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HENRI HERZ'S

NEW AND COMPLETE

PIANO-FORTE

SCHOQL.

FIRST AMERICAN EDITION.

NEW YORK:

PUBLISHED BY JOHN F. NUNNS, 240 BROADWAY.

1844.

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HENRI HERZ'S

NEW AND COMPLETE

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PIANO-FORTE SCHOOL,

CONDUCTING THE STUDENT FROM

THE FIRST ELEMENTS OF MUSIC

TO THE

HIGHEST AND MOST REFINED STYLES

OF

PERFORMANCE,

ILLUSTRATED BY A VARIETY OF

EXAMPLES, PRECEPTS, EXERCISES, STUDIES, LESSONS, ETC.,

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The character for Souther

PREFACE.

In proportion as any art or science becomes generally diffused, so much the more difficult will it be to the individual to become celebrated therein. Until a recent period, the study of the piano-forte (or rather, I should say, the harpsichord) existed only in the higher circles; in fact, it was the exclusive privilege of opulcnce and aristocracy. In those days, a few disjointed notes in the execution of a rondo or a minuet excited the greatest enthusiasm and astonishment in the beau monde. Subsequently, several eminent composers, who were also great performers, gave to the piano-forte that importance which it always ought to have had, and began to infuse into other classes of society a desire to study that instrument. Since then, the art has been rapidly advancing; and, during the interval of half a century, what progress has it not made! The combined cfforts of the performer and manufacturer have rendered it almost impossible to recognize any affinity between the magnificent effects produced in the present day, and the tinkling, powerless performance of the last century. In modern society, many amateur performers have sprung up, whose taste and fine execution have rendered it necessary for the masters to remove the limits of the old school; for with the increase of their powers has arisen the necessity of satisfying that avidity for novelty which every day becomes more exacting. However, whilst the development of a new view has imperiously made itself felt, the novel progressions, harmonic combinations, and grand effects, founded by modern composers, have not always met with a welcome reception from the partisans of the old school. "We have lost," say they, "the grandeur, the noble simplicity, of the ancients;" and they deplore the decline of music as though, indeed, the art, shorn at once of its freedom and originality, ought servilely to copy itself, instead of imitating Nature-that inexhaustible source of all its productions! We feel, no doubt, a sincere admiration for those great works which time has consecrated; at the same time, without detracting from their justly acquired fame, is it not possible that modern music may also possess a character of its own? As, in arts of imitation, nothing is considered beautiful which is not true to Nature, ought not the first endeavor of any age to be, in its works of art, to stamp those works with a character, identifying them with its own time ? In writing for the present age, why should we imitate the style of by-gone times? However suitable they then might have been, they are perfectly inappropriate to the present age. It is far from my intention to recur to the question as to whether or not the favorable opinion of the public is of importance; but it is very certain that those who most strenuously dccry the success of others, arc in reality the very persons to whose happiness it is most essential ! In the pursuit of their own interest, as in that of the art of which they pretend to plead the cause, can they forget that the duty of a true artist consists not in supincly looking back with unavailing regret upon the past, which cannot be recalled, but in seeking, in the present, a new field for exertion and for fame? For myself, so far as regards the art of playing the piano-forte, and more particularly in that which applies to instruction, I look upon every exclusive system as either unjust or erroneous. Instead of following my own taste, I adopt every improvement which public opinion has sanctioned; and I do not consider that I have completed my task until I have progressively led my pupil to a perfect execution of all good music in the particular school to which it belongs. I am also very careful to understand, perfectly, all that is necessary to be effected, and to mark the divisions of my Method in such a manner that nothing useful shall be omitted; also that the pupil may be able to follow it without being discouraged by complicated rules and uninteresting exercises. I have effected in this particular all the improvements which long experience has suggested to me, and which I myself tried before applying them to others. If I have been able to contribute to the art of piano-forte playing, it is not, as some may suppose, from any peculiar organization, but from the method which I have pursued from childhood, and also from the use of the Dactylion*, an instrument of my own invention, of which I have proved the inconceivable utility by great and unvaried success. The almost universal adoption of the Dactylion convinces me of the utility of the invention; and the Royal Institute of France, in honoring it with its patronage, has added a high sanction to the approbation of the public. If, by the constantly increasing diffusion of this powerful mechanical agent, and by the publication of this elementary work, I am enabled still to be useful to the musical art, the study of which has at all times been my happiness, I shall consider that I have attained my highest wishes, and received the most delightful recompense for all my labors.

^{*} It is well known, that a perfect execution of five fingers is necessary to a *good mechanism*, and the best preparation for the grand difficulties of the pianoforte. The end to be gained by the use of the *Dactylion* is to shorten this labor; experience attests that one hour's practice every day with this instrument is sufficient for the rapid progress of the student, and is all that is required to maintain the execution of the professor.

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ELEMENTS OF MUSIC.

MUSIC is the art of delineating, by a combination of sounds and rhythm,¹ the sentiments and effects which it is capable of imitating.

It is divided into two parts, melody and harmony. Melody is the combination of successive sounds; harmony, that of simultaneous sounds.

Harmony is of two, three, or four parts, according as it combines two, three, or four sounds together. A solo is that which is executed by a single voice, or a single instrument; a duo, that which combines two voices, or two instruments; a trio, three voices, and so on in proportion. An unison² is the simultaneous emission of the same sound by several voices or instruments; a chord, the simultaneous emission of several different sounds, according to the laws of harmony.

Sound is the essential element of music; yet, every sound is not musical. We call sound, in general, whatever is distinguished by the ear; musical sound, every intelligible sound comprehended within the range of voices and instruments. Musical sounds differ: first, by tone; secondly, by intonation; thirdly, by intensity; fourthly, by duration.

Tone³ is the difference of quality among sounds; *intonation* the difference of sound; for instance, in unison, the sounds of united voices or instruments differ but in tone, the intonation being the same; in a chord, they differ both in tone and intonation, the combined sounds being graver, or more acute. Whether in unison, or in a chord, or even in an isolated sound, *intensity* and *duration* may vary *ad infinitum*; and these two differences are independent of each other, and of those which precede them.

