

#### **ELEVENTH EDITION**

# Music An Appreciation

## **Roger Kamien**

Zubin Mehta Chair in Musicology, Emeritus The Hebrew University of Jerusalem

with Anita Kamien





#### MUSIC: AN APPRECIATION, ELEVENTH EDITION

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This book is printed on acid-free paper.

 $1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9\ 0\ \text{DOW/DOW}\ 1\ 0\ 9\ 8\ 7\ 6\ 5\ 4$ 

ISBN 978-0-07-802520-4 MHID 0-07-802520-6

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#### Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Kamien, Roger, author.
Music : an appreciation / Roger Kamien, Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Zubin Mehta Chair in
Musicology, Emeritus.—Eleventh edition.
pages ; cm
Includes bibliographical references and index.
ISBN 978-0-07-802520-4—ISBN 0-07-802520-6 (hard copy : alk. paper) 1. Music appreciation. I. Title.
MT90.K34 2014
780—dc23

#### 2013033472

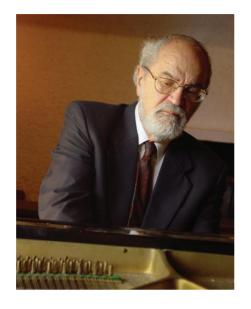
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For Anita, David, Joshua, and Adina

Also by the Author *Music: An Appreciation—Brief Edition* 

# About the Author



**ROGER KAMIEN** was born in Paris in 1934 and was brought to the United States at the age of six months. He received his BA in music from Columbia College in New York, and his MA and PhD in musicology from Princeton University. He studied piano with Nadia Reisenberg and Claudio Arrau. He returned to Paris in 1957 as a Fulbright scholar for three years' research on eighteenth-century music.

Professor Kamien taught music history, theory, and literature for two years at Hunter College and then for twenty years at Queens College of the City University of New York, where he was coordinator of the music appreciation courses. During this time he was also active as a pianist, appearing both in the United States and in Europe. In 1983,

he was appointed to the Zubin Mehta Chair of Musicology at the Hebrew University of Jerusalem.

In addition to *Music: An Appreciation*, Dr. Kamien was the editor of *The Norton Scores* and one of the coauthors of *A New Approach to Keyboard Harmony* and a contributor to *The Cambridge Companion to Beethoven*. He has also written articles and reviews for journals including *Music Forum*, *Beethoven Forum*, *Musical Quarterly*, *Journal of Music Theory*, *Music Theory Spectrum*, *Journal of Musicology*, and *Journal of the American Musicological Society*.

In recent years, he has appeared as a piano soloist in thirty countries on five continents. He frequently performs together with his wife, the conductor-pianist Anita Kamien, who has also contributed in many ways to *Music: An Appreciation*. The Kamiens have three children and eight grandchildren.

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Rhythm: Meter	Explain how rhythm is basic to life and how it forms the lifeblood of music	Review: Meter (audio practice activity)
Musical Instruments	Identify basic voice ranges for men and women and the categories of instruments in western music	<ul> <li>Review: Young Person's Guide to the Or- chestra (practice activity)</li> <li>Review: Instrument Sound Identification (audio practice activity)</li> </ul>



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Concerto Grosso	Discuss baroque concerto grosso and ritornello form	Critical Listening: Vivaldi, <i>La Primavera</i> Concerto for Violin and String Orchestra, Op. 8, No. 1
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Composer, Patron, and the Public in the Classical Period	Trace the emancipation of the composer through the careers of Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven	Review: Composers of the Classical Period (audio practice activity)
<ul> <li>The Classical Symphony</li> <li>The Classical Concerto</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Describe a typical symphony of the classical period</li> <li>List the ways in which the classical concerto differs from the classical symphony</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Performance Report: Attending an Orchestra Concert (worksheet)</li> <li>Critical Listening: Beethoven, Symphony No. 5 in C Minor, Op. 67, I</li> <li>Listening Comparison: Concertos from Bach and Haydn</li> </ul>

