

AN INTRODUCTION
TO THE
PERFORMANCE OF BACH

*A progressive anthology of keyboard music
edited, with introductory essays, by*

ROSALYN TURECK

IN THREE BOOKS — BOOK I

Music Department

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The pieces in this first book are taken from the following collections:

The Wilhelm Friedemann Büchlein, a book of musical instruction written by Bach for one of his most talented sons. It is inscribed: "Begun in Cöthen, 22 January 1720."

The Anna Magdalena Büchlein. This is the second and better-known one of 1725. The first, much smaller, belongs to the year 1722.

Since the printing of music was still a very expensive and slow process in the eighteenth century, Bach often copied by hand the works of other composers in order to have them for his own study or pleasure. He also made various changes in these works—sometimes they were minute and sometimes they extended to composing his own version of the work. These compositions are often among his own manuscripts and bear no reference to the original composer; therefore manuscripts in Bach's own hand are sometimes open to question. The Anna Magdalena Büchlein, which is a collection of pieces which Bach's wife was especially fond of, contains a number of pieces which have not yet been authenticated nor identified and, very likely, never will be with complete certainty. Therefore it may be useful to point out to the student that the March in E flat and the Polonaise in F major in this volume are likely candidates for questioning. They may not be by Bach, and in pieces of such small dimension it is difficult to say whether or not he added his own touch to them.

For excellent detailed accounts of the history and steps of the dance forms, see Curt Sachs: *World History of the Dance*.

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Music Department

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PREFACE

IT SHOULD be stated at the outset that music, the most abstract and intangible of the arts, does not lend itself to the notation of many nuances of phrasing, dynamics, harmonic implications, and sense of form, nor of the feeling about all these things, which an artist expresses in actual performance. It is also confusing and stifling to the imagination of those who wish to learn, to attempt to note everything down in black and white. Musical performance is not a mechanical imitation of an approved model. I do not wish to prescribe an unalterable formula in this edition, to be carried out by every individual with the repetitiveness of a duplicating machine. For as long as one remains human there will remain nuances of all sorts, and as long as music remains an art and not a mechanical reproduction, there will always be more than one possibility in details of phrasing, dynamics, tempi, etc., and sometimes possibilities of marked difference in conception, all of them good. But they must adhere to the frame and idiom of the work itself; a valid, living, and communicative performance is the result not of licence but of information, experience, and insight. These books contain potential elements in Bach interpretation which will expand greatly on the advanced and professional level, but it is by no means possible to present all the aspects of Bach interpretation here, nor is it desirable. The full exposition will be dealt with in future and more technical books. The interpretations given in these books are types rather than models to be copied in a superficial sense. They are meant to be played as written, but I hope that the student will also learn basic principles from them and how to apply these principles to other works of the same type. For the interpretative suggestions are founded on deep structural principles which grow out of the music itself, and on the concepts of form and the performing practices of musicians of Bach's time. Many of my comments and musical ideas contained in these books are not limited to keyboard application and should also be of use to musicians other than pianists.

The pieces are selected from a range of works, some well known, some little known. Each piece represents a particular facet of study—fingering, various kinds of phrasing, dynamics, ornamentation, forms, etc. Book I is elementary and the increase of difficulty within it is gradual. Book II continues with and extends the ideas presented in Book I but its main content deals with the basic needs of contrapuntal and fugal performance in music of medium difficulty. Book III extends the ideas of the previous books and presents a wider view as applied to Suite and Variation Form. These longer works with their varied demands will help to develop more intensive and sustained concentration in performance. The music, however, being made up of short movements, is not too demanding, and the Suites prepare the ground for the interpretation of dance movements.

In choosing which manuscripts should be represented in this edition no great problems arise, for in most cases few manuscripts or early editions exist. The Aria and Ten Variations in Book III presents the widest choice, for there are more manuscripts of this composition than of the other works included here. On the whole the latter are based on the Bach Gesellschaft edition except for the Invention in C major which is modified according to Landshoff's research. But in the case of the Aria and Ten Variations it has been necessary for me to make selections from several sources (indicated in the notes on this work), none of them being wholly adequate in themselves since they present confusing problems and would not be clear enough as they stand, for performers today (see Manuscripts and Editions in Book III). Where a characteristic indication such as the phrasing of a figure is noted in the original, I follow this phrasing as a model and retain or develop it according to the requirements of the music in corresponding figures. I apply this as a general rule to all the works represented in this edition.

I hope that this work may open the way to a wider understanding of Bach's music and its performance and that it may clarify some of the problems with which many musicians have been so sincerely concerned.

ROSALYN TURECK

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GLOSSARY OF NOTE VALUES

<i>English</i>	<i>American</i>
Semibreve	Whole note
Minim	Half note
Crotchet	Quarter note
Quaver	Eighth note
Semiquaver	Sixteenth note
Demisemiquaver	Thirty-second note
Hemidemisemiquaver	Sixty-fourth note

FINGERING

Although Bach introduced a wider use of the thumb on keyboard instruments, it was sparingly employed in his time in comparison with its usage today. Contrapuntal music requires contrapuntal phrasing which in turn requires contrapuntal thinking and fingering. In order to phrase in *several* moving lines, the fingering used in Bach's time must be incorporated into the muscular habits of the hand, for contrapuntal music gave rise to a keyboard technique which suited its needs. Lacking constant use of the thumb and with less emphasis on successive fingering than in modern technique, overlapping, underlapping, and frequent silent change of fingering on the same note are indispensable. This type of keyboard fingering will require the establishment of new muscular habits because most hands are trained today in nineteenth and twentieth-century keyboard technique which developed to meet the needs of harmonic and percussive idioms. An admirable equipment for chordal, virtuoso, and melodic playing in a single line, this later technique makes no provision for contrapuntal structures, and the addition of earlier keyboard technique is indispensable for adequate performance of Bach's more complex music. Moreover, the independence of fingers which is developed through

Bach's keyboard approach frees the present-day pianist from the tyranny of the sustaining pedal for purposes of legato and sustained notes. Most of the major problems of pedalling in Bach performance are thus solved, for true finger independence enables one to dispense with nineteenth-century requirements, practices, and sonorities. For these reasons I begin Book I with Bach's own exercise for fingering which he wrote for his young son, Wilhelm Friedemann.

In simple pieces where each hand plays one voice, there is little or no problem and therefore in Book I the need for overlapping fingering is slight. But the student should continue to practise the first exercise regularly in order to meet later problems (see Books II and III).

Bach playing requires a strong trill technique. I therefore recommend 5-3 in preference to 5-4 for ornaments where the use of the fifth finger is required, because 5-3 is, in the very nature of the hand structure, much stronger and more reliable. Occasionally in the realisation of ornaments I have suggested alternative fingerings, the choice of which will depend on the size of hand and strength of the fingers.