The unison of every sound, comprehended in the compass of voices and instruments from the lowest to the highest, forms the complete *ladder of musical sounds*.

This is divided into particular ladders, called scales. The scale is a series of seven sounds, composed of five tones and two semitones. The two semitones are placed, in the ascending scale, from the third to the fourth degree, and from the seventh to the eighth. The scale is said to ascend when it follows the order of intonation from grave to acute; to descend when it follows the inverse order.

However numerous the sounds composing the complete ladder, names are only given to those which form a single scale; consequently there are but seven names for all musical sounds — C, D, E, F, G, A, B.

After every seventh note, the same series recommences; hence the terms C, D, E, &c., are repeated as often as there are scales.

The scale can commence by each of the given notes which compose it; hence the terms, scale of C, scale of D, scale of E, &c.; and, as these scales represent the tones, we say C for the scale of C, D for the scale of D, &c.

In these scales, the first note always represents the gravest sound; it is called *the tonic*, because it gives its name to the tone represented by the scale which it commences, and of which it is the fundamental note. The following notes are called the *second*, *third*, *fourth*, *fifth*, *sixth*, *seventh*, and *octave*, according to the degree they occupy. Thus, the *octave* is the interval from one sound to another, seven degrees graver or acuter, and so with the others.

The note placed a semitone below the tonic is called the *sensible* or *leading note*, because its suspending effect awakens the sentiment of the tonic, which invariably follows it, and serves as its resolution.

¹ We shall treat of rhythm in a particular chapter.

² An unison is also a single sound.

³ It does not enter into the plan of this work to treat of the tone particular to each instrument; we shall confine ourselves to define it generally.

MUSICAL NOTATION.

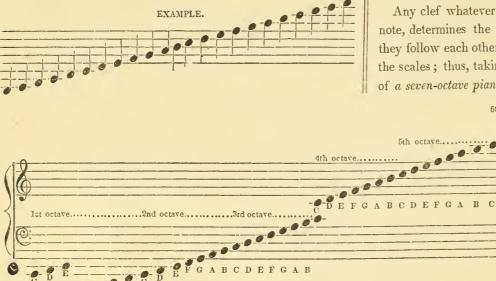
Musical notation is the art of figuring to the eye, sounds, silence, and rhythm.

To represent the complete ladder of musical sounds, it is agreed upon to use five parallel horizontal lines, which, together, are denominated the stave. They are from bottom to top. The small round dots, black or white, which are traced on the lines and spaces, are called notes, and represent the intonation of sounds.



It may be easily conceived, that five lines cannot, in themselves, contain all the notes of the musical ladder, which is composed of seven octaves. To render them sufficient, three modes have been adopted: first, additional lines; secondly, clefs; thirdly, sharps and flats.

Additional lines are only an accidental supplement to the lines of the stave, when they of themselves are not sufficient; that is to say, when the sounds, acute or grave, ascend or descend beyond its compass. Each serves but for one note, and they are traced parallel with the stave, of which they mark the extension.



Clefs are an ingenious mode of avoiding a multiplicity of additional lines; and thus of facilitating the reading of music by restoring to the stave the sounds which would go beyond its limits.

Music for the piano-forte is written on two staves; one in the G or treble clef, the other in the F or bass clef. The following example indicates the form and position of each



The G clef, placed on the second line, transfers to the stave those sounds which are *acute*, and indicates the note G.

The F clef, placed on the fourth line, transfers to the stave those sounds which are grave, and indicates the note F. The accolade or brace, which unites the two staves, expresses the agreement and simultaneousness of the sounds and bars which they contain.

The C clef transfers to the stave those sounds which are intermediate ; but, being no longer used in piano-forte music, we abstain from describing it.

Any clef whatever, by fixing the name and place of a single note, determines the names and places of all the others, since they follow each other invariably in the direct or inverse order of the scales; thus, taking all the degrees, ascending or descending, of a seven-octave piano, we obtain the following :



The scale, as we have said, is composed of five tones and two semitones, which make twelve semitones for the entire scale. By the aid of sharps (#) and flats (b), the whole musical ladder may be represented in semitones, without augmenting the number of lines in the stave.

A sharp elevates and a flat lowers the note which it precedes, a semitone. A natural (4) annuls the effect of a sharp or a flat, and restores to the note its natural intonation.

We have observed that, in the scale of C; the two semitones are placed, one between the third and fourth degrees, the other between the seventh and eighth.



¹ The highest note on English piano-fortes, as usually manufactured.

To bring the scales of D, E, F, G, A, and B, to the type of the scale of C — that is to say, to give to the two semitones, in every scale, the rank they occupy in the scale of C — we use sharps and flats. By means of these signs, every scale is assimilated to the scale of C, and presents the same order of intervals. Thus, we assimilate the scale of G to that of C, by elevating F a semitone by means of a sharp.



We assimilate the scale of B flat to that of C, by lowering the B and the E a semitone by means of flats.



In order to avoid the repetition of the sharps and flats which determine the key, throughout the whole of a piece of music, they are placed after the clef, and thereby announce that the notes which correspond to them, by their position on the stave, must be, in every octave, elevated or lowered a semitone, unless a natural should appear to replace them.

Sharps succeed each other, and are placed after the clef by ascending fifths, beginning from F sharp.

EXAMPLE.

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

Flats succeed each other by descending fiths, beginning from B flat, so that their order is contrary to that of sharps.

EXAMPLE.

Bb, Eb, Ab, Db, Gb, Cb, Fb.

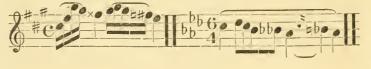
Sharps and flats are also employed accidentally in the course of a piece of music; in such cases, their effect is confined to the bar in which they may be found. However, when the last note of a bar is preceded by a sharp or flat, and prolonged into the following bar, the effect of the sharp or flat accompanies it without the necessity of repeating the sign.



Certain rules in harmony require the employment of the *double* sharp (\times) , which elevates a note two semitones; and the *double* flat (bb), which lowers it two semitones. These double signs, being purely accidental, are never placed on the clef.

