau, p. 38, of the Perfect Cadence.

[†] This is termed by Rameau (p. 43), the Irregular Cadence, and he wishes extremely to have the Sixth added to the leading Chord. This fancied improvement has been, with great propriety, rejected by subsequent Theorists. See Kirnberger, Die Kunst, p. 97; and Kollmann, Essay on Harmony, p. 59.



The second or final Harmony is always Major. 415. III. The False Cadence* consists of the Dominant, followed by the Submediant (in Diatonic Gradation) taken in the place of the Tonic. In the Major Mode, this Cadence forms the Interval of a Tone; in the Minor Mode, only a Semitone; and it is used instead of the Perfect Cadence, from which it is derived.



[•] The false or flying Cadence, is placed by Rameau (p. 87), among the Licences.

416. IV. The Mixt Cadence* is the Direct Gradation of the Subdominant to the Dominant, and is used instead of the Imperfect Cadence, from which it is derived.



417. The Plagal Cadence† only differs from the Imperfect as to its place in the Scale, being the progression of the Subdominant to the Tonic. This is used as a final Cadence in Church Music, particularly in the Hallelujah

Tartini, p. 102. Rameau has also mentioned another Cadence, which he terms interrupted (interrompue), from the Dominant to the Mediant. (Code de la Musique, 1760, p. 88).—Of this Progression at a Rhythmic Close, there are few, if any, practical examples.

[†] This is the Cadenza Aritmetica of Tartini, p. 103. For the etymology of the terms Plagal and Authentic, see Dr. Burney, ii, 13. See also the Rev. Mr. Jones of Nayland's Treatise (1784), p. 20; and the Cadence he alludes to in Dr. B. ii. 484.

Chorus, Messiah, and in the Coronation Anthem, Zadock the Priest.



The final Chord of this is always Major*.

418. The Authentic Cadence is the same as the Perfect (Art. 413, p. 218), and is only so termed in contradistinction to the Plagat (see Art. 177, p. 102).

^{*} Hence arises the necessity of varying the Third of the last Harmony in the Minor Mode, and of changing it to the Marjor Third. Dr. B. iii. 114. See also the observations of Mr. Shield, p. 40. Formerly it was usual to terminate every piece of Music with the Major Third, whatever might be the Car. dence. (See Padre Martini, Saggio I. p. 14, 23).

SECT. II.-OF MEDIAL CADENCES.

- 419. When the leading Harmony of any Cadence is not radical, but inverted, the Cadence is, in this Work, termed *Medial*, and is used to express an incomplete Close.
- 420. I. Cadence of the Leading Note.—This is the first Inversion of the Dominant, and is used instead of the Perfect Cadence*.



421. II. Cadence of the Sharp Sixth.—This is the second Inversion of the Dominant, and is sometimes used as a final Cadence on the Tonic, as in Non Dobis Domine; but

^{*} See examples of all these Cadences in Handel's Judgs. Maccabeus, "We worship God." Dr. A. No. 42, p. 144.

[†] Dr. B. ii. 305; iii. 92. Sir J. H. iii. 289.

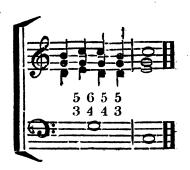
more generally on the Sixth of the descending Scale, when it commonly bears a suspended Seventh.



422. III. Cadence of the Major or Minor Sixth.—This is the first Inversion of the Mixt Cadence, and is chiefly used in the Minor Mode. It is also liable to the antecedent Suspension of the Seventh.



423. These Cadences may also become protracted, by using other Harmonies on the Dominant. Thus is formed what Dr. Pepusch calls the Grand Cadence*.



424. To these may be added those decep-

[•] Godfrey Keller (1731, p. 161) calls the 5th and 4th Cadence, common; the 6th and 4th Cadence bears its ownname; and that given in the Example above, is called the Great Cadence. (See Dr. Pepusch, p. 55).

tive* Cadences, which, by varying the final Chord, avoid the final Close.



Antoniotto, p. 99.

CHAP. V.

OF SEQUENCES.

Art. 425. Any similar succession of Chords in the same Scale, ascending or descending diatonically, is, in this Work, termed a Sequence*.

426. All Sequences are particularly distinguished by the irregularity of making the Leading Note a temporary Root, to avoid Modulation out of the original Scale.

I. Of Dominant Sequences.

427. The principal descending Sequence is that of Sevenths; an example of which has been already given (Art. 383, p. 201), derived from the progression of rising Fourths and falling Fifths in the Dominant Motion (Art. 312, p. 164).

The great distinction between a Sequence and a Modulation, consists in the Scale or Key remaining unaltered in the Sequence, and being changed in the Modulation. (See Art. 303, p. 160).

[†] Dr. Burney calls it a chain of Sevenths, ii. 217. The term Sequence, was probably first employed by Pasquali. k is found in Rameau (p. 10), in the more extensive sense of Progression.

II. Of Mediant Sequences.

428. The principal ascending Sequence is that known by a 5 followed by a 6, on a gradual Progression of the Diatonic Scale. It is derived from the Mediant Progression (Art. 312, p. 164).

In this, and the following Examples, the Directs shew the Radical Base.



This Sequence, like that of Sevenths, ad-

mits of the Leading Note*, as a temporary Root; and it seems to have been for the sake of elucidating these passages, that Kirnberger and Kollmann have admitted the diminished. Triad among the consonant Harmonies.

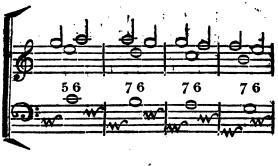
III. Of Inverted Sequences.

429. The principal inverted Sequences are those derived from the Sequence of Sevenths; and of these, the most usual is that of a 7, followed by a 6 on the gradual descending Progression of the Scale.

^{*} Art. 255, p. 137.

[†] Nothing but the rhythmical arrangement of the passage, which divides every Semibreve into two Roots, permits this departure from the first principles of Harmony, viz. that every Radical Base must bear a Perfect Fifth (Art. 291, p. 152), and that all Melodies belong to the three Chords of the Key (Art. 305, p. 160). These two Rules are liable to no exceptions, except what arise from the nature of the Sequences and the Licences. Dr. Boyce, in his Air of "Softly rise," has used this Sequence with great effect. Shield, p. 74.

This may also be considered as a simple Sequence of Sixths, with Suspensions of the Sevenths; and, in like manner, the ascending Sequence of Fifth and Sixth may be explained by Anticipation. (See Art. 378, p. 199). In Mr. Kollmann's Essay, p. 49, the Sequences are thus explained.





430. It is not unusual, in the first Inversion of the Sequence of Sevenths (that of the Fifth and Sixth), to leave every other Harmony as a simple Triad, in the following manner:



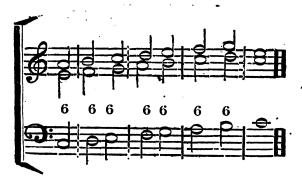
IV. Of Simple Sequences.

431. A descending Scale may also be accompanied by a simple Sequence of Sixths alone. The *Theory* of this Progression is involved in some difficulty*; but the uniform *Practice* of Authors, both ancient and modern, has established its use.

^{*} Rameau observes of this Sequence (p. 90), that Zarlino expressly forbids it (Insitu. Harmoniche, edit. 1573, p. 291); but its high antiquity, and its great effect in Modern Music, render it classical, notwithstanding the defect of the false Harmonyon D, derived from the Imperfect Triad of B, (Art. 287, p. 149). See Dr. B. ii. 76. Lampe, p. 39. Shield, p. 66, &c.

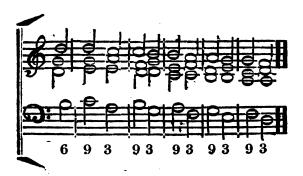


432. The same series may take place ascending; and the effect is nearly that of the Medial Sequence of 5 and 6, as the preceding series of the descending Scale resembles the inverted Sequence of 7 and 6.



V. Of Compound Sequences.

433. Compound Sequences are those which, by employing the Chords of Suspension, change their Harmonies on the alternate Base. Of these there are various kinds; one of the principal is that of descending Thirds with alternate Ninths*; thus,



434. These Sequences also may be doubly compounded, and then bear double Suspensions.

^{*} Shield, p. 30.



435. To these may be added the partial Sequences of two similar Harmonies, ffequently found in Handel, &c.; thus,



VI. Of Irregular Sequences.

436. It is not unusual to find an ascending Scale accompanied with 7 and 6, with 9 and 8, or with their Compounds $\frac{9}{7}$ and $\frac{8}{6}$ which form Irregular Sequences*. These Chords belong regularly to a descending Series.



Lampe, p. 87, gives an example of these Sequences, in which, by the contrary motion, the necessity of dividing the last Harmony is avoided.

In these Sequences, the unaccented Harmony must be divided in half, after the Resolution of the Discord, to prepare the following one, as in the antecedent Example; the 7th is then prepared by the 8th, and the 9th by the 10th*.

That the present Classification cannot comprehend all the Sequences which have been or can be invented, is sufficiently obvious. (See Shield, p. 10, &c. &c.)

CHAP. VI.

SECT. I.-OF PEDAL HARMONIES.

Art. 437. When the Dominant Harmony is taken unprepared upon the Tonic Base as a holding Note, whether preceded by the Tonic or by the Subdominant Harmony, the passage is termed a *Tonic Pedal* Note or Organ Point.



In the Chord of 4 the Dominant Note itself 2,

is generally omitted, for reasons before given (Art. 327, p. 172); and the Chord appears (independent of the holding Base) like that of the sharp Sixth on the Supertonic.

438. When also any Chords, or Sequences, are taken upon the Dominant Base, as a holding Note, a similar passage is formed; and the Base then also becomes a *Dominant Pedal* Note or Organ Point.

439. Not only the simple Dominant, but its compound derivative, the added Ninth (Art. 397, p. 209), may be taken on a Tonic Pedal. Hence arises the Chord of the Sixth and Seventh, or the Thirteenth of Marpurg*. This is used in the Minor Mode on the Tonic, and sometimes, by extreme Licence, on the Dominant.