PHRASING

Phrasing constitutes the skeleton of Bach performance as well as the heart of it. The development of a fine Bach style is proportionate, to a large extent, to the care which is taken to understand the relation of phrasing to structure. This volume begins with the bare fundamentals and establishes the simplest principles of thinking and playing in various areas of phrasing (i.e. contrapuntal, figurative, melodic, harmonic, and rhythmic phrasing). Players need not worry themselves over these terms at this point, except to realise the vital fact that phrasing does not have to do solely with melodic line. All musical elements combine to influence its shape, and shape in music is as vital contrapuntally and aurally as it is visually in painting. The meaning of the phrase marks in this edition may be grasped by seeing how they fit the designs of each individual phrase and how they are constructed on several levels simultaneously, according to the number of voices and general structure of the piece. Even in these little pieces you may notice the structural relations between phrase shapes. But do not make an intellectual exercise of phrasing, for it is an art as well as a study in structure. A beginning is made in Book II at indicating how to discover possibilities of phrasing and how to decide on a final choice. However it is a large subject and will form a major section in a future book. The phrasing I have given here contains all that is necessary for a musically and stylistically correct performance, and a feeling for structure will be absorbed naturally through simple, careful study and playing of the pieces.

The long phrase marks indicate breathing periods; do not confuse them with legato playing. But in addition to

breathing periods, inner phrasing is also indispensable. Played without inner phrasing, notes tend to stand vertically beside each other like soldiers, rather than bending according to their own inner shapes which unite them to the whole design. The long phrase forms the unity of design to which the inner phrases belong, but the successful performance of a long phrase is itself dependent upon the delineation of its parts. One cannot exist without the other. I therefore indicate the inner phrasing with great care for every note, figure, and structural relationship, and I hope that performers and teachers will be equally conscientious.

One of the greatest skills required in phrasing Bach's music is the ability to shape the whole phrase and the inner phrase simultaneously. Many figurations are composed of several inner shapes. In these cases the performer should not break the shapes up into little pieces by making obvious gaps between them. The smaller shapes should be played with awareness; they build up into the larger shapes to form the entire phrase. The aim is always the *inclusion* of the small shapes in the large phrase rather than the division of the large phrase into small shapes. The phrasing needs of the pieces in this volume constitute an elementary preparation for learning to think and play with more than one phrase shape in mind. Where alternative inner phrasings are suggested, select one and maintain it throughout the piece. As the player studies more complex music, he will gradually learn to think in many phrase shapes at the same time. Book II in this series provides the foundation for this development.

DYNAMICS

In order to express the dynamics required by Bach's structures, the mental attitude and muscular habit must be based on entirely different fundamentals from that of later music. Most performers today acquire their tech-

nique of dynamics mainly from music built on the harmonic structures of the late eighteenth and the nineteenth centuries. Musicians still confine their conception of the piano to the limits of this music.

DYNAMICS—continued

But since the music of Bach grows from a very different sense of form, it requires a different conception and technique of dynamic style. This applies no matter what instrument may be used. In our time, performances on the harpsichord and organ are sometimes closer to the conception and style of nineteenth-century transcriptions of Bach than to the original music. The use of the harpsichord, clavichord, or organ does not exempt the performer from understanding and applying the inner dynamic demands of the musical structure. For the characteristic sonority and style of each of these instruments does not, in itself, suffice for the performance of Bach. Following as we do the nineteenth century, it is not so easy to detach oneself from many unconscious musical habits of thought which establish themselves in conventional early training and are carried out and revealed in performance, and it does not follow that association with earlier instruments dispenses automatically with musical habits formed by romantic music. For the understanding and application of dynamics which fit Bach's music, the instrumental approach is insufficient because it does not present a solid or dependable solution.

The dynamic indications in the first five pieces in this volume grow out of the harmonic structure. This is one branch of Bach dynamics. Another grows out of and is planned according to contrapuntal structure. Contrapuntal dynamics will be new to most pianists. The first indications of contrapuntal dynamics appear in the March in D major. These indications constitute the simplest beginnings from which the performer may grow to understand the intricate dynamic requirements of fugal structure. They may appear very simple and not particularly new as they stand, but without preparatory study even the greatest piano technique, if it has been based on different foundations, will not be able to express the requirements for dynamics in Bach's structures. Dynamic changes must

be made *on* the first note of the new colour, for the pianist's habit of continual rise and fall does not suit Bach. Thus, dynamic changes occur *after* the last note of a phrase and on the first note of a new phrase, and even beginners can do this nicely with a little effort. Crescendo and diminuendo are in place in Bach performance but they play a subsidiary role.

Dynamic levels are the natural outcome of Bach's musical structures. They are by no means a substitute for those of the harpsichord. Certain sonorities of other instruments may be suggested or recalled by the performer or listener, but the attempt to duplicate them results only in sheer mechanics. If performance consisted of substitutions, or imitations, or duplications, it would not be an art, but a shallow and mechanical dead-end.

The highest skill in varying dynamic levels requires completely independent fingers and the ability to change quantity of tone distinctly and unmistakably from one note to another, no matter how fast the tempo or how many parts are involved. With the dynamic indications as they appear here, it will be found that crescendo and diminuendo are unnecessary in these pieces. Do not be content with an approximate change from *f* to *mf* or from *mf* to *mp*. The difference must be unmistakable and precise.

Each dynamic indication in this volume's pieces is to be maintained without change until the next one appears. Often there is no change throughout long sections. The repeats should be played when indicated and I hope that even in these simple pieces, my markings will provide a glimpse into the fascinating possibilities of repeated sections. The symbols (1) and (2) preceding interpretation marks refer to the first playing and to the repeat respectively. Book III in this series provides more advanced study in performing repeats in Suite and Variation form.

TOUCH

LEGATO: Only one type of legato exists, a true connection of one note to another. A fine legato is indispensable for clarity of part playing in Bach.

STACCATO: There are many types of staccato, the number varying with the technical skill and musical sensitivity of the performer. The simplest way to think and teach staccato is to classify it as detached, in contrast to legato which is uncompromisingly connected. The degree of duration and detachment determines the type of staccato. A sub-distinction between non-legato and staccato may also be made. The important thing to remember is that staccato is capable of great variation. For instance, in a melodic piece staccato touch is not as short or crisp as in a highly rhythmic work in a fast tempo. In staccato, do not jump off the note trying to achieve the detached effect. Simply think "down", with a clear idea of how long or little you mean to hold it, and you will find yourself coming off quite naturally; with these two thoughts in mind and the muscular habit established, there is no danger of ever holding a note through its full

value. The natural reflex action of the wrist or finger following a relaxed downward stroke forms a good first step in the development of a natural and relaxed staccato. Whatever the degree of dynamics, the above approach holds good, the only difference being the *amount* of weight released into the key. For *p* or *pp* one would use little weight, but the downward movement must still be carried through. To lessen the weight in *p* or *pp*, lift the wrist a little.