In general, those notes only, already affected by the simple

sharp or flat, receive the double sharp or flat;¹ and, once marked with these double signs, the natural can only restore them to their anterior state of simple sharp or flat notes; thus we understand the signs $\ddagger \#, \ddagger b$, natural-sharp, natural-flat.



OF KEYS.

A key is the situation of a scale with regard to the distribution of the tones and semitones of which it is composed. There are two keys, the *major* and the *minor*. The *major key* is that in which the third note of the ascending scale forms a *major third* with the tonic; the *minor key* is that in which it forms a *minor third*.

The major third is the interval of two tones; the minor third the interval of a tone and a semitone.



There is between the two keys another characteristic difference; in the major keys, whether the passages or phrases be executed in the ascending or descending order of the scale, the same series of intonations is used; in the minor keys, the intonations are changed, inasmuch as the sixth and seventh, which, in the ascending scale are major, become minor in the descending.²



Every major key has a *relative* minor, and every minor key a *relative* major. The *relative* of the major key is situated a minor third below the tonic or key-note; so that the key of C major has A minor for relative, and the key of A minor has C major for relative. In the same manner, the relative of G major is E minor, and that of E minor is G major, and so on with every other key.

The major and minor keys being bound together by a relation of common harmony, the sharps and flats, indicating the major key, serve equally for that of the relative minor, as may be seen by the following example:



¹ When the \times or bb affects a note already sharp or flat, it merely elevates or lowers it a semitone.

² The minor scale, ascending or descending, is subject to *certain variations*, of which we shall speak in the chapter relating to scales.



But the number of sharps or flats placed after the clef being insufficient to distinguish the major keys from their relative minors, and the converse, the musical feeling acquired by habit is the best guide to follow in this respect.

However, there is an important way generally applicable, by which this distinction may be made. It consists in observing whether the leading or sensible note of the minor key makes its appearance on the first bar; in such cases, the key is minor. Whether major or minor, it may also be known by the tonic, which appears in general at the beginning and end of a piece of music.

OF THE DIATONIC, CHROMATIC, AND ENHARMONIC SYSTEMS.

Musical sounds, considered with regard to intonation, comprehend three systems or kinds, the *diatonic*, the *chromatic*, and the *enharmonic*.

The diatonic system is based upon the natural intonations of the scale; the chromatic system on the usage of semitones represented by sharps and flats; and the enharmonic system, on the change of the name and degree of notes, without changing their intonation: I say, without changing it; for, though the voice and instruments with moveable intonations, such as the flute, violin, &c., can make so slight a difference felt, the piano-forte, an instrument with fixed intonations, is incapable of expressing it.



OF DURATION OF SOUNDS AND OF SILENCE.

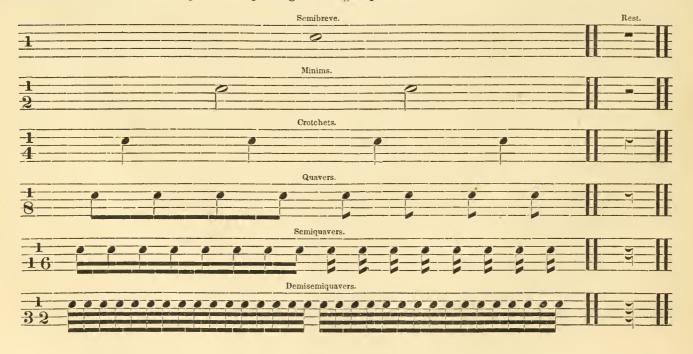
Hitherto, we have only spoken of the extent and divisions of musical sounds, of their notation, and of their intonation with regard to the keys and systems to which they belong. We shall now treat of the *duration of sounds and of silence*.

Musical effect is indebted as much to the employment of silence as to the combination of sounds; for, whatever space of time we may allot to the prolongation of a sound, may also, in an equal degree, be conceived of the prolongation of silence. Hence the necessity, in writing music, of signs to mark the duration of silence, equivalent to those which stand for the duration of sounds. Both may be reduced to a common system; we shall explain them simultaneously, and give an example in which both are combined, in order to make their analogy the more striking.

The duration of sounds and of silence is divided into *relative* duration and absolute duration.

RELATIVE DURATION.

By relative duration is understood, that which a sound has in comparison with other sounds, or a rest (or silence) with other rests. It is independent of the movement. Thus, whatever the degree of quickness or slowness indicated, the sounds and rests remain, with regard to each other, in the proportion indicated by the following table of their relative duration and the signs which represent it.



In this example, the first sign is called a *semibreve*, expressing the unity of duration. The signs which follow represent the fractions of this unity, and these fractions succeed each other, dividing by two, as far as $\frac{1}{3^2 2}$ of the semibreve, the last fraction in general use.

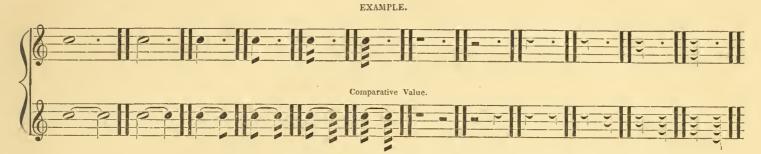
PAUSES, TRIPLETS, DOUBLE TRIPLETS, &c.

The signs of the relative duration of sound or of silence can be

augmented or diminished in value by certain accessory signs annexed to them, which are *augmentative* and *diminutive*.

The augmentative accessory signs are the dot and the pause.

A dot placed at the right of any sign whatever, augments the value one half; consequently, it is equivalent to half the note or rest which precedes it. Thus, a *dotted semibreve* is equivalent to a semibreve and a half, or three minims, six crotchets, twelve quavers, &c.; and in the same manner with the rests, as may be seen by the following table of comparisons.

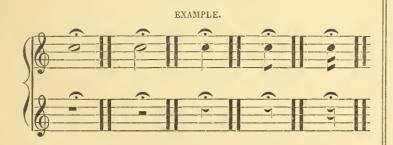


Sometimes there are two and even three dots after a note or rest, and in such case the second dot is equivalent to half the value of the first, and the third to half the value of the second.

EXAMPLE.



A Pause, \frown , placed above or beneath any note or rest, shows that it may be prolonged *ad libitum* (at pleasure).