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Romantic Composers and Their Public	Explain how the composer's role in society changed during the nineteenth century	Review: Composers of the Romantic Period (audio practice activity)
The Art Song	Analyze the relationship between words and music in Schubert's song, <i>Erlkonig (The Erlking)</i>	Critical Listening: Schubert, Erlkonig
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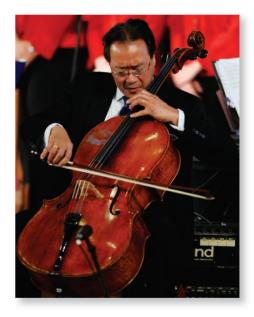
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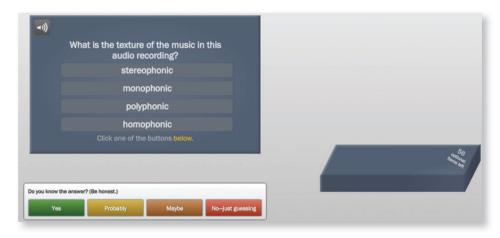
# Preface

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This new edition provides exciting additions to the musical selections. Always seeking to improve the breadth and depth of coverage, new pieces include:

- a new feature of Virtual Field Trip; students can scan the QR Code with their smartphone and experience a concert or musical performance without having to enter the concert hall, and they can respond to the performances using the Beyond the Classroom sections at the end of certain Parts;
- the addition of the dramatic third movement, *Dies irae (Day of wrath*), from Mozart's Requiem in D Minor in Part V, section 11;



La Bohème

- a new discussion and Vocal Music Guide for the song *The Year's at the Spring* by Amy Beach, the first American female composer to gain international recognition, in Part VII, section 15;
- a new discussion and **Listening Outline** for the highly popular tango musical arrangement *Libertango* by Astor Piazzolla in Part VII, section 22;
- and a new discussion and **Vocal Music Guide** for the choral work, *Lux Aurumque*, by contemporary American composer Eric Whitacre in Part VII, section 22.

Music and its appreciation is an ever-evolving process and as such it is important to introduce new artists, both historical and contemporary, to enrich the experience for both students and instructors. In **the new section on music in America** in this edition you will see new discussions and musical pieces from the following artists:

- Amy Beach, a child prodigy and the first American woman to achieve international recognition as a composer of large-scale works, discussed in Part VII, section 15;
- Astor Piazzolla, an Argentinian composer who created a unique style of tango music intended for concerts as well as dancing, discussed in Part VII, section 22;
- Eric Whitacre, an important contemporary American composer and conductor of choral music is discussed in Part VII, section 22 with special coverage of his "Conducting his Lux Aurumque, performed by the Virtual Choir" in a new Performance Perspectives box;
- and Yo-Yo Ma, one of the most famous living cellists is showcased in a new Performance Perspectives box in Part VII, section 22.

The very nature of music as a performance art necessitates attentive care to how it is evaluated and what lessons are taught to today's students. Never satisfied with success, Roger Kamien takes care to assure the strong foundation of *Music: An Appreciation* by thoroughly examining his instruction and revising and adding new scholarship when appropriate. New discussions of important musical elements and time periods will be found in the following:

- new discussions of *Melody and Words* and *Song Forms* in Part I, section 5 explain the complex connection between words and melody and how the two combine to create song forms;
- updates to the discussion of *Music and Musicians in Society since 1900* in Part VII, section 2 to include coverage from 1950 to the present day;
- and a new section on *Music in America* in Part VII, section 14 provides a brief overview of the American musical landscape and a context for discussion of representative American composers.

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### **For Instructors**

Instructor resources on the Online Learning Center (www.mhhe.com/kamien11e) include an instructor's manual, test bank, computer test materials, and PowerPoint presentations. With the introduction of LearnSmart—an adaptive student study aid—to this edition, learning objective tags from LearnSmart have been added to test bank questions for synchronization across the learning tools. This alignment will benefit both students and instructors by creating cohesion between key concepts that are read, practiced, assessed, and ultimately, understood.

### Acknowledgments

My deep thanks go to John d'Armand (University of Alaska), for class-testing the section on music in America; Catherine Coppola (Hunter College, CUNY), for suggestions concerning *Don Giovanni*; Hubert Howe (Queens College, CUNY), for updating the discussions of electronic music and instruments; James Hurd (El Camino College), for assistance in choosing repertoire; Daniel Kamien, for suggestions concerning the guitar; Roger Vetter (Grinnell College), Edwin Seroussi, and Amazia Bar-Yosef (The Hebrew University of Jerusalem), for identifying an Indonesian instrument.