TENUTO: — Hold through the full time of a note value but avoid a tonal accent on the note unless the rhythm calls for it.

TENUTO-STACCATO: — The sound duration of the note receives about half the note value, more or less, depending on the character and tempo of the work.

NON-LEGATO: The sound duration equals almost all of the note value. Another kind of non-legato is as follows: hold the note for its full value and take a very short breath *before* the following note.

THE FUNCTION AND USE OF THE PEDALS

Many musicians have long deplored the use of the right pedal for Bach performance on the piano because a

sustaining pedal did not exist on eighteenth-century instruments, and also because the usual style of piano

THE FUNCTION AND USE OF THE PEDALS—*continued*

pedalling produces sonorities which obscure the musical structures in an iridescent mist. It is true that the instruments in Bach's time did not include a pedal for sustaining tone such as the piano has, but this does not mean that sustained tone or true legato was unknown. On the contrary, the possibilities of both were wholly fulfilled on both the clavichord and the organ which were the keyboard instruments which Bach played and favoured most. In reproducing the music of a past era we must refer to the musical qualities of the musical and instrumental style rather than the physical parts of an instrument. The solution of the usage of the sustaining pedal does not lie, therefore, in a blanket rule of taboo. It lies in solving the musical and keyboard demands of structure. When this is achieved it will be found that the right pedal is of value but that it is employed in a different way from that of the nineteenth century. It is not the pedal itself, nor the piano which is at fault, but rather the performer's application of a style which distorts Bach's music. The right pedal serves a particular function for the massed sounds of Beethoven or the colouristic figurations of Chopin. In this type of music it is a primary tonal and colour effect. For Bach it serves a very different purpose as a refined aid primarily for connecting contrapuntal lines in legato, and occasionally for expressing certain musical subtleties in varying the qualities of sonority between sustained and detached tone. Its function and use is therefore dependent on different factors. The great mistake in pedalling in Bach performance has been due completely to the application of musical ideas which belong to nineteenth-century music. These cannot be applied to pedalling in any other kind of music, neither that of the eighteenth century nor of the twentieth century. When this is fully realised, the right pedal will take its proper place as a

flexible device which is capable of varying usage according to the inner demands of different musical structures.

What, then, are the fundamental properties of the piano pedals, and how do they best function as a contribution to Bach performance? *Tre corde* (three strings) is the natural state of the piano tone, and I regard *tre corde* as a basic quality which can be contrasted with the sonority of *una corda*—soft pedal. This constitutes one of the piano's most valuable assets for playing Bach. Too often the pedals are used only as crutches to lean upon in order to play with more or less tone, and their use, for these simple means exclusively, limits rather than expands one's performance. Eventually the skill of the hands should develop to a point where the fingers alone can produce any and every degree of softness and legato without being dependent on the feet. I use *una corda* then, as a *quality* in contrast to *tre corde*. The *quantity* of tone is determined by the fingers whether or not the foot is employing the soft pedal. In the early and intermediate stages of piano study the skill can hardly have developed to this point. Indeed few artists have this kind of complete mastery of the quantity and connection of sound. However, I recommend this as a goal, and if one works with such an aim in mind, the tonal independence of hand and fingers can develop very much earlier than usual. Also, with the development of overlapping fingering and speed in changing fingers on one note, smoothness of legato playing can go far to free itself from over-dependence on the sustaining pedal. The pieces in Book I do not require the right pedal at all. Bear in mind that *una corda* refers to the quality more than to the quantity of sound. I have introduced it very early in Book I wherever its use is fitting musically. *u.c.* indicates *una corda*, soft pedal, *t.c.* indicates *tre corde*, no soft pedal.

ORNAMENTATION

The term "ornamentation" gives the impression, to the modern mind particularly, of something extraneous and dispensable. In the music of Bach and his predecessors this is quite wrong. The first point to learn about ornamentation is that for this music it is indispensable, and the second that it is as much a part of the musical structure as the printed notes.

As a result of musical developments after 1750, the shorthand notation of ornaments was abandoned. By Beethoven's time, strictly speaking from about his middle period, the need for reading and performing ornaments became virtually non-existent and ornamentation became a lost art, for all the notes were written out in their exact note values and figurations. The only remnants of ornamentation's great past were the simplest signs, the trill, the appoggiatura, and one or two others, which became extremely simplified in performance. The appoggiatura, losing all its individual character and varied possibilities of performance, became a simple "grace note" which has for over a hundred years now been played fast and ahead of the down beat. The trill lost all its fascinating rhythmic possibilities, all the variations in its duration. It became indiscriminately unmeasured and indiscriminately fast. Wherever encountered, whether in a slow lyrical movement or a fast movement, it is today performed in the same

way—as fast as possible. But in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, it formed a whole category of ornamentation under which many types and kinds could be listed.

The following are a few fundamental facts about ornamentation which a musician must know before it is possible to consider general rules, or the performance of any particular ornament.

1. Ornamentation is indispensable.
2. It is as much part of the musical structure as the printed notes.
3. It is a shorthand notation of musical *figures*.
4. It influences not only melodic line, but also all the other elements of music—rhythm, harmony, and structure, and all the elements of performance—phrasing, tempo, touch, and dynamics, and these in turn influence it.
5. It is a written system which is comprehensible only to the literate; it has its own terms, its own idiomatic expressions, its own nuances of meaning and expression, all of which are expressed by and communicated through its symbols.
6. Ornamentation forms a mass of rules and categories of types which allow exceptions, variations, improvis-

ORNAMENTATION—continued

ations, and personal freedom. Therefore, scholarship, judgment and feeling must all be present in its practice.

If the student has been brave enough to read this far, he can now reap the reward of the following practical information which covers some general rules as well as particular ornaments which are most often encountered.

RHYTHM: Virtually *all* ornaments in Bach's music begin *on* the beat, that is, the *first* note of most ornaments is played *on* the beat. The *accent* should be played clearly on the *first* note of the ornament, *not* on the last note as it is still too often heard today. The rest of the ornament, whether it consists of one or many more notes, falls *after* the beat. Very rarely an ornament falls before the beat, and occasionally between beats, but only after several years of study and experience does a modern performer know when these rare applications fit, and how, so it is better for the student not to attempt them. The fundamental thing to learn is that the basic rhythm of ornamentation is built on the beat. One should, therefore, forget as quickly and completely as possible the rhythmic frame of grace notes and trills which belong to a more recent tradition derived from the last century. It is helpful to learn to think and feel the new frame of on-the-beat rhythm away from the instrument as well as when playing. The feeling for this rhythm comes only after the thought is clear, but the feeling is indispensable and in performance it must combine with the correct allocation of the notes. If this new rhythm is not absorbed into the feeling, the ornamentation, though correctly played otherwise, will be artificial and fundamentally wrong and will cause distortion of every element—melody, harmony, and rhythm—in the music.