There is, however, an essential difference between the dot or point and the pause. The former, like the notes whose place they occupy, have a fixed value, determined by the bar; the latter expresses an undetermined value, and counts for nothing with regard to time.

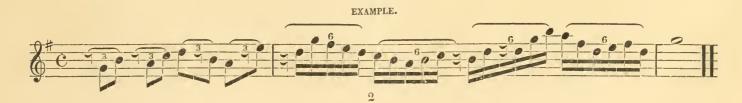
Diminutive accessory signs are reduced to certain groups of notes, surmounted by figures, to indicate that they do not possess all the values represented by them in general, but solely a value equivalent to that portion of duration allowed them by the rhythm.

The relative duration of notes, as has been shown in our table, is ordinarily in the proportion of 1 to 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, &c., which is called *binary* or *two-fold proportion*; but, in the space occupied by 2, 4, 8, &c., notes, if we insert 3, 6, 9, 12, &c., to indicate *trinary* or *three-fold proportion*, we mark the groups which represent it with the figures 3, 6, 9, 12, &c.; and these groups take the name of *triplets*, *double triplets*, &c., according to the number of notes they contain.



Proportions exist in a still more irregular degree: thus, in music for the pianoforte, we often meet with passages of 5, 9, 11, 14, and 17 notes, and others of a like nature. But, whatever these eccentricities may be, it suffices to interpret them in performing, to keep in mind that these groups have never a longer duration than is necessary to complete the bar.

Rests may also enter into the *trinary* or *three-fold* proportion, and offer the same irregularities. In the *triplets* and *double triplets* which follow, each rest holds in the bar the same value which the note would have possessed whose place it represents.



The absolute duration of sounds and of silence is independent of their relative duration; relative duration is invariable; absolute duration varies according to the will of the composer. Thus, the semibreve, without ceasing to be equivalent to two minims, four crotchets, eight quavers, &c., expresses an absolute duration, whose extent depends on the movement (*i. e.*, quickness or slowness) indicated by the composer. The same may be remarked of pauses, and of all kinds of notes and rests. The signs of relative duration have, consequently, a value only determined by those of absolute duration, the indication of which, at the beginning of the piece, is indispensable.

The signs of absolute duration consist, first, in expressions borrowed from the Italian language; secondly, in the indications of the metronome.

EXPRESSIONS INDICATIVE OF TIME FROM THE SLOWEST TO THE QUICKEST.

Largo,

Lento,	alı	mo	st i	mр	erc	ept	tibl	e s	had	es of a very slow time.
Sostenuto, J										
Larghetto,		-		-		-		-		rather slowly.
Adagio,	-		-		-		-		-	slowly.
Maestoso,		-		-		-		-		majestically.
Andantino,	-		-		-		-		-	not too slow.
Andante, -		-		-		-		-		a decided or marked time.
Moderato,	-		-		-		-		-	moderately.
Grazioso,		-		-		-		-		gracefully.
Tempo di n	naro	cia	,		-		-		-	march time.
Tempo gius	sto,	-		-		-		-		animated, but not too quick.
${\it Allegretto},$	-		-		-		-		-	gaily, but not too quick.
Allegro, -		-		-		-		-		gay, animated.
Con brio,	-		-		-		•		-	with spirit.
Scherzando	'>	-		-		-		-		in a light and playful style.
Vivace,	-		en.		-		*		-	with vivacity.
Presto, -		-		-		-		-		very quick.
Prestissimo	,		-		-		-		-	the quickest time.

These expressions are sometimes modified by the terms *un poco* (a little); *molto* or *assai* (much or rather); *non troppo* (not too much). Thus, *un poco adagio* signifies rather slow; *allegro assai*, rather animated; *allegro non troppo*, not too quick, &c., &c.

But, as these terms may be differently interpreted by each performer, according to his manner of understanding or feeling ideas, composers, in order to leave no doubt as to their intention, make use, at present, of the *metronome* of Maelzel. This instrument, whose construction is founded on the division of a minute into a certain number of bars, or times of bars, points out absolute duration with a mathematical precision.

The indication is made by a note followed by a figure. The

note expresses whatever may be the relative value; and the figure explains how many times this value is contained in the space of a minute.

EXAMPLES.

Allegro (= 120).	Moderato ($= 84$)	Andantino (\downarrow . =76)
Xa	-3	F-6FF
	4	8
120 anotabata in a minute	04	

120 crotchets in a minute. 84 quavers in a minute. 76 dotted crotchets in a minute.

To obtain these different results, it suffices to place, on the figure indicated, the weight fixed to the balance of the metronome; in the first of the three movements indicated above, each beat represents a crotchet; in the second, a quaver; in the third, a dotted crotchet.

OF LITTLE NOTES, OR NOTES OF ORNAMENT.

These are certain notes, *isolated* or *in groups*, which only appear in the melody, as accessory ornaments, and which, having no determined value in the bar, borrow their duration out of that of the note which follows them. In order to distinguish them from the principal notes of the phrase, they are written in a smaller character. Their quickness is proportioned to that of the time adopted.

The notes of ornament, when *isolated*, are long or short. When long, they take the name of *appoggiaturas*, from the Italian verb *appogiare* (to support), because they bear on, or are supported by, the following note, which is in general the last but one of the phrase. Their duration is ordinarily equivalent to the half of the note in question.



When they are short, a little line cuts them transversely; and in this case they pass so rapidly that their duration is scarcely perceptible.





Notes of ornament, when *in groups*, are united together by twos, threes, &c., and are called turns or *grupetti*, an Italian word which signifies little groups.

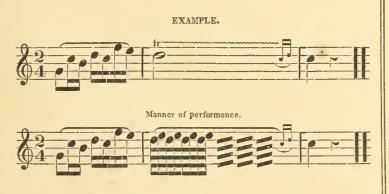


The grupetto, composed of three notes, is indicated sometimes by signs of abbreviation, as \checkmark when ascending, and as \sim when descending; and these turns are marked with a sharp, flat, or natural, when the grupetto contains a note affected by either of these alterations.