^{*} Marpurg's arrangement of Chords, into the Consonant Triads, Dissonant Triads, and Sevenths, in the first class, and into the Ninth, Eleventh, and Thirteenth, in the second class, is clearly explained by Turk (General Base, 1791), p. 98, 100.

440. Not only these, but any other Chords, whether of Suspension, Sequence, &c. &c. may be taken on the Tonic, or the Dominant, as a Pedal Base; and some instances occur, in which these Sounds may be retained in a superior part, as in the following Example from Mozart, Op. 11.



SECT. II.-OF THE EXTREME SHARP SIXTH.

441. When, upon the first Inversion of the Mixt Cadence (Art. 422, p. 223), the Sixth of the Submediant (or Fourth of the Scale) is accidentally sharpened, the Chord of the extreme sharp Sixth* is formed.

This Harmony, when accompanied simply

See Art. 297, p. 155. Rousseau asserts, that this Harmony is never inverted. Framery (Art. Accord) has shewn, from a Passione of Paisiello, that its Inversion may be used; and we have an example in Weldon's Anthem, "Hear my crying." Dr. Boyce, Cath. Music, ii. 218.

by the Third, has been termed the Italian Sixth.

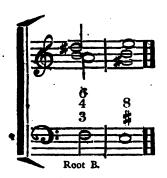


By this alteration of the Fourth, the species of Cadence is changed, from the first Inversion of the Mixt to the second Inversion of the Perfect (Art. 421, p. 222); and it is considered as a Licence, because the Root bears a flat Fifth, while at the same time the Third continues Major.

The radical Base, therefore, of the extreme sharp Sixth, is the Supertonic of the Key; and its Fifth is allowed to be defective, that the original Minor Mode may not be totally destroyed.

442. When to the simple combination of the Italian Sixth the Root itself is annexed, a Chord of *Third*, *Fourth*, and *Sixth* is formed; and, as this Harmony is only found in the

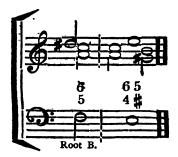
Theory of Rameau, it may be properly termed the French Sixth.



443. A Harmony still more remote, but extremely powerful, is formed upon this Chord, by inserting the added Ninth on the Root, as a supposed Dominant to the real one.

This occurs with great effect in the writings of Graun, &c.* and therefore may be called the German Sixth.

[•] See the example in Shield, p. 36. The Music of France, Italy, and Germany, cannot be illustrated in a smaller compass than by the use of these three Chords. The feebleness of the French Sixth, compared with the elegance of the Italian, and the strength of the German, leaves no doubt of their superior excellence. The admirable genius of Graun knew. when to employ Italian sweetness, and when to change it for German force.



It requires, however, a continuation of its Third and Fifth on the Dominant Base (as a new Fourth and Sixth), to prevent the consecutive Fifths.

SECT. III.—OF PARTIAL MODULATION.

- 444. Whenever the Dominant and Tonic of a new Key are employed without the Subdominant Harmony, such change constitutes a partial Modulation.
- 445. One change of this kind arises when the Seventh of the Major Mode is flattened, and the Modulation returns again through the Leading Note to the Tonic; thus,



446. Another change towards the Dominant is also frequently used; thus,



Many other changes occur, to the relative Minor (or Submediant), to the Mediant, to the Supertonic, &c. some of which are peculiar to the Music of the last forty years.

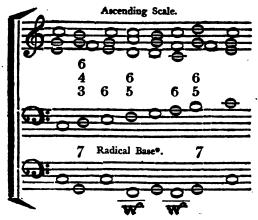
SECT. IV.-OF THE RULE OF THE OCTAVE.

447. It may appear singular to class this celebrated Progression among Musical Licences*; but, as the descending Scale equally includes a partial Modulation, and rejects the original Subdominant Harmony, so essential to the constituent parts of the Key (Art. 305, p. 160), the propriety of the classification appears obvious to the Author of this Work.

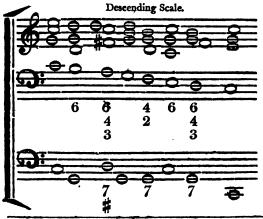
448. When a Diatonic Scale in the Base is accompanied with Harmony according to this Rule, the Roots, and their Inversions †, are thus intermixed:

^{*} Rousseau ascribes the invention of this Rule to De Laire, 1710. See his Art. Regle de l'Octave.

⁺ In the Minor Mode, when the Accidental Scale is employed, the Sixth must be sharpened.



449. The descending Scale makes a partial Modulation into the Dominant, like that given in Art. 446, p. 242.



^{*} The Directs placed over F, on the Supertonic, shew the

450. In the Minor Mode, the Inversion of the Mixt Cadence takes place, which, in modern Music, is generally varied by the Italian Sixth.



The remainder of the Scale coincides with that of the Major Mode.

451. Although this Scale is given in the above form by most of the Theoretical Writers, yet, in practical Music, such is the prevalence of partial Modulations, varied Sequences, &c. that the Rule is not often found complete*.

fundamental Bases of the French Theorists. The Hyperdiatonic Cadence of Mercadier de Belesta, p. 27, coincides with the under Notes.

^{*} See a striking instance in the Scales of Emanuel Bach, given by Mr. Shield, p. 82. Geminiani also (Art. of Accomp. Op. 11) very strongly objects to these Rules, because "they are uncertain and precarious." The Example before adduced (Art. 363, p. 190), shews that the descending Scale may be extremely varied, and that it may employ an Inversion of the Subdominant Harmony with great effect.

SECT. V .- OF CHROMATIC MODULATION.

- 452. When the Chromatic Semitones are introduced between the Notes of the Diatonic Scale, Chromatic Modulation is formed, in which the Key is continually, although partially, changing.
- 453. As the Diatonic Sequence of Sevenths is used to avoid Modulation, so a Chromatic Sequence of Sevenths consists of Dominants alone, and the Scale changes at every Chord; thus,



This Sequence forms a descending Chromatic Scale.

454. In a similar manner may be formed an

ascending Chromatic Sequence, derived from that of 5 and 6; thus,



This also makes a partial change at every other Harmony.

455. In Modern Music, a species of Chromatic Transition is employed, in which the Semitones occur, not as parts of the radical Harmony, but as Appoggiaturas, After-notes, or Acciaccaturas*.

456. The two following Examples, from the celebrated Opera of *Mosart*, the Zauberflöte, are instances of Chromatic Appoggiaturas.

[•] Geminiani (Treatise on Good Taste, 1749, p. 4), asserts, that the Acciseccature had been then in use above an hundred years.



457. The Acciaccatura, or Half Beat, is also used with great effect in a Terzett, from the same piece *.



SECT. VI.—OF ENHARMONIC MODULATION.

458. The last and most difficult branch of Harmony, is that which arises from the sudden change of Key made by the Enharmonic Diesis (Art. 214, p. 120).

459. When any one of the Sounds of the equivocal Chord (Art. 323, p. 169) is called by

[•] The Half Beat may also, in some few instances, be found on the Semitone above, taken as a Flat. See Clementi, Op. 2, Sonata 1ma, first Movement.

a new name, and placed on a new Degree*, the Root, Scale, and Signature, all change at once.



Root E, Key A Minor. Root G, Key C Minor.

460. As this Harmony† consists of four Sounds, each of which may be altered by the Diesis, the two following Modulations arise from the same Chord.



^{*} Although the temperament of Keyed Instruments authorizes the expressions here used, yet it must be understood that, in other Instruments, the difference between G sharp and A flat can be made, and is in theory always to be considered as a real Interval.

[†] The Harmony of the extreme flat Seventh has attracted the notice of all the Theorists who have written on the subject of Chords in modern times; and its complete discussion would fill an ample treatise. The well known air by Handel, in Samson, "Return, O God of hosts; the "Alma del gran Pompeo," in Giulio Cesare (see Dr. Burney, Commemoration of Handel, p. 63); "Vouchsafe, O Lord," in the Dettingen Te Deum, &c. &c. are all passages which might justify a particular Analysis, and which the Author hopes, on a future occasion, to lay before the Public. (See also Shield, p. 88).

461. As the Chromatic Octave upon Keyed Instruments consists of twelve different Sounds (exclusive of the Diatonic Eighth or Replicate of the first), there are but three different Chords, in respect of the Keys themselves, on the Key-board. These, in their simplest forms, are the added Ninths of D, A, and E, Dominants of their respective Minors.



Each of these Chords, by the use of the Diesis, may change into three other Harmonies; and thus an immediate step to any one of the twelve Minor Modes may be gained*.

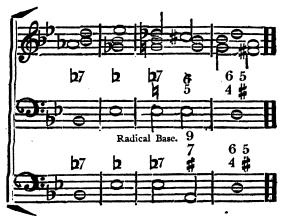
462. These Chords may also, under certain limitations, succeed each other chromatically, descending or ascending.



[•] Mr. Corfe, of Salisbury, in his *Thorough Bass simplified*, a work lately published, has given (p.43, &c.) a Table of these Chords, as used in the twelve Minor Keys, &c.

Part of the ascending Series is the same inverted, as before given, Art. 461, p. 250.

463. The last and most unusual species of Enharmonic Modulation*, is that which changes the Dominant Seventh into the German Sixth†. A remarkable instance occurs in Handel's Solomon, at the Chorus, Draw the tear from hopeless love; thus,



to express the words, full of death and wild despair.

END OF THE THIRD PART,

Rousseau, Art. Enharmonique, does not mention this Modulation; although it is extremely worthy of notice, being formed upon a Chord so apparently perfect as the Dominant Seventh.

⁺ Art. 443, p. 240.

PART IV.

RHYTHM.

CHAP. I.

OF ACCENT.

SECT. I .- OF SIMPLE MEASURES.

Art. 464. The disposition of Melody or Harmony, in respect of Time or Measure, is termed Rhythm*.

465. Those branches of Rhythm which are necessary to be considered in the present Work, are,

1. Accent.

- 4. The Phrase.
- 2. The Musical Foot.
- 5. The Section.
- 5. The Musical Cæ- 6. The Period. sure.