A number of other instructors were instrumental in the development of this edition. Thank you to those reviewers whose input and ideas were invaluable in the process:

Candace Bailey, North Carolina Central University Chris Bartley, University of Pittsburgh-Greensburg Scott Blankenbaker, Riverland Community College Chris Davis, North Greenville University Eugene Greco, Miami Dade College-Kendall Erin Haupt, Saint Charles Community College Jonathan Kulp, University of Louisiana-Lafayette Jennifer Ladkani Fryns, College of Central Florida Max Lifchitz, University at Albany-SUNY Susan Lindahl, Central Michigan University Kathy Mayer, Northeast Lakeview College Myrna Meeroff, Broward College-Central Tom O'Neal, University of Missouri-Columbia Carolyn Ponce, Arkansas State University-State University Christine Poythress, Middle Tennessee State Todd Quinlan, Blinn College James Siddons, Liberty University Jeff Triplett, Northwest Mississippi Community College-Senatobia Robyn Wilkes, State College of Florida-Manatee Suzanne Wong, Fullerton College

And, special thanks to the subject matter experts who helped to build LearnSmart for Music:

Molly Breckling, Austin Peay State University James Boeckle, Gloucester County College Chris Davis, North Greenville University Eugene Greco, Miami Dade College-Kendall Jonathan Kulp, University of Louisiana-Lafayette Jennifer Ladkani Fryns, College of Central Florida Max Lifchitz, University at Albany-SUNY Susanna Loewy, Kutztown University of Pennsylvania Jim Loos, Des Moines Area Community College Myrna Meeroff, Broward College-Central Claudio Osorio, Miami Dade College-North Frank Ponce, Indiana Weslevan University-CAPS Carolyn Ponce, Arkansas State University-State University Todd Quinlan, Blinn College Alice Schmid, Georgia Southern University James Siddons, Liberty University

A very special thank you goes to Steven Kreinberg at Temple University for helping me create the Part Summary and Beyond the Classroom features and for many valuable suggestions during the revision process.

I want to express my thanks for the assistance of my brand manager at McGraw-Hill, Sarah Remington, the development editor, Barbara Heinssen, the digital development editor, Betty Chen, and the director of development, Dawn Groundwater. I am grateful for the superb work of the copyeditor, Kay Mikel, Jennifer Gehl, content project manager, and Margarite Reynolds, the designer. I'd like to thank Tom Laskey at Sony Music Special Products for providing an outstanding package of MP3 recordings.

My wife, the conductor-pianist Anita Kamien, has contributed to every aspect of this book. She clarified ideas, helped choose representative pieces, and worked tirelessly to improve the Listening Outlines. Her advice and encouragement were essential to the completion of *Music: An Appreciation, Eleventh Edition.* 

#### **Roger Kamien**



## **PART I**

Rhythm and harmony find their way into the inward places of the soul . . .

— Plato

## **LEARNING OBJECTIVES**

- Describe the properties of sound and explain how music is part of the world of sound
- Identify basic voice ranges for men and women and the categories of instruments in western music
- Explain how rhythm is basic to life and how it forms the lifeblood of music
- Recognize how music notation indicates pitch and rhythm
- Discuss some elements of melody
- Explain basic principles of chords and harmony
- Compare and contrast major and minor scales
- Identify and describe the three kinds of musical texture
- Explain the techniques that create musical form
- Describe the role of a performer
- Discuss the different meanings of the term "musical style"

# Elements

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usic plays a vital role in human society. It provides entertainment and emotional release, and it accompanies activities ranging from dances to religious ceremonies. Music is heard everywhere: in auditoriums, homes, elevators, sports arenas, places of worship, and on the street.

Recorded performance was a sensational innovation of the twentieth century. Today, the Internet gives access to a practically unlimited variety of recorded sounds and images. Portable audio and media players permit us to hear and watch what we want, wherever we want.

Live performances provide special excitement. In a live performance, artists put themselves on the line; training and magnetism must overcome technical difficulties to involve the listener's emotions. What is performed, how it sounds, how the artist feels about it that evening—all this exists for a fleeting moment and can never be repeated. An audience responds to the excitement of such a moment, and feelings are exchanged between stage and hall.