When these small notes are grouped in a larger number, they are either *pauses* or passages whose execution is *ad libitum*.

The *shake*, also called the *cadence*, is the rapid and alternate emission of two notes, which are next to each other in the scale; it often immediately precedes the last note of the phrase, which it agreeably prepares or suspends. Its duration is always equal to that of the note marked with the sign of abbreviation, tr.



The mordente, represented by the sign, is a shake more rapid, on account of its brief duration.



In the practical part of this Method, we shall enter into more detailed explanations of the different modes of execution of which ornament is susceptible.

RHYTHM.

Rhythm consists of a symmetrical relation between the duration of time and that of sound, and in the periodical return of the same effect.

Whether we consider rhythm in sounds spoken, as in poetry in sounds sung, as in vocal music; in sounds artificial, as in instrumental music; in sounds not musical, as in the beats of a drum; or even in the movements of a dance—it is always subject to the same relation. By the modern system, this relation is determined by the metronome, whose beats, more or less rapid, correspond, as we have already said, to an equal number of fractions of a minute, and represent the duration of time; whilst the voices and instruments measure the duration of sounds by the same beats, sometimes embracing several beats in the same sound, sometimes precipitating several sounds between the intervals of one beat and another. In varying this relation, by a thousand different proportions, we give so many different characters to rhythm, thereby producing opposite emotions in the mind.

To render more striking these characters of rhythm, and the better to illustrate the varieties into which it may be reduced, a division has been adopted which we call *time*.

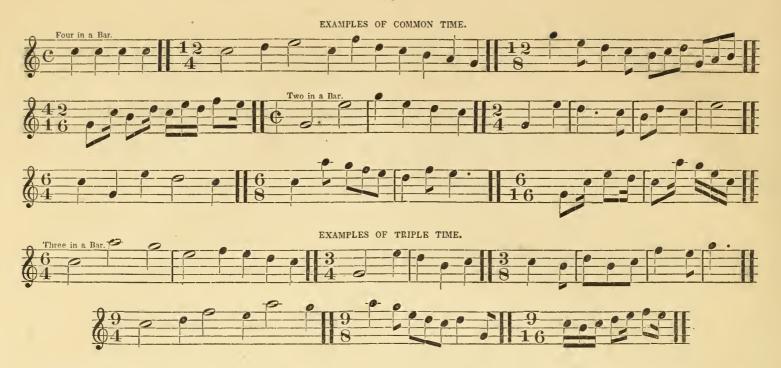
OF DIVISION OF TIME.

Division of time is the unity of duration used for dividing musical phrases into equal parts.

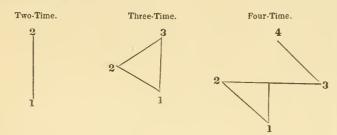
There are two divisions of *time*, *common* time and *triple* time. Common time is that which can be divided by *two*; triple, that which can be divided by *three*; but each may be subdivided into a great many others.

The division of time adopted by the composer is marked on the stave, at the beginning of a piece, by the sign \mathbb{C} (or 4) if the semibreve be the constituted element of such division; if the value be less, two figures are made use of, the first of which expresses the number, and the second the nature, of the fractions of the semibreve contained in each division. Thus, $\frac{2}{4}$ indicates that *two* fourths, $\frac{6}{8}$ six eighths, $\frac{9}{16}$ nine sixteenths, of the semibreve are included in each division, and so on with the rest.

Each division is marked on the stave by two vertical lines called *bars*, which enclose the signs of duration which it contains. Each division is also divided into equal parts. Those parts which essentially constitute the rhythm are called *accented*; those which are merely accessory are called *unaccented*.



Time is marked or *beat* with the hand; hence arise other distinctions of time depending on the rising or falling of the hand in beating. We may explain the movements the hand should describe in beating as below—



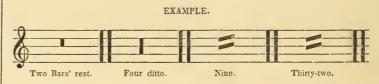
The prolongation of a sound divided by the accented parts of a bar is called *syncopation*. Syncopation is applicable to all notes of whatever value.



In order to prolong, without interruption, the duration of a note beyond its natural value, and even for several bars, the figure of the note is repeated, with the sign —, already employed in the same manner, to express the effect of syncopation.



We have before said, that the semibreve expresses the longest duration of sound, and that the semibreve rest expresses a silence of the same duration. When the performer has to remain silent during several bars, instead of repeating the semibreve rest every bar, an abridgment is made by means of lines, equivalent in value to two or four semibreve rests; if the number of bars' rest be too considerable, the lines are replaced by two diagonal bars, with the number indicated above.



To mark the repetition of a certain number of bars, two points are placed at the side of the bars which include those to be repeated.



When, at the conclusion of a phrase to be repeated, one or two bars are excluded from the repetition, they are indicated thus :



When the double bar is unaccompanied by these points, it designates merely a separation, a change of time or key, or the end of the composition.

By *da capo* is meant a general repetition from the beginning to the end, marked with the word *fine*; every partial repetition being excluded.

We confine ourselves here to these elementary remarks, in order to avoid the repetition of particular rules, which will be developed individually in the separate parts of the Method to which they belong.

OF THE PIANO-FORTE.

AND OF THE AGE AT WHICH THE STUDY THEREOF SHOULD BE COMMENCED.

3

THE Piano-forte is the favorite instrument of modern society, there being no other whose use is so generally spread throughout Europe. It does not owe to the caprice of fashion the popularity which it enjoys, but to solid advantages, whose value has been confirmed by experience. Embracing the whole extent of the *musical ladder*, it is of all instruments the most proper to take the place of the orchestra; and, consequently, to retrace the remembrance and reproduce the effects of dramatic compositions. The organ and the harp, it is true, share with it the advantage of being able to harmonize ten or twelve notes at a time; but the pianoforte is preferable to the one from its facility of giving the most delicate shades of expression, and to the other from its remaining better in tune. It is also better calculated to give due effect to the most complicated modulations.

But, though the merit of the piano-forte is undisputed, authorities are not equally unanimous respecting the time at which the study of that instrument should commence. Parents, under the pretext of waiting for the development of the physical faculties of their children, often lose much time which is precious, and sometimes irreparable. The hand, as it grows stronger, loses its suppleness, unless the development be accompanied and modified by judicious exercise.