466. Accent has been already described (Art. 80, p. 41), as part of Notation; but it must be now examined more accurately, since

Dr. B. i. 71. Sir J. H. ii. 11. Malcolm, p. 885. Holden, p. 25.

467. The necessity of dividing the Notes of Music into equal portions of Time, called Measures (Art. 66, p. 28), may be shewn, by considering the subsequent series of Notes*.



468. The above cannot be performed, as Melody, without making certain points of division, on which a pressure must be laid. It may, for instance, be accented two ways in equal time; thus,



469. The former is, by Prinz†, reckoned common Trochaic Rhythm; the latter common Iambic Rhythm. Both are shewn by the depression and elevation of the hand in beating Time, and are also distinguished by the different places of the Bars.

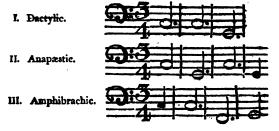
^{*} Koch, Art. Tact.

[†] Sat. Comp. P. III. p. 100, 101.

470. The same Melody divided into triple Time of three Crotchets in a Measure, admits of three accentual variations.



471. These passages are also distinguished by the different Harmonies they bear in each variation of Rhythm.



472. In the performance of these Rhythms, the Accent is always shewn by the pressure laid upon the Note which immediately follows the Bar.

473. The simple Measures of equal Time consist of two Parts, and are subdivided into four Times: the Parts are Minims in common Time, and Crotchets in two Crotchet Time; and the Times are Crotchets in common Time, and Quavers in two Crotchet Time*.



474. The simple Measures of unequal Time, also consist of two Parts, one double the length of the other; but the Times are only three: hence arise a varied expression, according to the value of the Notes in quantity.



^{*} Koch terms a Part, Tacttheil, and a Time, Tactglieder.

475. In the further division of simple Measure, the Accents are known by the Groups, which are regulated by the *Times* of the Measure, as before noticed (Art. 80, p. 41); thus,



476. In Triple Measure, the same arrangement of Groups is in general use; thus,

H. S. vol. ii. No. 92, " Daughter of Gods" —Hercules*.



477. These inferior Accents, which belong to the *Times* of the Measure, do not, by any means, destroy that great and predominant Accent that belongs to the first Note which follows the Bar, and which is accompanied by the *Thesis*, or depression of the hand in beating Time. The Arsis, or elevation of the hand, always follows on the weak part of the Measure. (See Art. 81, p. 42).

[#] Dr. A. No. 35, p. 60.

⁺ The Niederschlag of the Germans.

¹ The Aufschlag of the Germans.

SECT. II.—OF COMPOUND MEASURES.

478. The Accents of Compound Measures are exactly similar to those of Simple Measures, which are only their halves, and which differ chiefly in their Notation, and their appearance to the eye.



479. The Germans, and also the French*, consider the Measure of four Crotchets as a species different, not only from that of three, but even from that of two Crotchets (Art. 67, p. 29); a distinction which arises from the nature of Accent, and which is thought of importance by those Authors. It is considered by some† of them as a simple Measure; but it really seems merely to differ from that of two Crotchets, by the omission of the alternate Bar.

Principes de Musique du Conservatoire, p. 40.

⁺ Kollmann, Essay on Harmony, p. 73.

480. In Compound Time, the difference between six Crotchet and three Minim Measure, or between six Quaver and three Crotchet Measure (both of which contain an equal portion of Time between the Bars), is only known by the Accent. The Groups, indeed, regulate the Accent to the eye, and shew the Compound Time of six Quaver Measure by their equal division.

481. Thus, in the Example before-mentioned, (Art. 81, p. 42), the simple Measure contains the Quavers grouped by Sixes, which have one strong Accent on the first, and two inferior ones on the third and fifth Notes; thus,



482. In Compound Time, the Accents are as under:



483. The Compound Triples of nine Crotchets, or nine Quavers, take their Accents from the Simple Measures, as before, Art. 76, p. 36.

SECT. III.—OF MIXED MEASURES.

484. The Mixed Measures before described (Art. 78, p. 38), take their Accents from their Measure-notes; and the Groups decide the alteration made in the Time marked at the Clef.

485. Thus, in the Air, "Whither, my Love," (La Rachellina of Paisiello), although the Melody is written in two Crotchets, the Accompaniment is in six Quavers*; thus,



486. If, however, any variation in the subordinate parts of these Mixed Measures should be requisite, they must be changed to their relative Compounds, thus, $\frac{2}{4}$ will become $\frac{6}{3}$.

 $\frac{3}{4}$ will become $\frac{9}{8}$ and common Time will be-

come $\frac{12}{8}$.

^{*} There is some doubt whether this Melody should be played as written, or as if it were compound; that is, one dotted Crotchet, one Crotchet, and one Quaver, in the first Measure.

487. The following passages from Koch, will shew the necessity of using the Compound, instead of the Mixed Measure, in two Crotchet Time.



.488. The same variation takes place when the Compound is taken, instead of the Mixed, in three Crotchet Time.



489. In a similar manner, Handel uses the Compound twelve Quavers for the Accompaniment of "Mirth admit me of thy crew," in G* (L'Allegro), while the vocal part, and the Base, are written in simple Common Time.

^{*} H. S. i. No. 59. Dr. A. No. 150, p. 26.

SECT. IV.—OF EMPHASIS.

- 490. The particular sense in which the term Emphasis is employed in the present Work, has been explained (Art. 83, p. 43), with appropriate Examples.
- 491. The Emphasis is distinguished from the Accent (as before observed) by its occurring on the weak parts of the Measure; by the different grouping of the Quavers, Semiquavers, &c.; and by the emphatic marks of Rf, &c. (Art. 142, p. 82), placed over the Notes.
- 492. In performing on the Piano Forte, a great difference seems to exist between them; since Accent always requires pressure immediately after the Note is struck, and Emphasis requires force at the very time of striking the Note. Thus, Accent may be used in the most Piano passages; but Emphasis always supposes a certain degree of Forte.
- 493. To the same species of effect which is derived from Emphasis, may be referred the Tempo d'Imbroglio (della Confusione) of modern Music, in which the Music, although written in one kind of Measure, is really performed in another.

494. Among the simplest instances of this nature, is that change of Time used by Corelli, Handel, &c. &c. which forms one single Measure of three Minims, from two Measures of three Crotchets each, as in the following Example from the Passione of Graun.



495. A more singular example may be found in the final Chorus of the Pilgrim, by Hasse*; in which the Time, though apparently three Crotchets, produces the effect of two Crotchets in a Measure†.



^{*} See Turk (Klavierschule), p. 93.

[†] A very beautiful passage of this nature may be found in the terzette, "Conrade the Good." See Shield, p. 92, at the words, "Melting strains, ease his pains." This elegant and scientific composition is the production of Sarti, and was originally set to part of a miserere in the Russian language.

496. In the last Movement of Haydn's Instrumental Passione, Op. 45, generally known by the name of the seven last words, several passages occur, in which, as in the preceding Example, the Time changes from three to two Crotchets. In the final Section, the Time changes to four Crotchets, &c. As that Movement is termed il Terremoto, or the Earthquake, this confusion is particularly appropriate.

CHAP. II.

OF THE MUSICAL FOOT.

SECT. I.—OF SIMPLE FEET.

Art. 497. A small portion of Melody, with one principal Accent, including the value of a Measure, is termed in this Work, a Musical Foot.

The knowledge of this Rhythmic subdivision of Melody is of great importance in practical Music; as the Singer must not take breath, nor the Performer on Keyed Instruments separate the Notes, in the middle of a Foot.

498. It has been usual with some Authors* to apply the names of the ancient poetical Feet to corresponding musical passages; but the difference between ancient and modern Quantity and Accent, leaves a doubt concerning the propriety of using the terms of Grecian Rhythm.

^{*} Prinz, Sat. Comp. P. III. p. 100. Mattheson. Volkom. Capel. Meister, p. 164.

499. An English Trochee*, as Actor, Hate-ful, &c. may be represented in Musical Notation several ways, as in the following Example.



500. An English Iambus, as Rěject, observe, may be represented by the opposite Rhythm.



501. The other two dissyllabic Feet of the Ancients, viz. the Spondee, both syllables long, as pāle mōon, and the Pyrrhic, both short, as lĕvĕl†, may, in respect of the Measure (which is guided by the Accent), be always considered as Trochaic in the English language, with some small occasional change in the value of the Notes‡.

Lindley Murray's English Grammar, 4th edition (1798).
 D. 204.

⁺ Dr. B. i. p. 78.

[‡] See Examples of this variation in the Cadences of the Glee, "Sigh no more, ladies," by R. J. S. Stevens; and the Matrigal, "Since first I saw your face," by Ford.

502. The difference between the two dissyllabic Feet is well exemplified by the word DEser, which, when set to Music as a Trochee, $(d\bar{e}s\bar{e}rt^*)$, signifies a lonely place. Thus, in the Messiah, "Comfort ye my people."



503. The same word set to Music as an Iambus (desert), signifies merit. Thus, in Judas Maccabaus.



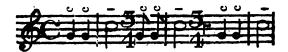
The effect of these Feet, in respect of deciding the Key by means of the Accent, has been before exemplified, Art. 304, p. 160. Another instance of Harmony and Rhythm being united to determine the Key, in contradistinction to the Signature, may be seen, Art. 278, p. 145.

The liberty of marking the accentual difference of Poetical Feet by the signs of Quantity, is taken by Koch, Art. Metrum, &c. &c.

- 504. The English Feet of three syllables may be divided into three classes, answering to the *Dactyl*, the *Anapæst*, and the *Amphibrach* of the Ancients.
- 1. The Dactyl may be represented by the words labourer, possible, and in Notes; thus,



II. The Anapæst may be represented by the words contravene, acquiesce, and in Notes; thus,



III. The Amphibrach may be represented by the words delightful, domestic, and in Notes.



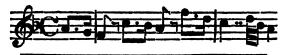
SECT. II.—OF COMPOUND FEET.

505. As a Musical Foot is equal in value to a Measure*, although it differs in Accent, on account of the place of the Bar; so in the Compound Measures the Feet are double, and may be resolved into two by dividing the Measure. (See Art. 75, p. 34).