Our response to a musical performance or an artist is subjective and rooted in deep feeling. Even professional critics can differ strongly in their evaluations of a performance. There is no one "truth" about what we hear and feel. Does the performer project a concept, an overall idea, or an emotion? Do some sections of a piece, but not others, communicate something to you? Can you figure out why? It's up to us as listeners to evaluate performances of music. Alert and repeated listening will enhance our ability to compare performances and judge music so that we can fully enjoy it. People listen to music in many different ways. Music can be a barely perceived background or a totally absorbing experience. Part I of this book, "Elements," introduces concepts that can contribute to your enjoyment of a wide range of musical styles. For example, awareness of tone color—the quality that distinguishes one instrument from another—can heighten your pleasure when a melody passes from a clarinet to a trumpet. Perceptive, aware listening makes any musical experience more intense and satisfying.



Informal music making is a source of pleasure for players and listeners.



The audience at an outdoor concert in Atlanta, Georgia. Whether in a public park or a concert hall, live performances have a special electricity.

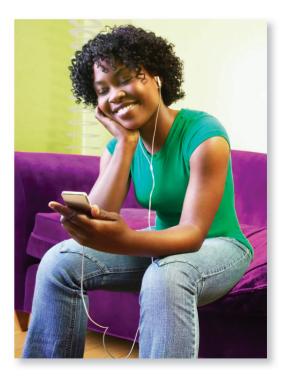


Elvis Presley: The exchange between singer and audience contains something magical, direct, and spellbinding.

The use of computers and electronics has revolutionized the way we create, play, and listen to music.



Music making transcends boundaries of many kinds. Pictured here are musicians playing in a gamelan, an ensemble found in Indonesia.



## 1 Sound: Pitch, Dynamics, and Tone Color

Sounds bombard our ears every day—the squeaks and honks of traffic, a child's laugh, the bark of a dog, the patter of rain. Through them we learn what's going on; we need them to communicate. By listening to speech, cries, and laughter, we learn what others think and how they feel. But silence, an absence of sound, also communicates. When we hear no sound in the street, we assume no cars are passing. When someone doesn't answer a question or breaks off in the middle of a sentence, we quickly notice, and we draw conclusions from the silence.

Sounds may be perceived as pleasant or unpleasant. Fortunately, we can direct our attention to specific sounds, shutting out those that don't interest us. At a party, for instance, we can choose to ignore the people near us and focus instead on a conversation across the room. Actually, we shut out most sounds, paying attention only to those of interest. The composer John Cage (1912–1992) may have meant to show this with his "composition" entitled 4'33", in which a musician sits at a piano for 4 minutes and 33 seconds—and does nothing. The silence forces the people in the audience to direct their attention to whatever noises, or sounds, they themselves are making. In a sense, the audience "composes" this piece. To get the effect, listen to the sounds that fill the silence around you right now.

What are these sounds that we hear? What is "sound"? What causes it, and how do we hear it?

**Sound** begins with the vibration of an object, such as a table that is pounded or a string that is plucked. The vibrations are transmitted to our ears by a *medium*, which is usually air. As a result of the vibrations, our eardrums start vibrating too, and *impulses*, or signals, are transmitted to the brain. There the impulses are selected, organized, and interpreted.

Music is part of this world of sound, an art based on the organization of sounds in time. We distinguish music from other sounds by recognizing the four main properties of musical sounds: *pitch, dynamics* (loudness or softness), *tone color*, and *duration*. We'll look now at the first three of these properties of musical sound. Duration—the length of time a musical sound lasts—is discussed in Section 3, "Rhythm."

# Pitch: Highness or Lowness of Sound

**Pitch** is the relative highness or lowness that we hear in a sound. No doubt you've noticed that most men speak and sing in a lower range of pitches than women or children do. And when you sing the beginning of *The Star-Spangled Banner*, the pitch on *see* is higher than the one on *say*:

see,

Oh,

you

can

Without differences of pitch, speech would be boring, and—worse—there would be no music as we know it.

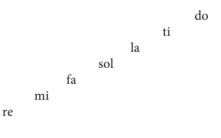
The pitch of a sound is determined by the frequency of its vibrations. The faster the vibrations, the higher the pitch; the slower the vibrations, the lower the pitch. Vibration frequency is measured in cycles per second. On a piano the highest-frequency tone is 4,186 cycles per second, and the lowest is about 27 cycles per second.