The Germans are, in my opinion, chiefly indebted for their acknowledged superiority as instrumentalists, to the excellent method of instruction peculiar to them. Instead of waiting, as in France, till the age of ten or twelve years, they commence their studies at four or five. Thus, the first powers of childhood are usefully applied; the hand becomes flexible, and grows, as it were, in the feeling of the art; and, as genuine musical sentiment developes itself in the mind of the pupil, he finds, in the mechanism of his fingers, a more docile and faithful interpreter of the impulses of his soul. Did I wish to form an *artist*, I should give him, as his first plaything, the instrument he was destined to learn.

Another prejudice, not less fatal, is to believe that an inferior instructor is sufficiently good for a beginner; I know not how to enforce too strongly the necessity of commencing with a first-rate master; for our first impressions are the most indelible, and the habits we acquire in youth are often incorrigible.

ON THE CHOICE OF A PIANO.

The nature of the instrument has more influence on the success of a beginner than may be imagined. The grand piano is preferable to all others, from its construction and quality of tone. If this be unattainable, in the absence of the grand, I should recommend the square piano, whose tones should be rather sweet and soft, than brilliant, and the mechanism of a perfect equality. I do not approve of the upright piano, except as a second instrument, or for accompaniments.

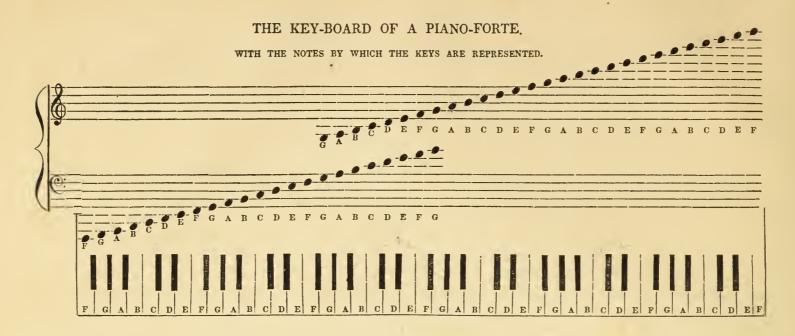
The touch of a piano-forte should be neither too difficult nor too easy; for in the commencement, above all, the defects of the instrument are contagious to a pupil. Another point, not less important, is, never to allow the beginner to make use of a piano that is not perfectly in tune; an inexperienced ear should be accustomed only to the truest sounds.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PIANO-FORTE.

The *piano-forte* owes its name to the facility which it possesses of modifying its tones from soft to loud, and the converse, by imperceptible degrees. For the sake of abbreviation, it is usually called simply the piano. The keys are the anterior extremity of the lever, which the fingers put in motion, in order to produce sound. The key-board is the union of all the keys. The pedals, which are moved by pressure from the feet, are a mechanical means of augmenting or diminishing the intensity of the sound. The modern school has justly discarded the absurd taste which had uselessly complicated the system of pedals. They are now reduced to two-the loud pedal, which, by raising the etouffoirs or dampers, leaves a free vibration to the strings; and the soft pedal or una corda, which, by a slight movement of the key-board, in grand and upright pianos, only allows the hammers to play on one of the two or three strings which compose the unison of each key. In square pianos, the makers have substituted, in the place of the latter, what is termed a buff stop, which is operated upon by a pedal, introducing pieces of cloth or soft leather between the hammers and strings throughout the whole key-board, producing, when struck by the hammer, that sweet tone which has received the name of jeu celeste.

OF THE KEY-BOARD.

The key-board most generally adopted, embraces an extent of six octaves and a half, which commences with the low C and finishes with the high F of the seventh octave. Lately, pianos have been made which extend four notes above, and consequently the key-board embraces seven complete octaves, often neccessary for the execution of modern compositions. As it is easy to acquire a familiarity with the additional keys || the following table, the name and position of each of the keys on a key-board of six octaves.



We see by this table that each series of twelve keys, representing an octave, displays invariably the same situations and the same denominations in the whole extent of the key-board; so that, to distinguish all the octaves, it suffices to be acquainted with one only. This distinction may be rendered striking, even at first sight, by observing that C is always represented by the white key preceding *two black keys*; and F by the white key preceding *three black keys*.

We may also observe by this table that every black key is susceptible of several denominations, according as a sharp or flat may alter the intonation which it represents; and, in like manner, the white keys at the distance of a semitone, E, F, and B, C, may receive the names of F flat, E sharp, C flat, B sharp.

The white keys at the distance of a tone, are equally susceptible of new appellations, when a double alteration takes place; that is to say, when they are raised or lowered two semitones by the *double sharp* or *double flat*. Thus, D represents also C_{\times} or Ebb; G, F_{\times} or Abb; A, G_{\times} or Bbb; and in like manner with the rest. In such cases the denomination only of the notes is altered, the intonation remains the same, these changes being only forms prescribed by certain relations of harmony. They can offer no real difficulty, when we recollect that a scale is composed of twelve semitones, to which an equal number of keys corresponds on the key-board; for, without thinking of the name of the note, it suffices, in performing, to take it one or two keys higher or lower, according to the sharp or flat, single or double, with which it may be marked. But before we speak of execution, let us give the preliminary notions which it requires.

POSITION OF THE BODY AND MOTION

OF THE HANDS.

In order to preserve a convenient and natural attitude in playing the piano, the pupil should have a seat proportioned to his own height and that of the key-board; he should sit upright before the piano, and exactly in the middle, the feet placed opposite the pedals, so as to be able to make use of them with facility, without displacing himself. The height of this seat should be so regulated, that, the back part of the arm falling vertically by the side of the body, the elbow may be a little higher than the keys. The position of that part of the arm below the elbow should be horizontal; the hand rounded; the fingers bent without stiffness, and sufficiently advanced over the white keys, to be able to reach the black keys without difficulty.

When the hands are thus placed, and the fingers are over the keys which represent the following notes,



in order to sound each note in succession, the fingers should, one by one, be raised perpendicularly over the keys to which they belong; which, being struck, care should be taken that the fingers

remain down no longer than the time indicated by the value of the note, in order to avoid confusion of sounds.