506. The following Trochaic Example from Haydn, Op. 40, Sonata 3, might be resolved into single Feet of two Crotchets in a Measure.



507. The same may occur in the Iambie Measure, as in the following Example from Haydn's first Symphony for Salomon's Concerts.

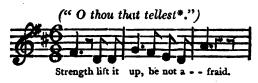


^{*} Kollmann, Essay on Harmony, p. 80, mentions the similarity of the Bar (Measure) in Music to the Foot in Poetry, but does not shew their accentual difference.

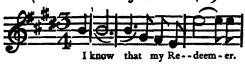
508. An Example of the compound Foot in six Quaver Time divided by the Bar, is found in Haydn, Symphony 3d (Salomon's Concerts).



509. The difference between compound and simple Feet, may be further exemplified by the following extracts from the Messiah, in addition to the remarks given in the preceding page.



(" I know that my Redeemert.")



The second Measure of both Examples is divided in the same manner; but the Accent, and consequently the Feet, are entirely different.

Dr. A. No. 9, p. 36.

⁺ Dr. A. No. 12, p. 183.

CHAP. III.

OF THE MUSICAL CÆSURE.

Art. 510. The term Cæsure is used in this Work in the signification annexed to it by Koch, as the Rhythmic Termination of any passage which consists of more than one Musical Foot. In other words, the Cæsure is the last Accent of a Phrase, Section, or Period, and is distinguished in all the simple Measures by the place of the Bar.

511. The utility of this distinction will appear, by considering the two methods in which the Music might be composed to the lines,

- " Conquest is not to bestow
- " In the spear or in the bow."

Dr. Arne's Judith.



If these Measures were not divided as they are, the Cæsure, which now is properly placed on a strong part*, would fall on the weak part†, contrary to the nature of Accent.

- 512. The Cæsure*, in ancient Music, most frequently occurs in the middle of the Compound Measure, and thus appears to a modern view irregular and incorrect.
- 513. The exceptions to the Musical Cæsure falling upon the last syllable of the line in Poetry, are few, but very important.
- 514. From the nature of Harmony, it sometimes occurs that the three last syllables may belong to a Melody derived from the same Chord; in that case, the Cæsure is thrown back, as in the following Example;
 - " So shall the lute and harp awake,
 - " And sprightly voice sweet descant run."

Handel's Judas Maccabæus.



Here the Cæsure falls on the third Crotchet to the syllables descant run, instead of being placed on the last syllable run.

^{*} The term Cæsuru was used by Prinz (Sat. Comp. P. I. p. 33) in two senses; the first of which corresponds with that here given. See Dr. Burney, Art. Cæsuru. Rees' Cyclopædia, vol. v. P. II.

515. It appears that the Cæsure, or Rhythmic Termination, is not always the last Note of the passage. The melody is often prolonged after the Cæsure, by varying the Tonic Harmony*; thus,



516. The whole Chord of the Dominant is also often retained (see Art. 376, p. 198) upon the Cæsure, as in the following Example from Mozart's Duett in C, Op. 14, p. 11.



517. The Air by Handel in the Occasional Oratorio, of which the subject is here given, will be found an excellent study for the correct position of the Cæsure.



^{*} Koch, Art. Cæsure.

⁺ H.S. i. No. 11.

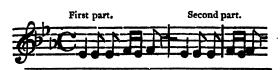
CHAP. 111. MUSICAL CESURE. 273

518. In the following instance, Handel has not been so careful, since the Cæsure comes in the wrong place, and the Bars are consequently erroneous. It should begin, like the Example, Art. 511, p. 270, with the half Méasure.

(H. S. I. No. 47-Alexander Balus).



519. In the old arrangement of compound common Time, it was usual to change the place of the Cæsure; sometimes forming the Cadence at the beginning of a Measure, and afterwards repeating the same Cæsure in the middle of a Measure. The Airs of Pergolesi, Jomelli, &c. are remarkable for this rhythmic variation. See a particular instance in the admirable Song by Hasse, Pallido il Sole*.



Delizie dell' Opere, tom. ii. p. 146. Dr. B. iv. 378, 548.
 Sir J. H. v. 325, 419.

520. In the National Dance Tune called Polonoise or Polacca, a considerable exception to the Rule of the Cæsure occurs, as it falls there on the weak part of a Measure; thus,



521. An instance also of equivocal Cæsure might occur in the common Melody of Sally in our Alley*, which is properly barred thus:



522. This might be barred differently, for the sake of throwing the Cæsure on the last syllable of the second line, contrary to the Accent of all the other Feet.



^{*} This Air was composed by Harry Carey, and begins, Of all the girls that are so smart. See Sir J. H. v. 184. Dr. B. iv. 300, 632. The style of Melody which distinguishes this Tune, has been often imitated with considerable success.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE PHRASE.

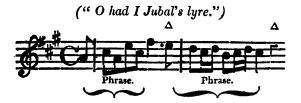
SECT. I.—OF THE REGULAR PHRASE.

Art. 523. A Phrase (Einschnitt) is a short Melody, which contains no perfect nor satisfactory Musical idea.

524. The Phrase is generally formed of two Musical Feet in simple Time, and therefore contains the value of two Measures; thus,



525. In the Compound Time of the older Writers, a Phrase sometimes consists of a single Measure; thus,



- 526. Koch has used the mark of a triangle (Δ) to express the Phrase, and places it over the final Note*. In Musical Punctuation, this sign seems analogous to that of the comma (,) in language.
- 527. Riepel, of Ratisbon, in 1754†, has analyzed the rhythmical arrangement of Musical thoughts with great success.
- 528. He divides Musical Phrases into two species—Perfect, when concluded by the Tonic Harmony; and Imperfect, when concluded by the Dominant.



529. In the works of Kirnberger, the term Cæsure seems equivalent to the term Phrase; and the rejection of the word Einschnitt is, as Koch observes, a defect in the theory of that able Contrapuntist.

^{*} Anleitung (1787), vol. ii. p. 360.

⁺ De Rhythmopœia, Tactordnung, p. 38.

T' Koch's Lexicon, Art. Absäts.

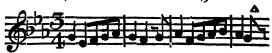
530. The Phrase is subject to all the varieties of Accent that distinguish the Feet of which it is formed; and the two Measures of the regular Phrase should always be complete.

(" Rasserena"—Sacchini*).



531. When the same Phrase is repeated per tonos, that is, a Note higher or lower, a slight variation may occur.

(Non vi turbate—Gluck †).



passage in various Keys, particularly on the Chromatic Modulation (Art. 454, p. 246) ascending, as found in Corelli, Dr. Green, &c. is termed by the Italians Rosalia †. See Koch, Art. Transposition.

^{*} Corri's Select Collection, vol. i. p. 29.

⁺ Ditto, vol. i. p. 23.

t Dr. B. iii. 613. iv. 45.

533. Koch makes three remarks upon the harmonical construction of the Phrase, which apply to what has been already observed from Riepel.

First, That the Phrase frequently terminates with the Subdominant Harmony.



Secondly, That, as the Phrase is an incomplete passage, the Cæsure may be made on a Discord, particularly the Dominant Seventh.



Thirdly, That the Cæsure may also take place on the inversion of a Chord.



534. Rousseau (Art. Phrase) has defined the term in a more extensive sense, very similar to that applied to the word Section, in the following Chapter. He distinguishes between Phrases in Melody, and Phrases in Harmony. These last seem to correspond with the Dominant, and Mediant Sequences. See Art. 427, p. 226.

535. Heck, in his Musical Library (p. 11), describes the Phrase, Section, and Period, under the terms Section, Period, and Paragraph, and considers the term Section as synonimous with Rhythmus*.

536. Holden also (p. 35), uses the term *Phrase* in a general sense, and appears to in clude all rhythmic varieties in its definition.

537. The Rev. Mr. Jones, of Nayland (p. 48), calls the Phrases Clauses; and considers two similar Phrases following and depending on each other, as antecedent and consequent; upon which succession he makes some very just and useful remarks, referring to Corelli's 8th Concerto at the close of the Adagio, Handel's Air in the Overture to Berenice, &c. &c.

^{*} The Compound Rhythm of Kollmann, Essay on Harmony, p. 80, and the term Rhythmus in Shield, p. 89, seem to correspond with Phrase or Section.

SECT. II.—OF THE IRREGULAR PHRASE.

538. Whenever, by repeating one of the Feet, or by any other variation of the Melody, three Measures are employed instead of two, the Phrase is termed extended or irregular.

(Kreüsser, Op. 11, Waltz the 2d).



539. A beautiful Example of two extended Phrases, the latter of which contains a Measure of double Time (Art. 494, p. 262), is found in Handel.

(" He was brought as a lamb*.")



540. The contracted Section resembles the extended Phrase, in the number of its Mea-

^{*} Redemption, p. 278.

sures, both consisting of three Feet; but the Phrase is always an imperfect Melody, whereas the Section always terminates with a Cadence.

541. A Phrase is often extended by continuing the Harmony of its first Measure, as in the following Example:

(Clementi, Op. 2, Sonata 4).



542. A Phrase also becomes irregular, when a Measure foreign to its subject is introduced by way of prelude; thus,

(Mozari, Op. 3, Ductto).



543. In some passages, the variation of the Cæsure Note, by an Appoggiatura, or by other means, will give to a contracted Section the effect of an extended Phrase.

544. The following Example from Haydn's Creation is of that nature, and is therefore equivocal; as its Melody indicates an extended Phrase, and its Harmony a contracted Section.



545. The next passage is, however, more complete, and really terminates the Section,



Hence appears the propriety of terming the first an extended Phrase.

546. In Choral Music of the Ancient School, the contracted Phrase seems to be, in many cases, equivalent with the compound Foot, See an instance before adduced, in "The flocks shall leave," Art. 281, p. 146.

547. Thus also, in the sublime Chorus, "For unto us a Child is born," the first Phrase is little more than a compound Foot.

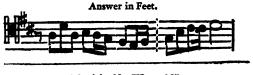


548. In Fugues by Augmentation, Feet become Phrases, Phrases become Sections, &c. In Fugues by Diminution, on the contrary, Phrases become Feet, &c. as in the following Example:

(" Let all the Angels of God.")
Subject in Phrases.