STRUCTURE: Ornaments always are and must be conceived as an intrinsic part of the figure, whether the figure is a melodic line, a short rhythmic motive, or whatever. They should not be jerky, squeezed, or uneven, nor sound extraneous or dispensable. They illuminate or intensify the character and expressiveness of the figure they belong to; sometimes the character and even structure of a phrase reveals itself completely differently with the ornament from what it would appear to be without the ornament.

TEMPO: In order to perform the ornaments not only correctly but also in their characteristic style, give them enough time to be playable and comprehensible. On the whole, ornaments should be thought, felt, and played slower than one usually hears them today. This rule holds good for most music preceding Mozart. Trills are never played with the nervous speed typical of virtuoso performers of recent years. They are almost always measured, for example four, six, eight or more trill notes to a quaver, crotchet, etc. Ornaments in a slow movement are apt to be slower than in a fast movement. The surest guide to the tempo of an ornament is to fit the speed to the time value, rhythm, and character of the motive, not forgetting the tempo and character of the piece as a whole.

GENERAL TERMS AND PRACTICE: Virtually all ornaments begin on the note above

the main note except where otherwise indicated in the symbol itself. The term "main note" applies to the large note on the staff above which the ornamental symbol appears. Thus the first note of an ornament is generally the one which is *not* printed in the score! And this first note must be played, as emphasised above, *on* the beat, the main note falling *after* the beat. In other words, that large written-out note is not the main attraction any more—it must give equal and sometimes more ground to the notes which do not appear in the score but which are implied by the symbol. The term "auxiliary note" refers to the *unwritten* note of the ornament. In the case of a long ornament it usually refers to the unwritten notes most closely related to the main note.

HARMONY: The auxiliary note is usually a *whole* tone above the main note. This differs again from nineteenth-century practice where graces and trills are almost always taken with the semitone. The whole-tone auxiliary stems from remnants of earlier harmonic practices deriving from ecclesiastical modes and their sense of interval and harmony. For although music of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was composed in the major and minor scales the earlier practices were still in musicians' ears and not wholly abandoned. After Bach's death all traces of the past vanished and, in the nineteenth century, the inexorability of the raised seventh, the love of the leading note and more and more chromatic and altered chords encouraged the use of the semitone interval. Since Bach's music is written in the major and minor scales, the semitone is to be reckoned with and is also employed. But because associations with earlier practices still adhere, it will be found that the harmonic situation calls for less chromaticism in the ornament than in later music. Consider the particular harmonic situation of the ornament itself and in relation to the harmonic structure of the piece as well. On the whole, choose the interval which is next to (above or below) the main note in the harmony employed at that moment, according to whatever major or minor scale it belongs to; it will be found that this note is usually a whole tone away. Above all, do not use the semitone as a matter of course, as is the usual practice in nineteenth-century music.

MELODY: The melodic line will be affected fundamentally by the choice of auxiliary note, which should be chosen according to the harmonic structure.

Examples

APPOGGIATURA:

Printed 

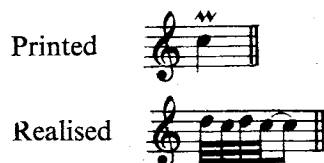
Realised 

The choice depends on the surrounding melody, rhythm, harmony.

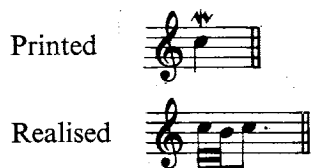
In the nineteenth century this symbol was called "grace note," being performed fast and before the beat. This is an erroneous term and conception for Bach.

ORNAMENTATION—*continued*

SHORT TRILL:



MORDENT:



The line through the symbol indicates the use of the note below, beginning on the main note. If the line does *not* appear in a symbol, always employ the auxiliary above the main note.

LONG TRILL: Mainly measured, that is, usually two or four notes against one in another voice. The number depends on the tempo of the movement, the rhythmic value of the note over which the trill appears, the figure against which the trill will be played and the character of the lines and figures within which the trill is situated. Usually two or four notes are played against semiquavers. The decision is left to the performer.

ARPEGGIO: A category of ornamentation which includes many possibilities of elaboration. For the present, the following information will suffice: *All* arpeggios are begun on the beat, that is, the *first* note of the chord is played *on* the beat, the rest of the notes in the chord fall *after* the beat. Here again, the entire frame of rhythm is felt on the beat.

ADDED ORNAMENTS: One of the most important branches of knowledge in the study of ornamentation concerns *adding* ornaments where they are not indicated by the composer. This was an habitual and endorsed practice in Bach's time and for several centuries before him, very different from the meticulous attitude towards exact notation on the part of composers and performers today. But understanding of suitable applications is impossible without a thorough knowledge of the whole field of ornamentation. In order to acquaint the student with the practices of adding fitting ornaments, as well as to complete the needs of the pieces in this book, I have added certain simple ornaments accordingly. Explanations about their usage and my initials where I have chosen them, appear below each work. In those pieces where the ornaments are realised in the score, I have indicated the ornament symbols below each work in order that the student may become familiar with the association of a symbol and its style of performance. If no initials follow the symbol, this means that it appears in a manuscript score.

HARPSICHORD, CLAVICHORD, AND PIANO

The sound of a stringed keyboard instrument originates mainly from the construction of its action which determines the manner in which the string is to vibrate. The materials of which the instrument is made will influence its tone, but not to the same degree. For the performer it is indispensable to learn as much as possible about the possibilities of the instrument's action, since the quality of performance, instrumentally, is in direct ratio to one's knowledge and feeling about it.

Keyboard instruments developed in Europe within about the last five hundred years. Before the development of instruments with keys, tone was produced by direct contact with the string. The fingers of the left hand worked out the pitch and string pressure and the right hand strummed or plucked. Sometimes a plectrum of bone or wood was used instead of the fingers for plucking the strings, removing direct contact in one hand. Keyboard instruments make another step in the direction of indirect contact with the strings. But the idea of plucking or pressing the strings was retained. For a plucked tone, the plectrum was attached to the key. The most favoured materials used for the plectrum on early instruments were leather or a feather quill. It was attached to the key in such a way that when the key was struck downwards by the finger, the plectrum at the other end jumped up and plucked the string. This, in the simplest terms, is the action of the harpsichord.