Each finger should have a particular and independent motion; that is to say, when one finger rises or falls, the others should take no part in it. By bending the fingers moderately, touching the keys with the nails or the flat part of the finger may be avoided.

The arm should remain in its place as long as the hand does not change its position. When the hands move from right to left, or from left to right, or when they quit the key-board to observe *rests*, the fore part of the arm alone should move; that part between the elbow and the shoulder should remain motionless.

The position of the hands can be changed in two ways; first, by lifting off the hand entirely, in order to transport it from right to left, or from left to right; secondly, by passing the thumb rapidly under the fingers, or the fingers over the thumb. In executing the last of these, care should be taken in the first place, not to disturb the position of the fingers till the thumb is placed; and, in the second place, not to disturb the position of the thumb till, after having passed the fingers over, one of them is placed on the note which it is necessary for it to strike.

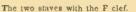
But, before giving examples of these precepts, it will be necessary to treat of the notation peculiar to piano-forte music.

NOTATION OF PIANO-FORTE MUSIC.

As we have before said, music for the piano-forte is written on two staves, joined together by a $\Big \}$. We generally employ the G clef for the higher stave, and the F clef for the lower. Sometimes, however, the same clef is used for both staves, should all the notes of a passage be either in the bass or treble; as, for example, in pieces written for four hands, the higher part is written with two G clefs, and the bass with two F clefs. Sometimes, also, in passages d'ensemble, the two parts are written together on the same stave.

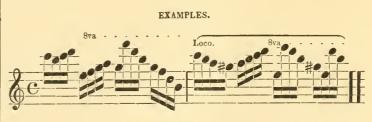
EXAMPLE.







In order to facilitate reading, composers write an octave lower those passages which belong to the highest octave on the piano; placing over them the sign 8^{va} , to show that they are to be performed an octave higher than they are written. The place where this transposition terminates is indicated by the term *loco*, or merely by the end of the chain which is prolonged above the notes.



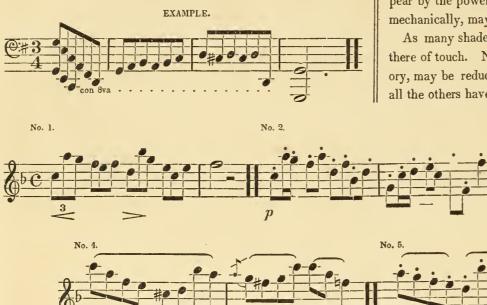
The same rule is observed with regard to the lowest octave of the bass, which is performed an octave lower than it is written.



espressivo.

The indication con S^{v_a} signifies that the octave above should be added, and struck simultaneously as long as the chain continues.





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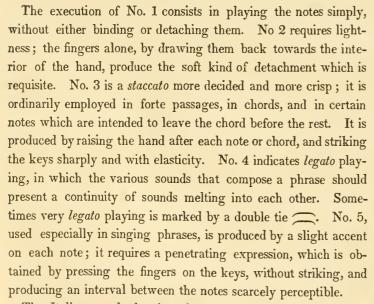
OF THE DIFFERENT MODES OF TOUCH, AND THE

SIGNS WHICH REPRESENT THEM.

It is an error to believe that the mechanism of the piano cannot be applied to every delicacy of expression. It is true that, in most other instruments, the performer exercises a more direct action upon the principle of sound; between the finger and the strings of the violin, between the breath and the tube which it animates, there is nothing intermediate; the soul is, as it were, united to the instrument which serves as its interpreter. The piano, on the contrary, requires, between the fingers and the strings, a key, a lever, a hammer; hence the difficulty of animating this instrument. The talent of the true artist consists in making this interval disappear by the power of touch, so that the sounds, though produced mechanically, may seem to emanate from the soul itself.

As many shades as there are of musical feeling, so many are there of touch. Nevertheless, these different modifications in theory, may be reduced to five principal modifications, from which all the others have birth. They are figured thus:

No. 3.



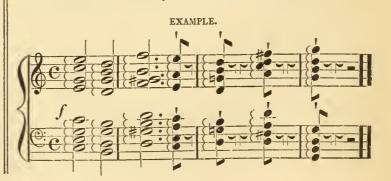
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The Italian words *leggiero*, *legato*, *staccato*, *portamento*, often accompany these different shades of expression, in order to render the execution still more precise.

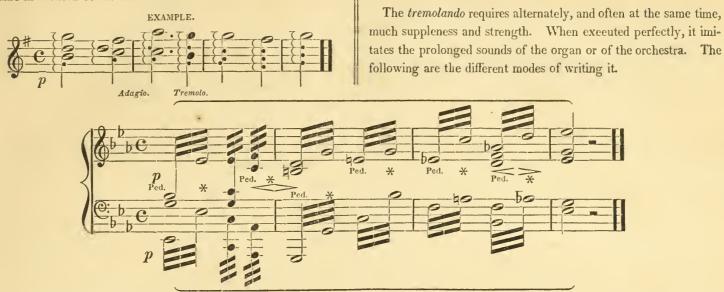
OF DIVIDED OR BROKEN CHORDS.

rallentando.

When the notes which compose a chord are not to be struck together, but successively, from the lowest to the highest, the sign $\{$ is employed; but the notes pass so rapidly that it would be impossible to count them, and the chord acquires solely a sweeter and more prolonged effect. If the chord be *sustained*, each finger should remain on the key which it has just struck, but should leave it immediately if the chord be *staccato*.



The composer indicates by small notes the sounds he wishes to cease in a chord before the others.



In the execution of passages of this kind, the notes are no longer counted, but the greatest number possible are played in a given space. In order to produce the tremolando, the fingers are but very slightly raised, so as to press out the sounds ; and the beginning of the bar is marked by a slight accentuation.

The loud pedal, which should be abandoned at each change of harmony, is of great utility in the execution of the tremolando, the effect of which it augments.

OF FINGERING IN GENERAL.

The perfection of touch depends, in a great measure, upon that of fingering, which assigns to each finger its part to perform in the mechanism of the hand.