549. The Answer by Diminution changes Crotchets into Quavers, Quavers into Semiquavers, &c.



* Messiah, No. XI. p. 127.

SECT. III.—OF INTERWOVEN PHRASES.

550. In Figurate Counterpoint, anciently termed *Descunt*, where Imitations, Fugues, and Canons are employed, the Phrases, as they occur, are interwoven in the different parts.

Thus, the extended Phrase to the words, "shall be revealed," is interwoven in the various parts.

(" And the glory of the Lord"—Messiah).

551. The union of Phrases towards the end of a Fugue, &c. is sometimes even closer than a Foot, being at the distance of a Crotchet only. Many examples of this style may be found in the Madrigals of Wilbye, Weelks, &c. In Italy, this is called Lo Stretto della Faga*, the knot of the Fugue.

^{*} P. Martini, Saggio, tom. ii. p. axxix.

552. The Accent of the words, however, will not always permit *them* to agree with so close a union of the Music, as the alteration in the following Example will shew:

(" Ye sons of Israel*.")



553. A similar passage is introduced with great effect, at the end of "The flocks shall leave," where the Violins re-echo the same Notes (in the Octave above) as are sung in the preceding Time, to the words, "Die, presumptuous Acis."

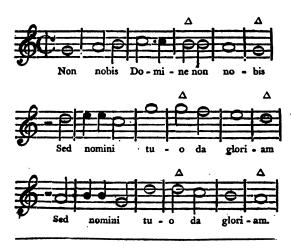


Joshua, p. 4. Redemption, p. 166.

554. In those pieces of Music termed Canons, in which the same Melody is continually heard in the different parts, the Phrases are, of course, united throughout the whole composition.

Of this kind of Music, the finest specimen now extant is the celebrated Non Nobis Domine*, by Bird; which will ever remain a lasting ornament to the taste and science of the country in which it was produced.

The Phrases of this Canon are as follow:



^{*} See before, Art. 421, p. 222, and La Borde, tom ii. p. 100. Dr. B. ii. p. 305, in a Note.

CHAP. V.

OF THE SECTION.

SECT. I.—OF THE REGULAR SECTION.

Art. 555. A Section (Absätz) is a portion of Melody, formed by two regular Phrases, the last of which is terminated by a Cadence.

556. The Section takes the name of Tonic, or of Dominant, according to its final Harmony; as in the two following Examples from Haydn's Creation.

(" The heavens are telling.")



. 557. In Music of the older School, the Section often consists of two Measures only, as in

the Example, "O had I Jubal's lyre," Art. 525, p. 275.

558. Koch has also adopted the mark of a Square (a) to express the Section, and places it, like the Triangle of the Phrase, over the final Note. This Sign seems analogous to that of the Semicolon (;) in language.

559. In the Arioso, or Legato style of Music, it is usual to find Sections which are not subdivided into Phrases, as in the following Example.

(J. B. Cramer*, Ex. 41.) . .



560. Koch makes also three remarks upon the Section † (Art. Absätz), as relating to its Punctuation, to its Rhythm, and to its Harmony.

^{*} Studio per il Piano-forte, Op. 39, p. 72.

[†] Prinz, in 1696, used the Latin term Sectio, as signifying a part of Melody terminated with a formal Cadence. "Sectio ist ein Theil der Melodey, so sich endet mit einer Clausula formali." Sat. Comp. P. I. chap. viii. p. 26.

First, Its conclusion, or the form and harmonical disposition of the Cadence, termed by Koch its interpunctal nature. Upon this depend the classification into Tonic, Dominant, or even Subdominant Sections, the variation of the Cæsure Note, &c.

Secondly, Its extent in the number of Measures and in the similarity of Feet (see Koch, Art. Metrum), termed its rhythmical nature. By this the regular Section, or Rhythm* (Vierer) of four Measures, is distinguished from the irregular Section, whether extended or contracted, &c. &c.

Thirdly, The extent and variation of its component Harmonies; or the degree of its perfection as to being dependent or independent of the adjoining Sections, termed its logical nature †.

^{*} Sec before, Art. 535, p. 279.

⁺ Turk (Klavierschule, p. 336), has entered fully into the doctrine of Rhythm, and has invented a mark (similar to that of our passing Shake, see Art. 110, p. 66), which he places over the final Note of a Foot, Phrase, Section, or Period, to detach them from each other.

SECT. IL-OF THE IRREGULAR SECTION.

- 561. Irregular Sections are of two classes, contracted of less than four Feet, and extended of more than four Feet.
- I. The contracted Section differs from the extended Phrase by its terminating with a Cadence, as before observed (Art. 537, p. 279), and generally consists of three Feet.
- II. The extended Section may consist of five, six, seven, or more Feet; and the Sections are distinguished from each other by the similarity of Time or Modulation in their respective Feet.
- III. The extended Section of five Feet* is formed by various methods. The following Example from Koch augments the two first Notes of the regular Section.



562. The Section of six Feet consists either

^{*} See two Examples of this kind in Shield, p. 89.

of two extended Phrases of three Feet each; thus,

(Mozart, Duett, Op. 3).



Or of three regular Phrases of two Feet each; thus,

(Avison, Book iv. Concerto iv. p. 31).



563. The limits of the present Work will not admit any further Examples of more extensive Sections.

SECT. III.—OF THE INTERWOVEN SECTION.

564. When the regular Section is so united to the following one, that upon the Cæsure Note of the first the second commences, the Section is not only contracted, but interwoven.

565. Thus the following Section, which is regular in a former part of the page, is interwoven in this Example.



566. When the subject of a Fugue constitutes a Section, the Answers are interwoven at the Cæsure of the Melody. Thus, in the Overture to Esther,



The second Section commences in the middle of the fifth Measure on the Cæsure Note.

567. In the ancient style of Music, great effects are produced by interweaving Phrases, Sections, &c.; and also by intermixing subjects of different Rhythms.

Thus, in the final Chorus of Steffani's Motett, the original plain Song*, "Qui Diligit," is introduced with unexpected effect in the Base, while the other parts are singing the Descant, "Frangere Telum †."



In the Chorusses of Handel, these effects continually occur. A remarkable instance may be seen in that of "Wretched lovers" (in Acis and Galatea), at the words, "Behold the monster, Polypheme."

if printed with annotations.

^{*} The Canto Fermo of the Italians, or Choral of the Germans.

† The "Qui Diligit" of the Abbate Steffani is at present unpublished; but it would be a useful study for Fugue, &c.

568. In compound Time, the interwover Sections commence at the half Measure, and consist of only a Measure and a half. The following Example is taken from the Duett in the same Motett of Steffani, Qui Diligit.



569. From this union of the parts arises the custom before-mentioned (Art. 518, p. 273), of placing the Cæsure in the middle, instead of the beginning of the Measure.

570. It is also usual to protract the Harmonies of an interwoven Section, so that it shall appear regular in the number of Measures. Such is the following Section, in the last Chorus of Graun's Passione*,

	4 2	6 5	•	 6 5	
Jih Co		P		de	

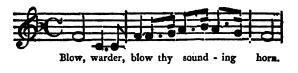
[•] Der Tod Jesu, or the Death of Our Saviour. See Hiller's edition (1785), p. 68.

571. In this instance, the prolongation of the Tonic Harmony in the *first* Measure, makes the Section appear regular, although it is really interwoven.

572. In Vocal Music, the Harmony of a Section is also protracted for the sake of expressing the words, as in the Glee of the "Red Cross Knight," by the Author of this Work; the first Section of which, if regular, would have been expressed thus,



But to give greater effect to the words, "Blow, Warder, blow," the two first Notes are augmented to Minims; and the Section, as written in common Time, appears contracted, although it is really extended*; thus,



^{*} This Section is consequently similar to that exemplified before, Art. 561, p. 290, being really five Measures of two. Crotchet Time.

SECT. IV.-OF THE CODETTA.

573. A short Phrase, or any other passage, which does not constitute part of a regular Section, but serves to connect one Section or Period to another, is termed in this Work a Codetta.

The term is used by Sabbatini, the successor to Vallotti at Padua, in his Trattato sopra le Fughe*, in a more limited sense.

574. In the Duett of Mozart, (referred to Art. 562, p. 291), the following Phrase unites the minor Period to the original Theme.



575. The extempore divisions made at a close by Singers or Solo Performers, and termed Cadenze, or Cadences ad libitum, are all a species of Codetta.

576. In the repetition of a Strain, the passages marked first Time and second Time, ge-

^{*} Vinezia (1802), tom. ii. p. 199.

nerally contain each a short Codetta; one to lead back to the commencement, the other to lead forward to its continuation.

(Woelfil, Op. 25, p. 16).

First Time.

Second Time.



577. In this Example, the short Attacco* of each Time is not, as in general, a separate Codetta, but very ingeniously makes part of the original subject.

578. In the Da Capo Airs of Handel, &c. (Art. 126, p. 74), a Codetta is generally inserted, to lead back to the Theme. Thus, in "O the pleasures of the plains."



579. The most successful Composer in this style is Graun, who, in his celebrated Te

[•] Padre Martini, Saggio, tom. ii. p. viii. Dr. Burney (Art. Attacco, Dr. Rees' Cyclopædia), defines it, "a kind of short Subject or Point, not restricted to all the laws of regular Fugue," &c.

Deum^e, has used the Codetta at the end of several Movements, to unite them to the next.

Thus, after the final Cadence of the Air, "Tu, ad liberandum," the following Codetta is inserted in different Modulation.



With what great effect this passage leads into the following Theme, the adjoined Example will demonstrate.



^{*} Several of the best Movements from this excellent Composition, are now printed in the Selection of Sacred Music published at Birchall's, by the Rev. Mr. La Trobe.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE PERIOD.

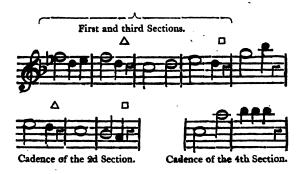
SECT. I.—OF THE TONIC PERIOD.

Art. 580. A Period consists of one or more Sections, occasionally interspersed with independent Feet, Phrases, or Codettas.