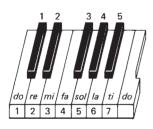
In general, the smaller the vibrating object, the faster its vibrations and the higher its pitch. All other things being equal, plucking a short string produces a higher pitch than plucking a long string. The relatively short strings of a violin produce higher pitches than do the longer strings of a double bass.

In music, a sound that has a definite pitch is called a *tone*. It has a specific frequency, such as 440 cycles per second. The vibrations of a tone are regular and reach the ear at equal time intervals. On the other hand, noiselike sounds (squeaking brakes or clashing cymbals) have an indefinite pitch because they are produced by irregular vibrations.

Two tones will sound different when they have different pitches. The "distance" in pitch between any two tones is called an *interval*. When tones are separated by the interval called an *octave*, they sound very much alike. Sing the opening of *The Star-Spangled Banner* again. Notice that the tone you produce on *see* sounds like your tone on *say*, even though it's higher. (Sing the *say* and *see* tones several times.) An octave lies between them. The vibration frequency of the *say* tone is exactly half that of the *see* tone. If the *say* tone was 440 cycles per second, the *see* tone—an octave higher—would be 880 cycles per second. A tone an octave lower than the *say* tone would be half of 440, or 220 cycles per second. When sounded at the same time, two tones an octave apart blend so well that they almost seem to merge into one tone.

The interval of an octave is important in music. It is the interval between the first and last tones of the familiar scale. Sing this scale slowly:





Seven different tones are produced by the white keys of the piano.

You will notice that you fill the octave with seven different pitches before arriving at the high *do*, which "duplicates" the low *do* you start on. You do not slide up as a siren does; you fill the octave with a specific number of pitches. If you start from the higher *do* and continue the scale upward, each of your original seven tones will be "duplicated" an octave higher. This group of seven tones was the basis of music in western civilization for centuries. The seven tones are produced by the white keys of the piano keyboard, as shown in the illustration at the left.

do

As time passed, five pitches were added to the original seven. These five are produced by the black keys of the keyboard. All twelve tones, like the original seven, are "duplicated" in higher and lower octaves. Every tone has "close relatives" 1, 2, 3, or more octaves away. (In nonwestern music, the octave may be divided into a different number of tones—say, seventeen or twenty-two.)

The distance between the lowest and highest tones that a voice or instrument can produce is called its *pitch range*, or simply its *range*. The range of the average untrained voice is between 1 and 2 octaves; a piano's range is over 7 octaves. When men and women sing the same melody, they usually sing it an octave apart.

Organization of pitch is a composer's first resource. In Sections 5 and 6, where melody and harmony are explored, we look at how pitch is organized. For now, we'll simply observe that composers can create a special mood by using very low or very high pitches. For example, low pitches can intensify the sadness of a funeral march;

high pitches can make a dance sound lighter. And a steady rise in pitch often increases musical tension.

Though most music we know is based on definite pitches, indefinite pitches—such as those made by a bass drum or by cymbals—are important as well. Some percussion instruments, such as gongs, cowbells, and woodblocks, come in different sizes and therefore produce higher or lower indefinite pitches. Contrasts between higher and lower indefinite pitches play a vital role in contemporary western music and in musical cultures around the world.

## Dynamics

Degrees of loudness or softness in music are called *dynamics*—our second property of sound. Loudness is related to the amplitude of the vibration that produces the sound. The harder a guitar string is plucked (the farther it moves from the fingerboard), the louder its sound. When instruments are played more loudly or more softly, or when there is a change in how many instruments are heard, a dynamic change results; such a change may be made either suddenly or gradually. A gradual increase in loudness often creates excitement, particularly when the pitch rises too. On the other hand, a gradual decrease in loudness can convey a sense of calm.

A performer can emphasize a tone by playing it more loudly than the tones around it. We call an emphasis of this kind an *accent*. Skillful, subtle changes of dynamics add spirit and mood to performances. Sometimes these changes are written in the music; often, though, they are not written but are inspired by the performer's feelings about the music.

When notating music, composers have traditionally used Italian words, and their abbreviations, to indicate dynamics. The most common terms are

Term	Abbreviation	Meaning
pianissimo	pp	very soft
piano	p	soft
mezzo piano	mp	moderately soft
mezzo forte	mf	moderately loud
forte	f	loud
fortissimo	ff	very loud

For extremes of softness and loudness, composers use *ppp* or *pppp* and *fff* or *fffff*. The following notations indicate gradual changes in dynamics:

Symbol	Term	Meaning
	decrescendo	gradually softer
<u> </u>	(decresc.) or	
	diminuendo	
	(dim.)	
	crescendo	gradually louder
	(cresc.)	