Pressing the string, when transferred to a keyboard produced a very different sound from plucking. A narrow flat tangent made of brass was attached to the key so that when the key was pressed down with the finger, the

tangent at the other end came up and *pressed* the string. The amount of pressure of the tangent on the string corresponded entirely to the amount of pressure by the finger on the key. The tangent did not fall away after its initial contact with the string, as on the harpsichord and the piano, but retained its pressure on the string until the finger left the key. The keyboard technique called for vibrating the key with the finger pressure rather than a hard strike. The fingers thus had complete control of the amount of tone, its gradations of sound and its vibrating quality. The clavichord was this type of instrument. On the harpsichord, once the key was struck, that is, the string plucked, there was no possibility of nuance within the same note. On the clavichord not only were crescendo and diminuendo possible but also the most delicate nuances of tone on the same note. This capacity gave rise to wonderful expressive possibilities and a most intimate and personal musical expression. The tone was small and the instrument had to be played gently, but within its delicate frame was contained a very wide and subtle gamut of dynamics and colour, and a beautiful singing tone.

In order to make up for its limitation of sound on one note or one keyboard, additions were made to the harpsichord similar to organ devices. A second keyboard or "manual" was often added, and "registrations" multiplied the colour possibilities. The latter were produced, in the earlier harpsichords, by means of hand knobs which when pulled sounded their individual colour. Later harpsichords incorporated foot registrations, but there were never set rules on how many registrations a

HARPSICHORD, CLAVICHORD, AND PIANO—*continued*

harpichord should have, and every harpichord differed in this respect. Both the hand and foot devices are known as pedals which is also an organ term. The harpichord developed its own variety of colour, but the variety depended on mechanical means. When a pedal was used for colour registration, the colour would continue until cut off by the pedal. A person with a highly developed harpichord technique can produce with his fingers certain varied nuances on the same manual or within the same registration, but this has small possibilities and is seldom realised except by the very finest harpichord players. It is by no means an inevitable characteristic of the harpichord, as is the tone control on the clavichord. Keyboard technique on the harpichord calls for a direct downward stroke which the plectrum needs in order to pluck the string firmly. Since the tone is not sustained but short and rather brilliant, it is effective for fast and figured passages but not as expressive as the clavichord for singing melodic lines. Although the tone is larger than that of the clavichord, it also is a chamber instrument and cannot be heard properly in a modern concert hall. In most modern halls seating more than two or three hundred, the loveliness of the real harpichord tone is lost and the subtle differences between registration qualities are dissipated, the noise of the plucking action becoming predominant. Large spaces distort its true tone and electrical amplification, which may appear to present a solution, increases the quantity but does not solve the problem of quality which is the harpichord's greatest asset. To force harpichord performance into a space which is too large to accommodate its natural tone is therefore an injustice to both the harpichord and to Bach's music, for the listener has no true measure of judging the actual sonorities of the harpichord.

In the early eighteenth century, the piano appeared. At first, it was so feeble an instrument that it did not interest composers until after Bach's time. By Mozart's time the piano reached a degree of individuality which enabled it to be brought to the fore, yet even he often alternated between harpichord and piano. With Beethoven the instrument began to develop its strong and varied character and superseded other keyboard instruments entirely. We know that Bach tried several of the early pianos at the court of Frederick II but in their embryonic form they were not yet useful to a composer and the growth of the piano could not possibly be envisaged at that time.

BACH'S ATTITUDE TO MUSIC AND INSTRUMENTS—AND OURS

Throughout his life, Bach transcribed his own and other composers' music for different solo instruments and combinations such as choral and chamber groups. No rule existed in his time demanding that a particular work be restricted to one instrument, because musicians did not think or feel that way about music and performance. Indeed Bach often wrote several versions of the same work.

This flexibility held good in the matter of instrumental performance as well. Harpichords differed, often greatly, from each other. Some had one manual (keyboard), some two, and some included a pedal keyboard as on the organ. The registrations differed from instrument to instrument so that the possibilities of sonorities and dynamic effects varied with the capacities or limits of each instrument. The variety of registration used by the

The piano constitutes a keyboard stringed instrument of a third type. A felt-covered hammer is attached to the key, and when the key is pressed the hammer *strikes* the string. As everyone knows, the amount of tone is controlled by the fingers, and the tonal gradation is very wide, from *fff* to *ppp*. Once a note is struck, the tone cannot be varied, for the hammer stroke is as incapable of recall as is the plucked action of the harpichord. But the player can produce pronounced crescendo and diminuendo from one note to another. The clavichord could produce this kind of crescendo and diminuendo too, as well as gradations on a single note. The piano pedals are not regarded as registrations or stops in the harpichord or organ sense. They have been popularly called the "loud" and "soft" pedals referring to their influence on the amount of sound when employed for this purpose. But every fine pianist of the last hundred years or more has known how to use these pedals with more subtlety than that. Actually the sustaining capacity of the right pedal aids legato and provides its own possibilities of colour, while the left pedal provides a distinctly different quality. (See "The Function and Use of the Pedals"). On the piano, the possibilities of tone, legato, melodic playing, brilliance, crispness, staccato, etc., etc., lie in the degree of skill and finger control which the performer has developed. This instrument is capable of many more sounds and styles of touch and performance than those associated with "piano" music—that is, the romantic and virtuoso music of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. This notion of the piano corresponds solely with the needs of this type of music. Unfortunately the understanding of, and attitude towards the piano are too often limited to this period which represents only one era of the piano's active development. The sonority and performing style of Mozart's time was different from that of Chopin, and each is equally different from that of Stravinsky. These vastly different styles have all found expression on the same basic instrument. Therefore, the conception of the piano cannot any more be restricted to any one period. It is capable of many different styles and sonorities, more than have hitherto been conceived, and it is up to the performer to discover and achieve them. The technique of a pianist can be developed to suit each style of music. Thus the blame lies with the performer rather than the instrument if musical style is found lacking in Bach performance upon the piano.

performer therefore depended on the registrations found on each harpichord. This was equally true of the organ. It is also well known that it was a common practice to perform on any keyboard instrument that was available. The term "clavier" is a generic one, meaning keyboard, and it was used as a general description for any keyboard instrument. Transference from one instrument to another in the orchestra was also common practice. The simple fact is that musicians were not so instrument-conscious as we are today, and that the great present-day concern over musical sonorities did not develop until after Bach's death. Insistence on the use of a particular sonority such as that of the harpichord is an attitude adopted long after the Bach period, in the twentieth century.