Thus, the Air of God save the King (Art. 146, p. 85), consists of two Periods; the first Period contains one extended Section (Art. 562, p. 291), and the last, two regular Sections.

- 581. When one or more Periods are terminated by a double Bar (Art. 130, p. 77), they are termed Strains.
- 582. The Period always ends with a radical Cadence, like the Section (some few instances excepted, Art. 424, p. 224), and answers to the full stop (.) in language.
- 583. Those Periods which terminate with the perfect Cadence, are, from their last Harmony, termed Tonic Periods.

584. The following Example of a Tonic Period, is taken from the third Sonata of *Pleyel*, dedicated to the Queen.



This whole Period consists of four regular Sections, and is distributed into eight regular Phrases.

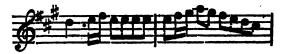
The third Section is a repetition of the first by the Violin, while the Piano Forte takes the Accompaniment. The fourth Section is similar to the second in respect of its leading Phrase, but differs in the final Phrase, by terminating with the perfect Cadence.

585. In the Example above given, all the transient Notes are omitted, and none but the chief Sounds of the Harmony retained. (See Art. 187, p. 107).

586. As the Sonatas of Kozeluch are particularly distinguished by the regularity and clearness of their Rhythm, another instance of a Tonic Period may be taken from his Opera 21, Sonata 2, in A Major.



587. The second Section consists of one regular Phrase repeated; thus,



588. The third Section (with the omission of the passing Notes) concludes the Period; thus,



589. Many more Examples might be given from the works of the Bachs, Vanhall, Haydn, Mozart, &c. &c. since the variety of Periods, in respect of their component parts, is as great in Music as in any other language.

SECT. U.-OF THE DOMINANT PERIOD.

590. When a Period concludes with an imperfect Cadence (Art. 414, p. 218), it is termed a Dominant Period.

An example of this Period may be found in Kozeluch, Op. 23, Sonata 1.



591. The second Section, being interwoven with the third, is contracted, and consists of three Measures only. (See Art. 565, p. 292).



592. The third Section is formed of two extended Phrases with one Measure repeated, and concludes on the Dominant; thus,



- 593. It is to be understood, that the terms Tonic and Dominant, relate only to the nature of the Cadence, not to the Modulation of the Period.
- 594. It not unfrequently happens that a Period, after modulating from the original Tonic to its own Dominant, may terminate with an imperfect, or even with a mixt Cadence, in the new Key.
- 595. The final Chord, in this case, will be the Supertonic of the Original Scale, made a new Dominant*.
- 596. As the knowledge of Feet and Phrases is very important, to prevent the bad Delivery (Vortrag) of vocal or instrumental pieces; so also the distinction of Sections and Periods, gives the Performer an opportunity of lengthening or contracting his Performance at pleasure.
- 597. The following hints may be useful, till a more extensive Analysis of Rhythm can be given.

^{*} An instance of this termination of a Period, may be seen in the popular Sonatas of Clementi, Op. 22. The first Period of the first Sonata concludes on the original Supertonic E, with the Major Third as a Dominant to the new Key A Major, as a Modulation from D Major.

- I. Every Section and Period may be repeated, provided the Codetta (if any) leads back to the original Note.
- II. Every repetition of a Section or Period may be omitted, due care being taken to play the last Codetta (if any) instead of the first.
- III. Those Sections and Periods which contain Solos for the Violin, Flute, &c. when not practised with the Accompaniment, should be emitted*; and the two sets of Sonatas by Kozeluch, Op. 21 and 23, will admit of these omissions with great propriety.
- IV. In all omissions of Periods, great attention must be paid, to make the harmonical conclusion of one Period agree with the harmonical commencement of the next, and to join the passages by their attendant Keys.
- V. The difficult Modulations at the opening of the second strain of a Sonata, may be sometimes omitted, for the sake of gaining time; but every person who wishes to excel in Science or Execution, will practise those passages much oftener than any other in the Movement.

Particularly where the Violin Melody is not inserted in small notes, or in a separate line. When they are inserted, the passages may be sometimes introduced on Keyed Instruments with good effect.

SECT. III.—OF THE INTERWOVEN PERIOD.

598. As the Periods of modern Music are distinguished by the accuracy of their phraseology (being for the most part regular); so those of the old School are generally interwoven, and the Cæsure Note of one Period becomes the first Note of the next.

The Fugues of Sebastian Bach are highly celebrated throughout Europe, for union of Periods and closeness of Harmony.

599. The first Fugue of his twenty-four pieces*, entitled Das wohltemperirte Klavier, is formed on the following subject.



The first Period terminates in G Major, on the middle of the tenth Measure.

The second in A Minor, on the beginning of the fourteenth Measure.

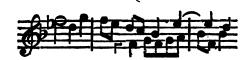
The third in D Minor, on the middle of the nineteenth Measure.

^{*} First set of Fugues in all the twenty-four Keys, Major and Minor.

The fourth in G Major, on the middle of the twenty-first.

The fifth in C Major, on the beginning of the twenty-fourth; whence the sixth and last four Measures conclude on the Tonic Pedal*.

600. The third Fugue by Handel (Op. 3), of two subjects in B flat Major, contains a greater number of interwoven Periods.



The first Dominant Period of two contracted Sections ends on the Cæsure Note of the seventh Measure.

The second on the fifteenth Measure.

The third on the middle of the thirty-first.

The fourth on the middle of the thirty-fifth.

The fifth (a Tonic Period in D Minor) on the Consure Note of the forty-fourth, &c.

601. Another instance of a Fugue on two subjects, much longer than this of Handel, is

[•] The Tonic Pedal of this Fugue is really a Coda. See a copy printed by Mr. Diettenhofer, in the third Set of his Fugues, published by Messrs. Goulding and Co.

that by Domenico Scarlatti, vol. ii. p. 62, on the following Theme.

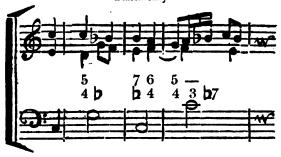


- 602. All the Fugues in Handel's Chorusses, in his Overtures, in his Lessons, in his Violin Sonatas or Trios, in the Symphonies to the Chandos Anthems, &c. &c. are masterpieces of learning and effect.
- 603. Among all the various methods of interweaving the Periods of the Fugue, none has more effect than that of making the Tonic Harmony of the final Cadence a new Dominant.

This may be performed diatonically*, by flattening the Third of the leading Chord (Art. 424, p. 225), or chromatically, by the Modulation given in Art. 453, p. 246.

^{*} This is the Clausula Ficta of the older School, in opposition to the Clausula Formalis, or perfect Cadence. See Fux (Gradus ad Parnassum), p. 155.

Diatonically.



Instead of



The same effected chromatically.



SECT, IV.—OF THE CODA.

- 604. The concluding passage of many Movements, when it occurs after a protracted perfect Cadence (Art. 423, p. 224), is termed the Coda*, or final Period.
- 605. The length of the Coda may be various; in some pieces it contains several Sections, in others merely a single Phrase.
- 606. The following short Coda from Haydn, Op. 40, will serve as an Example:



In this passage, the two first Measures of the Coda might be omitted, without injuring the Harmony.

607. When the Coda consists wholly of the Tonic Harmony, the open or right Pedal of the Grand Piano Forte, which raises the Dampers, may be employed with good effect.

608. Instances occur in Kozeluch, Op. 40,

In Modern Music, the Coda is generally preceded by a long shake on one of the notes of the Dominant Harmony.

Sonata I, in F Major, p. 11, and in Op. 41, Sonata I, in B flat Major, p. 9, where he uses the term Aperto (open) for this purpose.

- 609. In foreign printing, the abbreviations C. S. con Sordini, with Dampers (or Mutes), S. S. senza Sordini, without Dampers, are used for the same purpose. (See Woelfl's Sonatas, Op. 27, Paris edition).
- 610. In Ancient Music, the Coda generally occurs on the Tonic Pedal; and in Minor Movements it is used as leading to the Plagal Cadence (Art. 417, p. 220).
- 611. There is a style of Coda peculiar to Italian Bravura Airs*. (See the conclusion of the Chorus in Haydn's Creation, The heavens are telling).
- 612. In Rondeaus, &c. the Coda is placed as a separate Strain, with the term itself annexed. (See Shield, p. 105).
- 613. But, to shew what great effects are derived from this addition, after the last perfect Cadence of the Movement has been heard, the Hallelujah Chorus of Handel's Messiah may

The Harmonies of this Coda are five, the Tonic, Submediant, Subdominant, Dominant, and Tonic. The Subdominant generally bears its added Sixth. Art. 389, p. 202.

be adduced. The last Section before the Coda, closes the Period with the perfect or authentic Cadence (Art. 418, p. 221); thus,



This is followed by a Coda on the Chords of Subdominant and Tonic, concluding with the Plagal Cadence.



Such were the simple, but sublime Notes, which occurred to the genius of this truly great Composer; and the Chorus in which they occur, will ever remain a striking memorial of the immortal talents of *Handel*.

END OF THE FOURTH AND LAST PART.

N.B. The words or lines printed in *Italics*, are references either to Musical Examples, or to their Titles.