Like many elements of music, a dynamic indication is not absolutely precise. A tone has a dynamic level—is soft or loud—in relation to other tones around it. The loudest sound of a single violin is tiny compared with the loudest sound of an entire orchestra, and even tinier compared with an amplified rock group. But it can be considered fortissimo (very loud) within its own context.

## Tone Color

We can tell a trumpet from a flute even when each of them is playing the same tone at the same dynamic level. The quality that distinguishes them—our third property of musical sound—is called *tone color*, or *timbre* (pronounced *tam'-ber*). Tone color is described by words such as *bright*, *dark*, *brilliant*, *mellow*, and *rich*.\*

Like changes in dynamics, changes in tone color create variety and contrast. When the same melody is played by one instrument and then by another, it takes on different expressive effects because of each instrument's tone color. On the other hand, a contrast in tone color may be used to highlight a new melody: after violins play a melody, an oboe may present a contrasting one.

Tone colors also build a sense of continuity; it is easier to recognize the return of a melody when the same instruments play it each time. Specific instruments can reinforce a melody's emotional impact: the brilliant sound of a trumpet is suited to heroic or military tunes; the soothing tone color of a flute fits the mood of a calm melody. In fact, composers often create a melody with a particular instrument's tone color in mind.

A practically unlimited variety of tone colors is available to composers. Combining different instruments—violin, clarinet, and trombone, for example—results in new colors that the instruments cannot produce by themselves. And tone color can be changed by varying the number of instruments or voices that perform a melody. Finally, electronic techniques developed in recent years allow composers to create colors completely unlike those of traditional instruments.

## Listening Outlines, Vocal Music Guides, and the Properties of Sound

Reading about pitch, dynamics, and tone color without hearing music is too abstract. To understand and recognize the properties of sound, we must *listen for them*. In this book, Listening Outlines (for instrumental music) and Vocal Music Guides (for music with vocal texts) will help focus your attention on musical events as they unfold. These outlines and guides must be read *as you listen to the music;* otherwise, their value to you is limited.

In a *Listening Outline*, each item describes some musical sound. It may point out dynamics, instruments, pitch level, or mood. (Remember, though, that indications of mood in music are subjective. What one person calls "triumphant," for instance, some-one else may call "determined.")

In a *Vocal Music Guide*, the vocal text appears with brief marginal notes that indicate the relationship between words and music and help the listener follow the thought, story, or drama.

The outlines and guides are preceded by descriptions of the music's main features. Within the guide or outline, timings appear at the left. In addition, the outlines include instrumentation, notes about our recordings (where important), and the duration of selections in our recordings.

Before you listen to a piece of music, you will find it helpful to glance over the entire Listening Outline or Vocal Music Guide. Then, while hearing one passage, look ahead to learn what's next. For example, in the Listening Outline for the Prelude to Act III of Richard Wagner's opera *Lohengrin*, the first item (1*a*) is "Full orchestra, very loud (*ff*),

<sup>\*</sup>An explanation of the physical basis of tone color appears in Appendix 2.

main melody in violins, cymbal crashes." While listening to the music described by item 1*a*, glance at item 1*b*: "Brass melody, pulsating accompaniment in strings."

Sometimes, not all the instruments playing are listed; instead, only those that are prominent at a given moment are shown. For example, item 2 in the Listening Outline for *Lohengrin* reads "Soft (p), contrasting oboe melody. Melody repeated by flute. Clarinet and violins continue." Although other instruments can be heard, this description focuses attention on the instruments that play the melody.

Music selection in the text with an outline or guide can be streamed in Connect Music or downloaded after purchasing the mp3 card or mp3 disc set. See page xxxviii for details.

### *Lohengrin,* Prelude to Act III (1848), by Richard Wagner

In the Prelude to Act III of his opera *Lohengrin*, Richard Wagner (1813–1883) makes wide and brilliant use of dynamic contrasts to set the scene for the wedding of the hero and heroine. The prelude opens with a feeling of exultation—great energy is conveyed by the massive sound of the full orchestra. Later, the music suddenly becomes calm and gentle as we hear fewer instruments, playing softly. This is followed by another sudden contrast when Wagner again employs the full orchestra.