On historical grounds alone, musical factors apart, it

BACH'S ATTITUDE TO MUSIC AND INSTRUMENTS—AND OURS—*continued*

is extremely misleading to make a blanket rule that the harpsichord was the instrument for which Bach's music was intended. In Germany, the clavichord was more popular than the harpsichord. Unfortunately, few people hear the clavichord today since its tone is so delicate that it can rarely be heard at all in a room larger than is contained in the average home. As a result the main emphasis has been directed to the harpsichord which can at least be heard in a larger space although then its quality is diminished. In its own time its virtuosic brilliance was its most useful characteristic. Since the harpsichord has predominated in our time as the representative of Bach's keyboard instruments, many musicians and students do not realise that the harpsichord was regarded as an impersonal instrument in Bach's time and that the clavichord was much more loved in Germany. France was more interested in the harpsichord, and Couperin was *the* harpsichord composer rather than Bach, as can be seen by his style of writing and his fame as a harpsichord expert. And yet Couperin says in his famous work on harpsichord performance, *L'art de toucher le clavecin*: "As the sounds of the harpsichord are isolated one from the other, as the power of each sound cannot be increased or diminished, it has hitherto appeared almost inconceivable that a player can play with expression on the instrument (*donner de l'ame a cet instrument*)". (Translation from Dannreuther, *Ornamentation*.) His own words prove the case best. Life in Germany revolved round the church and the home where organ and clavichord reigned, whereas in France the court led the fashion and the harpsichord was the court instrument. Bach had comparatively little to do with court life, his milieu for most of his life being the church and the school. As a performer his fame was attached to the organ. A thorough investigation into his music shows that although he was open to every influence, his idiom is essentially abstract and unfettered by dependence on specific musical sonorities.

The editorial marks for the pieces in these books are the result of a study, besides the musical structure, of the instruments of Bach's time as well as the possibilities of the piano. The piano's varied capacities for singing tone, brilliance, and control over richness and dryness of tone, plus the endless variety of touch, present a tremendous opportunity for the success of the piano for Bach's keyboard music. Fitting style will emerge with scholarship, musicality, and wider understanding of this instrument.

Before 1750, no set intention of the composer as to the exact way a work should be performed was indicated. In Bach, interpretation or tempo indications are very rare. The modern musician who is dependent on guidance through interpretation marks, rather than through the music itself, is at a loss in this situation. For those who think today in terms of reproducing precisely the work of a composer, the freedom and flexibility of composers and performers before 1750 must necessarily be bewildering. This does not mean that these musicians lacked integrity, but simply that the musical art involved and created attitudes which were more flexible than those which have grown from twentieth-century developments and which govern most modern minds.

Interest in the reconstruction of the past is a modern

one. Musically, it has grown with the development of musicology since the last century. For purposes of performance of Bach's music, we must realise more distinctly the function and product of the musicologist and the artist. The musicologist is a historian whose duty it is to uncover information and to present it in the clearest and most accurate form possible. But for the performer, acquaintance with this material is only the first step. It is the function of the artist to study musicological data with the aim of solving its problems musically, integrating them within the art and expressing the whole of that art. The information gained from musicology constitutes raw material for the musician to work with, forming only one of the means and tools of his equipment, because a mass of historical information, no matter how well sifted and informative, is still far from showing one how to play Bach. This material must eventually be integrated by the artist into a meaningful as well as honest performance, through his experience with all the aspects of the artistic processes of both the composer and performer. Much more than historical information is necessary for understanding and playing this music, and musical performance is art, it is not musicology. The study of historical information and presentation of historical reconstructions is quite another sphere. The living significance and communication which Bach gives to us today is not expressed in historical reconstructions, interesting, informative and even lovely as they may sometimes be. Bach goes much further than that in his influence on, and meaning for, modern minds and feeling, and every contemporary composer is well aware of this. The musician need no longer confuse historical with musical goals. Each has its place and value, and the time has come for understanding that these two fields are not synonymous, because the historical approach forms only one part of the education of an artist, but it does not constitute the full expression of any art. I therefore recommend that artists, teachers, and students recognise their debt to musicologists for making invaluable information available to them, but at the same time recognise that performance as an art represents an infinite sphere which makes boundless demands and gives limitless experience to both the performer and listener. In Bach's music, the form and structure is of so abstract a nature on every level that it is not dependent on its costume of sonorities. Insistence on the employment of instruments of the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries reduces the work of so universal a genius to a period piece. Only a pedantic attitude can be satisfied with insistence on prescribed sounds for this type of music. In Bach everything that the music is comes first, the sonorities are an accessory. Some musicians, pianists in particular, have ceased to play Bach altogether because they do not play the old instruments. This is forcing the accessory factor into a primary position which produces an absurdity. It parallels the position of a famous German expert on fugue who refused to teach Bach's fugues to his students because Bach did not write in "correct" fugue form. Bach cannot be limited or withdrawn by confining him to the instruments of his lifetime. The significant and informed performance of Bach is contained in the understanding of the concepts expressed in his form and structures and insight into the significance of his art as a whole.

APPLICATIO IN C MAJOR

S. 994

(from the WILHELM FRIEDEMANN CLAVIERBÜCHLEIN)

This little study piece, the first in Friedemann's book, forms a perfect introduction on the most elementary level to the style of fingering, ornamentation and dynamics required as a foundation for the performance of Bach's music. The notation of fingering and ornaments are his own. Notice the overlapping use of the thumb and second finger in the scale passage, bar 3.

Phrasing: The long phrase shape of the piece is felt in two-bar phrases. This conclusion is based on the structure of the linear motive itself and on the harmonic form which integrates with the two-bar structure of the melodic line. Note that the rhythm of the piece also falls into two-bar shape. The short inner phrases should not be emphasised, but rather contained within the longer phrase. In order to avoid visual confusion, the two-bar phrase line has not been placed in the score.

Tempo: Choose a degree of Moderato which is comfortable for the even and cantabile playing of the ornaments and smoothness in connecting overlapping fingers. The metronome indication suggests an *approximate* tempo.

Ornaments: Really cantabile and to be played as an intrinsic part of a singing melodic line.

Realised version: Third system, second bar—I prefer G natural to G sharp for the beginning of this ornament primarily because of harmonic considerations, viz. the dominant seventh of A minor is not definitely indicated until the second beat with E in the bass. Melodic consideration should be included in one's final choice, as well. Here, the use of G natural adheres to Bach's usual practice in similar situations favouring whole tones to semi-tones.

Last bar—although the ornament symbol is the same as the one shown two bars previous, the treatment must be modified here due to the contrapuntal situation. To begin on B with F in the bass would create parallel fourths on a diminished chord in its second inversion; leading into this position is the worst and most forbidden usage in counterpoint. The realisation of the ornament itself remains the same except that the main note is established first and then is followed by the correct realisation of the ornament.

ORIGINAL VERSION

The musical score is presented in two systems, each containing four measures. The first system is the 'ORIGINAL VERSION' and the second system is the 'Realised version'. The notation includes various ornaments (wavy lines) and fingerings (numbers 1-5) throughout the piece. The key signature is one sharp (F#), indicating C major. The time signature is 3/4. The score is written for a single melodic line on a grand staff (treble and bass clef).

REALISED VERSION

♩ = 63

1) *mf*
2) *p t.c.*

The first system consists of two staves. The upper staff is in treble clef with a common time signature. It contains a series of eighth and sixteenth notes with fingerings: 3 2 3 4, 3 4, 3 2 3 4, 3 1, 3 2 3 4, 3 5 (3) 4 5 3 2 3 5, and 1. The lower staff is in bass clef with a common time signature, containing notes with fingerings: 2, 3, 2, 3.