A

A	
PAGE :	PAGE
ABBREVIATIONS 83	Alma del gran 249
Abkürzung 84	Altered Triads - 151
Absātz 288	Alphabet 5
Above Measure - 77	Al segno 74
Accent - 41, 252, 264	Alto Clef - 10
Accentual difference 266	Ambrosian Chant - 8
Acciaccatura - 69, 247	Amen Chorus - 173
Accidental Chords 190, 202	Amphibrach - 254, 267
Harmonies 207	Anapæst - 254, 267
Minor Scale 180	Ancient flat Signatures 145
Accidentals 55	Ancient sharp Signatures 144
Acquiesce 267	Ancient Signature 142
Actor 265	And he shall reign 311
Added Lines 3	And the glory 284
Ninth - 209	And with his stripes 118
Note 167	Anomalous Triads - 151
Seventh - 202	Anschlag 70
Sixth · 202, 212	Antecedent 258
Addition 167, 187, 202	Anticipation 199
Adlung - 56, 59	Aperto 310
After-notes 63, 189, 199, 247	Appels 211
Ais 50	Appoggiatura 62, 189, 201,
Alla Breve 30	247

313

68

59

72

275

57

54

279

27

76

15

2

295

52

212

3

27

72

51

11

Еe

276, 294

PAGE	PAGE
Cancellatum - 50	Chromatic Modulation 246
Canons 286	Octave 250
Canto Clef - 12	Scale 24, 102, 109
	111
Catena di trilli - 65	Semitone 92, 112
Cease, ok Judak - 39	Sequence of
Cease thy anguish 146	Sevenths 246
Ces, C flat - 54	Chromatic Transition 247
Chain of Sevenths 226	Cis 59
Chain of Shakes - 65	Ciscis 59
Change of Cæsure 273	Classes of Marpurg 237
Changing Notes 63, 107, 188	Clauses 279
Characteristics - 140	Clausula 217
Characters - 73	ficta - 907
Choral 298	
Counterpoint 12	Clefs of C, F, and G 4
Music - 282	Clef Line 6
Chord 148	Close 73
of extreme sharp	Close Harmony - 151
Sixth - 156	Coda 78,309,311
of Fifth and Sixth 171	Codetta - 256
of Fourth & Sixth 156	Codettas of Graun 298
of Second & Fourth 178	Collateral - 108
of Second & Third 200	Comfort ye - 81, 266
of Sixth - 155	Commas in Music 49, 120
of Sixth and Ninth 200	Common Cadence 224
of Sixth & Seventh 237	Chord - 148
- of Third & Fourth 172	Time - 29
Chroma - 109	Compound Common Time 94
Chromatic Appoggiatura 247	Feet 268
Dissonant Triad 150	Measures 257
Enharmonic 110	Sequences 232

PAGE	PAGE
Compound Time - 33	Delizie dell' Opere 273
Triple time 36	Demisemiquaver , 26
Concords - 203	Derivatives - 156
Connecting Chords 208	Des - 54
Conrade the Good 262	Descending Base Series 17
Consecutive Fifths 158	Descend, kind pity 81
Octaves 158	Descending Scale - 244
Consider, fond - 37	Treble Series 18
Consonant - 104	Desdes 59
Cen sordini - 510	Diacommatique - 188
Contracted Section 280, 290	Diatonie 88
Contralto - 10	dissonant Triad 149
Contrary Motion - 157	Enharmonie 110
Contra-tones - 17	Genus - 109
Contravene - 267	Intervals - 99
Corelli, Concerto lat 73	Interweaving 907
8th, 35, 190	Scale 88, 101, 109
279	Sequence 198, 201
Cirn Riggs - 43	——— Succession 185
Coronata - 73	Diazeuctic Tone 190
Counterpoint 148, 903	Die, presumptueus Acis 285
Counter-tener Clef 10	Diesis - 51, 190
Crescendo - 82	Di grado - 86
Custchet - 94	Diminished Seventh 219
D	Tried - 149
Da Capo 74	Diminuendo - 82
Dactyl - 254, 267	Diminution - 265
Da, me, ni - 19	Direct - 75, 93
Dash 81	— Chord - 158
Deceptive Cadences 224	Gradation - 220
Defective Fifth - 239	- Motion - 153
Degrees 2, 3, 86, 106	Director 75
	B e 2

	PAGE
PAGE	
Di salto - 86	Double Fundamentals
Dis - 50	Sharp - 58
Discords of Addition 202	Suspension 195, 232
Discord of Fourth 193	Transition 192
Ninth - 202	Doubling of the Sixth or
	Third - 154
Decord of preferences	Draw the tear - 251
Syncopation	Dreyklang - 163
Discords	Driving Notes - 45
Dispersed Harmony	Durchgehende - 63
Disconant	Durum - 53
Dodecachordon	,
Dominant 194, 165, 168	E
Cæsure - 272	Ecclesiastical Mode 22
Division 108	E flat 53
Motion 162	Eight Tones - 21, 103
Pedal Note 237	Einschnitt - 275, 276
Period 302	Eis 50
Progression 163	
Section 287	Elevation - 89, 210
Sequence 226, 279	Tate verter
Seventh 165, 251	Emparate
Doppelschlag - 67	Titlities
Do, re, mi - 19	Dicere
Dot of Expression - 81	Modulation 248
Repetition - 70	Scale 102, 109,
Time - 9:	
Double Appoggiatura 70	Equal Time - 29
Bar - 7	7 Equivocal Cæsure 274
	Chord 169, 212,
Compound	248
Dot -	Harmonies 160
Emploi	9 Eschaton - 121
Flat - 5	·• -

PAGE	PAGE
Es 54	Fell rage 33
Eses 59	Fermate 79
E sharp - 51	Fes, F flat - 54
Essay on Tune - 138	Figurate Counterpoint 284
Essential - 55	Figures of Time - 31
Chords - 202	Final Notes - 288
Leading Note 128	First Flat 53
Minor Scale 180	Sharp - 50
Sevenths - 197	Time - 297
Every joy - 34	Fis 50
Exception to Cæsure 274	Fis fis 59
Expression - 79	Five-feet Sections 290
Extended Phrase 280	Five Sounds - 170
Section 290	Flat 52
Extension - 208	Fifth - 96, 99
Extreme flat Eighth 118	Second - 91
flat Fourth 115	Third - 94
flat Seventh 117, 169	Flute Sections - 304
- flat Third 115	Foot 264
Interval - 112	Force 261
Licence - 237	For unto us - 283
sharp Fifth 116	Fourth 21, 22
: harp Second 114	Fourth and Ninth 195
sharp Sixth 117, 238	Four positions of the Se-
	venth - 170
7	Frangere telum - 293
Fa-dièse - 51	French Sixth - 240
False and mixt Cadences 162	Frets 89
False Cadence - 219	F sharp - 50
Relations - 158	Fundamental Base 153
Far brighter - 39	Intervals 101
FClef - 8	· ·

R e 9

G	. н
PAGR	PAGE
Gammut 17, 19	Hailstone Chorus - 171
G Clef 7	Half Beat - 69, 248
Genera - 102, 109, 121	Demisemiquaver 26
German Hymn - 31	Note 21
Scale - 57	Time - 31
Sixth - 240	Hallelujah Chorus 191, 311
Ges 54	Handel's 2d Organ Concerto 64
Gipsey Glee - 40	Fugue - 306
Gis 50	Hark, he strikes - 12
Glareanus - 16, 24	Harmonic Triad - 148
God save the King 85, 299	Harmonie universelle 165
Gothic B - 56	- Harmony - 148
Governing Note - 139	Haupt-ton - 64
Graces - 61	Haydn's Creation - 282
Gradation 185, 191, 220	Overture in D 210
Gradual Ascent - 227	Op. 13, Op. 17 40
Descent - 229	—— Op. 40 - 177
Motion - 163	3d Symphony 44
Progression 163	Heads of Notes - 2
Grammatical Accent 44, 76	Hear Jacob's God - 196
Great Cadence - 224	Hear my crying - 238
Octave - 16	Heteroclite - 193
Greater Scale - 102	He was brought - 280
Grecian Rhythm - 264	He was bruised - 192
Gregorian Chant - 8	Hexachord - 18, 97
Groppo - 27	Hide me from - 10
Grouped Stems - 84	High Treble - 13
Grouping - 38	His 50
Groups of Quavers, &c. 27	Hold 78
of six - 258	Hooks of Quavers, &c. 24
of three - 258	How blest the maid - 11
Groups and Times 256	How excellent - 149

PAGE	PAGE
How vain is man - 45	Inversion of Dominant 215
Hülfs-ton - 64	of Dominant
Hush, ye pretty - 37	Seventh - 171
Hyperdiatonic - 245	of Triad 153
Hyperoche - 121	Inverted Intervals 101
Hypodiatonic - 191	Sequence 228
	Turn 67
1	Irregular Seconds - 106
	Cadence - 218
Iambic Example - 268	Cæsure - 271
	Modulation 186
Iambus 265	Motions 158, 163
I know that my - 269	
I'll to the well-trod - 38	Sequence 234
Imbroglio - 261	Transition 188
Immortal Lord - 214	Is 50
Imperfect Cadence 218	Italian Coda - 310
Close - 76	
Concords 105	
	J
Important Intervals 102	Jesus Christ is risen 87
Index 75	Joys in gentle - 144
Intense Diatonic - 122	72
Interpunctal - 289	К
Interrupted Cadence 220	Key-board - 15
Interspersed Semitones 109	Key-note - 22
Intervals - 85, 121	Keys 123
Interwoven Period 305	Knot of the Fugue 284
Phrases 284	Koch's marks 276, 288
Sections 292	remarks - 278
In the battle - 139	Kozeluch, Op. 21 - 301
Inversion - 100	——— Op. 23 - 302
of added Sixth 203	Op. 40, 41 309

L	PAGE
PAGE	Major Sixth - 97
La Rachellina - 259	Third - 94
Large B - 59	Triad - 149
Last Accent - 270	Make straight - 266
Flat • 140	Mark of Repetition 75
Sharp - 140	
Latticed B - 50	Transposition 55
Leading Note 125, 140, 160	Measures 28
Ledger Line - 3	Medial Cadence 222
Legato - 288	Mediant 136
Leger Lines - 3	Motion - 162
Lesser Scale - 102	Progression 163
Let all the Angels - 283	Sequence 227, 258
Let ambition - 86	Melody 85
Let festive joy - 74	Melting Strains - 262
Letter H 57	Mezzo Soprano - 13
Letter h 56	Mi Bemol - 54
Let the bright - 83	Mi, fa 24
Licences 236	Minim - 24
Ligature 27	Minor Mode - 124
Limma 113	Scale - 128
Lines beyond the Staff 3	Second - 91
Long Keys 15	Seventh - 98
Lord, remember David 145	- Seventh with flat
M	Fifth - 169
Major and Minor - 90	- Seventh with Mi-
Mode / - 123	nor Third 168
- Third at a Close 221	Sixth - 97
Second - 92	Third - 93
- Seventh - 98	Triad - 149
Seventh with Ma-	Mirth admit me - 260
jor Third 169	Mixt Cadence - 220