## Listening Outline

### WAGNER, Lohengrin, Prelude to Act III

3 flutes, 3 oboes, 3 clarinets, 3 bassoons, 4 French horns, 3 trumpets, 3 trombones, bass tuba, timpani, triangle, cymbals, tambourine, 1st violins, 2d violins, violas, cellos, double basses (Duration, 2:59)

0:00 0:26 1:13	<ol> <li>a. Full orchestra, very loud (<i>ff</i>), main melody in violins, cymbal crashes.</li> <li>b. Brass melody, pulsating accompaniment in strings.</li> <li>c. Full orchestra, main melody in violins, cymbal crashes.</li> </ol>
1:25	<b>2.</b> Soft ( $p$ ), contrasting oboe melody. Melody repeated by flute. Clarinet and violins continue.
2:16 2:27 2:52	<ul> <li><b>3. a.</b> Full orchestra, very loud (<i>ff</i>), main melody in violins, cymbal crashes.</li> <li><b>b.</b> Brass melody, pulsating accompaniment in strings.</li> <li><b>c.</b> Cymbals, very loud orchestral close.</li> </ul>

### Prelude in C Minor for Piano, Op. 28,\* No. 20 (1839), by Frédéric Chopin

In Prelude in C Minor, Op. 28, No. 20, by Frédéric Chopin (1810–1849), dynamic change is produced by a single instrument, the piano. A decrease in volume from very loud (*ff*) to soft (*p*), and then to very soft (*pp*), contributes to a feeling of emotional progression within this miniature piece lasting only  $1\frac{1}{2}$  minutes; it's as though a majestic funeral march becomes increasingly personal.

<sup>\*</sup>The abbreviation *op.* stands for *opus*, Latin for *work*. An opus number is a way of identifying a piece or set of pieces. Usually, within a composer's output, the higher the opus number of a composition, the later it was written.

## Listening Outline

### CHOPIN, Prelude in C Minor for Piano

Piano

(Duration, 1:34)

0:00	1. Heavy chords, very loud ( <i>ff</i> ).
0:26	2. New section, soft ( <i>p</i> ).
0:53	<b>3.</b> Very soft ( $pp$ ) repeat of preceding section. Loud chord at end.

## The Firebird, Scene 2 (1910), by Igor Stravinsky

In the second—and final—scene of the ballet *The Firebird*, Igor Stravinsky (1882–1971) repeats one melody over and over, creating variety and contrast through changes of dynamics, tone color, and rhythm. During this scene, the hero triumphs and becomes engaged to a beautiful princess.

The second scene begins softly but becomes increasingly grand as the music gradually grows louder (crescendo), more instruments play, and the melody is repeated at higher pitches. After this slow buildup to a climax, there's a sudden quiet as all the instruments but the strings stop playing. A quick crescendo then leads to a brilliant concluding section.

## Listening Outline

### STRAVINSKY, The Firebird, Scene 2

Piccolo, 3 flutes, 3 oboes, English horn, 3 clarinets, bass clarinet, 3 bassoons, contrabassoon, 4 French horns, 6 trumpets, tuba, timpani, triangle, cymbals, bass drum, 3 harps, 1st violins, 2d violins, violas, cellos, double basses

(Duration, 3:06)

0:00	<b>1. a.</b> Slow melody in French horn, soft ( $p$ ), quivering string accompaniment.
0:29	b. Violins, soft, melody an octave higher. Flutes join.
0:43	c. Grows louder (crescendo) as more instruments enter.
1:03	<b>d.</b> Violins and flutes, loud ( $f$ ), melody at even higher octave, crescendo to
1:17	e. Full orchestra, melody very loud ( <i>ff</i> ), timpani (kettledrums).
1:34	<b>f.</b> Suddenly very soft ( $pp$ ), strings, quick crescendo to
1:41	2. a. Brasses, very loud ( <i>ff</i> ), melody in quick detached notes, timpani.
2:04	<b>b.</b> Melody in slower, accented notes, brasses, $f\!f$ , timpani, music gradually slows.
2:35	c. High held tone, <i>ff</i> , brass chords, extremely loud ( <i>fff</i> ), lead to sudden <i>pp</i> and crescendo to extremely loud close.