The second system continues the piece. The upper staff has notes with fingerings: 5, 3 2 3, 1, 2 1 2, 1, 5, 4, 5, 4, 5, 2, 3 2 3, and 1. The lower staff has notes with fingerings: 3, 2, 1 2 1 2, 1 2 1, 5, 1 2 1, and 5.

1) *p t.c.*
2) *mf*

The third system features more complex passages. The upper staff includes a sixteenth-note run with fingerings 2 3 5 3 5 3 2 and a section marked 'b)' with a sixteenth-note run and fingering 6. The lower staff includes a section marked 'a)' with a sixteenth-note run and fingerings 5 and 4.

The fourth system concludes the piece. The upper staff has a sixteenth-note run with fingerings 2 3 5 3 5 3 (5) and a section marked 'c)' with a sixteenth-note run and fingerings 2 1 3 2 1. The lower staff has notes with fingerings: 2 3 4 5, 3 2, 1 2 1 2, 3, 5, 2, and 1.

a) If speed of technique allows: otherwise as above.

b) If speed of technique does not allow:

c) Change silently.

CHORALE "JOY AND PEACE"

S. 512

(from the ANNA MAGDALENA BÜCHLEIN)

- | | | | |
|--------|---|-----|---|
| (1) a. | Rest contented and at peace
Within the God of your life. | (2) | God, your source and your sun,
Shines brightly, daily, for your bliss.
Rest contented, contented. |
| b. | In Him rest all joys.
Without Him, all is vain. | | |

In one version of this work, a fermata sign appears at the end of each two-bar phrase in both voices, a typical indication for the sung chorale. However, in another version, the sign in the bass is omitted altogether from the first section and moving notes replace the long note. In keyboard performance only a slight breath is necessary where it appears in both voices in the original, in order to indicate the phrase endings.

A few sparse phrasing indications occur in the three versions of this work, two of which are in the *Anna Magdalena Bach* and one in four parts in the collection of four-part chorales. Although the phrasing indications are original, they appear in different phrases in different versions of this chorale.

The music should be felt in two-bar phrases as is evident from its harmonic structure. The phrasing which I have indicated is the inner phrasing *within* the longer two-bar period. Note that the phrase shapes of the soprano and bass are often different from each other; they should be carefully carried out with melodic feeling for the two lines. This constitutes the first step in contrapuntal phrasing.

The staccato is a type of tenuto-staccato, not short and sharp. The most pictorial way I can describe a subtle effect of this kind is to say, breathe off from the note.

ORIGINAL VERSION

REALISED VERSION

Cantabile ♩ = 96-108

This Chorale will be found in the four-part chorales under 'Gib dich zufrieden und sei stille'.

MUSETTE IN D MAJOR

S. Anh. 126

(from the ANNA MAGDALENA BÜCHLEIN)

The Musette was a name for a type of bagpipe. The music written under this title always contained an imitation of the drone-bass of the instrument. This is an extremely simple example of a Musette, yet the repeated bass notes convey the picturesque connection with the drone and carry the main responsibility for the title. The upper stave has been transposed from the C clef of the original; Bach's time signature, 2, has been retained.

Imagine toy instruments playing this little piece in a bold fashion. The *f* and *mf* would not be thick and the *p* and *pp* would be delicate. Remember that — means hold the full note value; it does not mean tonal accent. The staccato should be crisp and short. The accents indicated are miniature and should be kept within the framework of the piece which is a miniature in every respect. But it is a bold, not a timid miniature!

♩ = 66-76

1) *mf*
2) *pp* u.c.

mf

pt.c.

mf

pu.c.

poco rall.

IV

MINUET IN G MAJOR

(from the ANNA MAGDALENA BÜCHLEIN)

S. Anh. 116

For the first time so far, the longer periods are indicated in the score by the long phrase marks. Please notice that the piece proceeds by two-bar and four-bar periods. The longer period and the inner phrasing must be fully integrated with each other. To succeed in this, be on constant watch that the inner phrasing in both voices is carefully delineated, and at the same time that the sense of each phrase is united within the longer period. The beginning of each long phrase is the natural moment for the rhythmic breath. This does not mean a lag in time nor a complete break. It must be felt in the same terms as natural physical breathing. The character of this minuet is elegant and gentle. Staccato need not upset the lyrical quality of the long line; it is contained within the singing line. A gentle staccato, not too short and crisp, would be best here. In bars five and six, the first and second beats are not tied; the sign refers to the inner phrasing. The upper stave has been transposed from the C clef.

Cantabile ♩ = 88-96

1) *mf*
2) *p* u.c.

R.T.

First system of musical notation. Treble clef, key of D major. Fingerings: 2, 3, 5, 4; 4, 2, 3; or 5, 3, 2; or. Dynamics: 1) *mf*, 2) *p* u.c. (unaccompanied). The bass line has fingerings 4 and 5.

Second system of musical notation. Treble clef, key of D major. Fingerings: 3, 1, 2; 3, 1; 3; 5, 4, 3, 4. The bass line has fingerings 5, 1, 3 and 5, 4.

Third system of musical notation. Treble clef, key of D major. Fingerings: 3, 4, 3, 2, 1; 4; 5; 3, 4. Dynamics: 1) *p* t.c. (tacet), 2) *mp* t.c. The bass line has fingerings 5, 3, 2, 1 and 2, 4, 1.

Fourth system of musical notation. Treble clef, key of D major. Fingerings: 2, 1. Dynamics: 1) *mf*, 2) *mf*; 2) *p* u.c. The bass line has a fingering of 4.

Fifth system of musical notation. Treble clef, key of D major. Fingerings: 5; 5; 3, 5, 1, 2; 1, 3; 2. The bass line has fingerings 3, 5, 3, 4, 3, 2, 1, 3, 5 and 1, 3, 1, 2, 1. A repeat sign is present at the end of the system.

Diagram b: Treble clef, key of D major. Shows a single note on the staff.

†) Avoid a tonal accent

Diagram c: Bass clef, key of D major. Shows a single note on the staff.

MINUET IN G MINOR

(from the ANNA MAGDALENA BÜCHLEIN)

S. Anh. 115

The poignant line is most successfully realized if the long phrase is kept in mind. Avoid metronomic accents. In the original the upper staff has the C clef, with only B flat in the key signature, the E flats appearing in the score. I have retained this key signature.

Cantabile ♩ = about 100

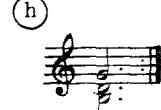
*Easier and suitable:



In a cadence ♭ may often include an afterbeat.



If a simpler line is preferred here, this ornament may be omitted.



An ending chord may be arpeggiated up or down, depending on the carrying through of the melodic line, its harmonic and rhythmic position. R.T.