PAGE	0
Mixt Measure 38, 259	PAGE
Modes, Minor and Ma-	Oblique 103
jor - 123	Line - 72
Modulation - 154, 159	O clap your hands - 30
from Major	Octave 14, 99
Scale 179	Ofairest of ten - 10
from Minor	Of all the girls - 274
Scale 184	O had I Jubal's - 275
Mordente - 66, 70	Old Graces - 61
Morley's Fifth and Sixth 203	O mirror of our - 116
Mozart's Duet in C 272	Omission of Periods 304
Duet in D 291	
—— Op. 11 - 238	of the Fourth 172
Musical Cæsure - 270	of the Octave 175
Close - 217	Open Pedal - 310
Foot - 264, 268	Organ Point - 196, 236
Punctuation 276	Ornamental - 63
4 metadada 210	O the pleasures - 196, 297
	O thou that tellest - 269
N	Our fainting courage 50
Natural 56	Our fears are now - 129
Naturale 53	Our fruits, while yet - 79
Natural Minor Scale 130	Our limpid streams - 80
Scale 24, 101	Overture to Esther - 292
Nell'orror 172	to Messiah - 188
Nine Crotchet Time 36	_
Quaver Time - 37	P
Semiquaver Time 37	Pallido il Sole - 273
No, let the guilty - 33	Paragraph • 279
Non nobis Domine 223, 286	Partial Modulation 241
Non vi turbate - 277	Sequence - 233
Notes 73	Partition - • 4
Now vanish - 282	Partitura - 4

PAGE	PAGE
Parts of Measures 255	Pleyel, Op. 12 - 84
Passing Notes 69, 106, 187	1st Sonata - 189
Shake - 66, 289	\$d Sonata - \$00
Passione of Graun. 262, 294	Point 81
Haydn - 268	Points 148
Paisiello - 238	of Division 253
Pause 79	Point of Em. Bach 297
Pedal Harmonies - 236	Polacca - 274
Pedals 69	Polonoise - 274
Perfect and imperfect	Polyodic 85
Cadence - 162	Positions of a Chord 152
Perfect and Sharp - 95	Postpositions - 200
Cadence - 218	Præll-triller - 66
Concords - 105	Praise the Lord - 41
Fifth - 96	Prelude - 281
Fourth - 94	Preparation - 167
	of added Sixth 204
Period 78, 299	Primary Intervals 95
Pha 21	Scales - 150
Phrase - 78, 129, 275	Principal - 103
Phrases in Harmony 278	governing Note 199
Melody 278	Progression - 159
of Rousseau 279	of Rameau 226.
Piano Passages - 261	Prophetic raptures 115
Pilgrim, by Hasse 202	visione 272
Pious orgies - 57, 80	Proportion of the Breve 27
Pitch 87	of white
Plagal 103	Notes, &c 27
Cadence 217, 220	Protracted Cadences 294
Coda - 311	Punetnation - 78, 276
Scales - 165	Pyrrhic - 266
Plain Chant - 22	Pythagoreans - 113

Q	PAGE
PAGE	Replicate - 250
Quadrum - 56	Resolution - 174
Qualities of Notes - 136	of added Sixth 204
Quantity 264	of Dominant
Quarter Tone 58, 109, 119	Inversions - 178
Quaver - 24	Rest, general - 77
Qui diligit - 204, 293	Restoration - 60
294	Rests 46
Quintoles - 40	Retardations - 193
Quintuple - 40	Return, O God - 249
•	Rhetorical Accent - 44
, R	Termination 77
Radical Base - 151	Rhythm - 252
—— Cadence 217, 299	Rhythmical - 289
Harmony 201	
parts of the Scale 137	
Rameau's added Sixth 203	termination 270
System - 151	Rinforzando 44, 82, 261
Rasserena - 277	Rondo - 75
Red-cross Knight 295	Root - 151
Regular Clefs - 12	with flat Fifth 239
Motion - 163	Round B - 56
Phrase - 275	Rule of the Octave 248
Section - 287	
Relative Attendant 162	S
Major - 134	Sally in our alley 274
Major Key Note 197	Scale of C - 22
- Minor Key Note 137	F - 58
Minor Scale 131	F sharp - 127
Rendi'l sereno - 145	G - 50
Repeat - 75	G flat - 127
Repetition of Sections 304	Scales - 123

PAGE	PA GE
Scales with Flats 126	Sforzato - 44
with Sharps 124	Shake - 64
Schnelle Fusse - 248	Shaked Graces - 61
Score 4	Shaked on Dominant 309
Second 88	Sharp 49
Secondary Intervals 95	Fourth - 95, 99
Scales - 150	Third - 94
Second Flat - 53	Si-Bemol - 54
Sharp - 51	Si Do - 24
Time - 297	Sigh no more - 265
Section 78, 129, 279, 287	Signature - 55, 127
See the conquering - 10, 30	Signs of Quantity 266
See the tall palm - 141	Similar Notes - 9
Segno 75	Simple Feet - 264
Segue 83	Measures 252
Semibreve 27	Sequences - 230
Semicircle 30	Since first I saw - 265
Semicolon - ´- 288	Single Bar - 76
Semicrome 83	Cross - 58
Semiquaver - 26	Sin not, O king - 76
Semitone - 20	Six connected Scales . 134
Senza Sordini - 310	- Crotchet Time - 34
Septenaries - 14	- Feet Sections 290
Septimoles - 40	- Quaver Feet 269
Sequences - 226	- Quaver Time 34, 258
Sequence of Sevenths 201,226	Sixth Flat - 126
Sixths 171	Sharp - 125
Series of C - 14	Skips - 104
Sesquialter Chromatic 122	- of Melody 86
Seven Clefs 90	Slide 71
letters - 5	Slur - 27, 80
Seventh and Ninth 195	Small Octave - 15

P	AGE	PAGE
Smooth Graces -	61	Supertonic Sevenths 206
Soft B -	52	Supposed Basses 153
Chromatic 111,	122	Supposition - 196
- Diatonic -	122	Suspended Notes - 167
Softly rise -	228	Suspension 167, 187, 200
Softly sweet -	139	Sutonique - 138
Solfeggio · •	24	Sweet bird - 113
Soprano Clef -	12	Syllable si - 18
So shall the lute -	271	Syncopation 45, 187, 201
Sound an alarm -	34	Syntone Diatonic 122
Space -	2	T .
Spondee -	265	Tablature - 15
Spring	71	Temperament - 120
Square B -	56	Tempo Buono - 41
Senza Sordini -	310	d'imbroglio 261
Staff	1	Tenor 6
Stem	2	Clef - 11
Streams of pleasure	103	Violin - 10
6trong parts of the Bar	41	Tenth - 89
Stroke through a figure	155,	Tetrachord - 21
	171	The enemy said - 39
Subdominant 136,	140	The flocks shall leave 146, 282,
division	1.08	285
Subject in Phrases	283	The heavens are telling 316
Submediant -	137	The people that - 139
Subordinate Scales	135	The people shall - 210
Subsemitone	137	The raptur'd soul - 40
Substitution -	215	The smiling dawn 42
Successive Fifths	107	The youth inspir'd 143
Superdominant -	138	Thesis - 256
Supertonic -	138	They loathed - 118
Root	206	Thirteenth 210, 237
		P f

PAGE	PAGE
Thou didst blow - 106	Triplets 38
Three Crotchet Time, 33, 258	Trioles - 40
Three Inversions - 171	Trite - 52
Minim Time . 36	Tritone - 52, 95
- Motions of Radi-	Trochaic Example 268
cal Base - 168	Rhythm 253
Positions - 15S	Trochee - 265
Quaver Time 33	Tu ad liberandum 298
Thus saith the Lord 189	Tune 20, 85
Time 25	Tuning 120
Times - 29, 76	Turk's Mark - 289
of Measures 257	Turn - '67
Tone, Interval - 90	Turn not, O queen - 119
Toniœum Chromatie 110,222	Twelve Modes 23, 103
Tonic 196	Quaver Time 34
- Division - 108	
Minor Scales 152	Twice marked Octave 17
Pedal - 196	Two Crotchet Time, 31, 260
Pedal Note 296	Two Inversions of Triad 153
Period - 299	Tye - 27, 79
Section - 287	
To vanity - 115	U
Transition - 167, 187	U
Transposition - 133	Uncommon Chord 153
Treble 5	Unequal Time - 32
Tremando - 72	Union of Phrases - 284
Tremo lo 72	—— Thirds - 209
Triad 148	Unison - 90, 174
Triller - 64	Unity of Melody - 198
Triller, Kette - 65	Unnecessary Skips - 158
Triple 32	Up the dreadful - 42
- Subdivision 40	Ut diese - 51
Triple Time - 32	Ut, re, mi - 18

v	PAGE
PAGE	Walze - 27
Variation - 194	War he sung - 75
of the Tonic	Waving Line - 72
Harmony - 272	Weak parts of the Bar 41
Va speme - 36	Welcome as - 43
Verdi prati 33	We praise thee - 198
Viola Clef - 9	What passion - 11
Violin 89	When warlike 80, 141
Sections • 304	White Keys - 15
Violoncello Clef - '11	Notes - 2
Vocal Music - 18	Whither, my love - 259
Vo solcando - 197	Wie stark - 248
Vouchsafe, O Lord 249	Wretched lovers - 293
w	z
Waft her, Angels 103	Zadock the priest 221
Waltz 280	Zusammenschlag 69

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	6th, 9th, and 19th Divertimentos, each	-	4	0
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	2, each 5 ditto from La Clemenza di Tito, Book	.}	_	-
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	ditto Il Don Giovanni, Book 1, 2, and 3, es	ach	8	
	Trainting to Co of Wolto, with Fluta Oblid	acii rato		ŏ
-	Variations to Se al Volto, with Flute Oblig	Saru	, ,	٠
Gelinek	's Airs, with Variations, No. 10		. 1	6
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	Nos. 9, 11, 13, 15, 20, 21, 22, 25, 26	.วั	_	_
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Haydn's	Beauties	-	7	
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each	- }	.0	U
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