VI

MARCH IN D MAJOR

S. Anh. 122

(from the ANNA MAGDALENA BÜCHLEIN)

Contrapuntal dynamics are introduced in this march. Be careful to begin the change of dynamics decisively on the first note over which the indication appears; also to make clear distinctions between *p*, *mp*, and *f*. The staccato touch is short in *f*, very pointed in *p* and *mp*. The upper stave has been transposed from the C clef.

♩ = 120 - 132

1) *f*
2) *p* t.c.

or

(a)

(b)

1) *f*
2) *p* t.c.

2) *mp*

2) continue *p* in bass

2) *f*

(c)

(d)

(a) (b) (c) (d)

R.T. R.T. R.T. R.T.

VII

MARCH IN E FLAT

S. Anh. 127

(from the ANNA MAGDALENA BÜCHLEIN)

A short breath is indicated before the last note of this piece, and is to be employed only in the repeat for the sake of the ending. It takes the place of the conventional *ritard.*, which is an effect unsuitable to many of Bach's works and too often applied mechanically to the end of every piece. Take special care to feel the staccato and slurs within the long periods, thus avoiding choppiness in performance. The upper stave has been transposed from the C clef.

♩ = 112-126

2) *p t.c.*

2) *p t.c.*

(b)

* Easier and suitable:



(c)

System (c) features a treble and bass staff in B-flat major. The treble staff contains a series of eighth-note patterns with fingerings 3, 2, 1, 4, 5, 3, 2, 1, 2, 4, 1, 3, 2, 1. The bass staff provides a harmonic accompaniment with notes 5, 3, 2, 1, 3, 1.

(d)

System (d) continues the piece. The treble staff has a triplet of eighth notes (5, 4, 3) followed by eighth notes with fingerings 3, 2, 1, 2. The bass staff has a triplet of eighth notes (1, 1, 1) followed by eighth notes with fingerings 1, 1, 2. Dynamic markings include *2) mp* and *mp*.

(e)

System (e) shows a treble staff with eighth-note patterns and fingerings 3, 1, 2, 3, 3, 5, 1, 3, 3. The bass staff has a triplet of eighth notes (3, 3, 3) followed by eighth notes with fingerings 3, 3, 3.

(f)

System (f) features a treble staff with eighth-note patterns and fingerings 1, 2, 3, 4, 3, 4, 3, 5, (2), 1, 1, 2, 4, 3, 2, 3, 2, 5, 2, 1, 2, 4, 3, 2, 5, 1, 3, 2. The bass staff has a triplet of eighth notes (1, 1, 1) followed by eighth notes with fingerings 1, 1, 1. Dynamic markings include *2) f* and *f*.

(g)

System (g) shows a treble staff with eighth-note patterns and fingerings 1, 2, 4, 3, 5, 2, 1, 2, 1, 5, 4, 1, 3, 2, 1, 2, 1, 3, 6. The bass staff has a triplet of eighth notes (3, 3, 3) followed by eighth notes with fingerings 3, 2, 1, 3, 2, 1*. The system concludes with a double bar line and a key signature change to C major, indicated by a natural sign over the G note in the treble staff.

(c) *tw*

Small musical notation for (c) *tw* (trill).

(d) *tw*

Small musical notation for (d) *tw* (trill).

(e) *tw*

Small musical notation for (e) *tw* (trill).

(f) *tw*

Small musical notation for (f) *tw* (trill).

* Easier and suitable:

Small musical notation showing an alternative phrasing for the trill.

(g)

Small musical notation for (g).

R.T.

POLONAISE IN F MAJOR

(from the ANNA MAGDALENA BÜCHLEIN)

S. Anh. 117a

The Polonaise has undergone a long development over at least three centuries, with diverse influences from different countries. It is a dance of Polish origin as its name reveals. Although the Polonaise is no doubt of much earlier date, from 1573 onwards there are reports of its use as a processional court dance opening a great ball, or the celebration of a great occasion, the couples making obeisance to the king or presiding host.

The chords in the bass of this Polonaise contribute more pointedly to the vigour and stateliness of the dance when they are arpeggiated. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries chords were more often arpeggiated than not, and I therefore recommend that the chords be broken, if the player can manage to think and play both the ornamentation and broken chords. However, the chords may not be arpeggiated indiscriminately. I have indicated $\}$ in the realised version for the intervals which may most safely and effectively be played by beginners in this style. The broken chords should be taken quickly, with the lowest note of the chord *on* the beat, played simultaneously with the *first* note of the figure in the upper voice. The second note of the chord falls after the beat. The first note may receive a note value of about a

hemidemisemiquaver, but not as slow as a demisemiquaver. Example: 

The upper stave has been transposed from the C clef.

ORIGINAL VERSION



The mordents in bars one, two, nine, ten, may be played more quickly as in bar four, third beat. However, I strongly recommend the demisemiquaver treatment as indicated in the realised version for young or inexperienced players. Taken too quickly for complete comfort and natural musical performance, these mordents will be squeezed too tightly into the figure, thus destroying the proud rhythm and melodic line of the Dance.

To convey the real character of ornaments through arithmetical time values is virtually impossible. In a piece of this type which depends so much on the character of the ornament performance, written out time values can present

only a correct realisation, and often there are *several* ways in which ornaments may be realised correctly. The atmosphere and manner of performance can be, at best, only suggested through the time values, but never noted down. Thus correctness is not enough; the atmosphere and feeling of a style is needed to bring it to life and convey its significance.

REALISED VERSION

Majestic ♩ = 60-69

The musical score is written for piano and organ. It consists of two systems, each with a piano part (treble and bass staves) and an organ part (single staff). The tempo is marked 'Majestic' with a quarter note equal to 60-69 beats per minute. The key signature has one flat (B-flat). The score includes various ornaments, such as triplets, sixteenth-note runs, and grace notes, often indicated by numbers 1-5 above the notes. Dynamics include *f* (forte), *p t.c.* (piano, tutti), and *f no rit.* (forte, no ritardando). The organ part features a prominent sixteenth-note figure in the right hand, often with a grace note. The piano part includes a variety of rhythmic patterns, including eighth and sixteenth notes, and rests. The organ part includes a variety of rhythmic patterns, including eighth and sixteenth notes, and rests. The score is divided into measures by bar lines, and some measures contain repeat signs. The organ part includes a variety of rhythmic patterns, including eighth and sixteenth notes, and rests. The piano part includes a variety of rhythmic patterns, including eighth and sixteenth notes, and rests. The organ part includes a variety of rhythmic patterns, including eighth and sixteenth notes, and rests. The piano part includes a variety of rhythmic patterns, including eighth and sixteenth notes, and rests. The organ part includes a variety of rhythmic patterns, including eighth and sixteenth notes, and rests.

(a) see (d), page 18



R.T.