Modern music presents, at every step, new and unforeseen passages, the fingering of which cannot be determined by fixed rules. Who, indeed, ean assign limits to the functions of the fingers, and to the innumerable combinations of which they are susceptible ? But, as a great part of the style and taste of the performer depends on his choice of fingering, we cannot refuse to admit, at least in theory, certain fundamental rules, which we shall proceed to explain, and all of which have, for their end, the simplifying and faeilitating of execution.

OF THE TREMOLANDO.

Before entering into such particular details, the pupil who follows our method, should know by heart the fingering of all the scales, in order to apply it to passages which come under their dominion. As soon as these rules are familiar, advantage may be obtained from the following remarks.

We are no longer, under every eircumstance, compelled to avoid placing the thumb or the little finger on the black notes ; we must not, however, abuse the liberty of such fingering, nor employ it without discernment. Certain passages, and those keys which contain many sharps or flats, authorise its usage, as in the following example:



by a portamento, or by a succession of chords, it is better not to || the fingers should be changed on the same note when repeated.

Unless the author prescribes it, or the phrase be characterized || employ the same finger too often. By an extension of this rule,



When the same figure is repeated on different degrees of the key-board, the same fingering is also repeated, in order to obtain a perfect equality of execution.

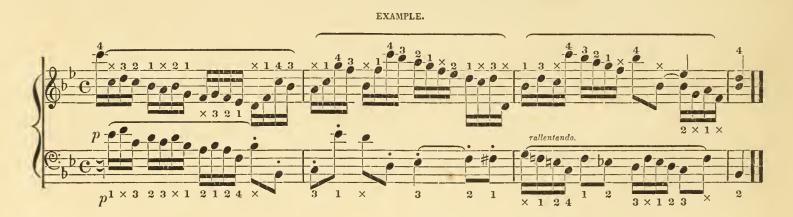


In certain cases where necessity seems to demand it, and particularly in passages containing several parts, the second finger, in ascending, may be passed over the third, and the third over the fourth; and the fourth finger, in descending, may be passed under the third, in like manner with the rest. The inverse of this order serves for the left hand.

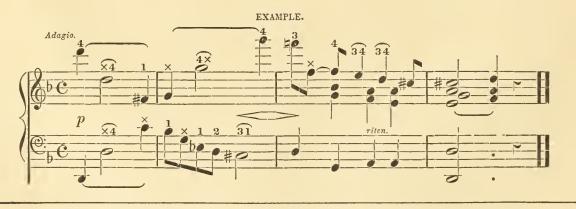


To avoid the too frequent passage of the thumb, or of the other fingers, the *elision*¹ of one or more fingers is employed. By this

means, the hand preserves more tranquillity, and is enabled to execute *extensions* with more facility.

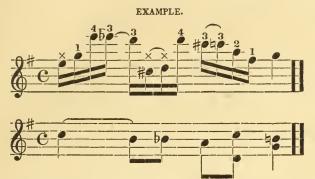


When the notes are at a distance from each other, and the composer requires *legato* playing, the fingering of *substitution* must be resorted to; which, as its name indicates, consists in substituting one finger for another, on the same key, to accomplish the distance with less effort, and to leave no interruption between one note and another.

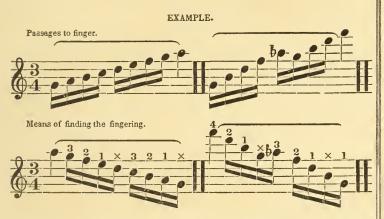


¹ The elision in fingering is the retrenchment of a finger; as in discourse, it is the suppression of a letter.

In certain running passages, to give more continuity to the sounds, the same finger may glide from a black key on to a white key.



In scales which do not extend to the tonic, or which go beyond it—in arpeggios of the common chords, or chords of the seventh, &c.: and, generally speaking, in all passages of difficult fingering —the most efficacious way of facilitating it is to reverse the passage and finger it backwards.



Passages in octaves or in sixths are ordinarily executed with the fhumb and the fourth finger; but, in general, the third is substituted for the fourth on the black keys.

The employment of the thumb and second finger is more favorable for smoothness of execution in passing from a white key to two consecutive black keys.



It is generally believed, though erroneously, that passages in several parts are more difficult to finger than passages of simple notes: there are often three or four different manners of fingering a passage of simple notes; whereas passages in three or four parts have generally but one good style of fingering, which, in most cases, indicates itself. Sometimes, and especially in chords of more than five notes, either the thumb or fourth finger must be put on two notes at once, as in the following example:



To avoid repetition, we shall content ourselves with these summary observations, which may be considered merely as the complement of the rules of fingering developed in the practical part of this method.

ON THE PEDALS.

The most practised touch, joined to the most correct fingering to augment its resources, would not suffice to break the monotony or multiply the effect of the piano: the *pedals* have therefore been added as a powerful means of varying and giving intensity to the tone.

Modern pianos have, as we have already remarked, but two pedals—the *loud pedal* for raising the dampers; and the *soft pedal*, or *una corda*, in grand and upright pianos (the *jeu celeste*¹ in the square pianos of France), for sweet and harmonious effects.

The first should only be used when the phrase or passage does not change its harmony, in cadences, and in passages on the highest notes of the piano, in order to give more sweetness to the chords composed of acute sounds, whose vibration is shorter and more hard in consequence. It is a great error to suppose that this pedal only serves to create a noise. The effect, on the contrary, is charming in *sustained chords*, *arpeggios*, and passages which require sweetness and delicacy.

The una corda or soft pedal is rarely employed alone; but, united with the *loud pedal*, it produces very beautiful effects.

The loud pedal is indicated by its abbreviation ped.

The *soft pedal* is designated by its name; and the words *tre corde* announce that its employment must be suspended, in order to resume the three strings.

The *jeu celeste* supplies the place of this last pedal in square piano-fortes.

The sign * marks the cessation of all pedals.

Until the musical feeling of the pupil is sufficiently developed to allow him to judge of his own effects, he ought to abstain from the use of pedals in all cases where the composer himself has not prescribed it.

¹ The square piano-fortes of English manufacture are without this improvement.

ON THE MODIFICATIONS OF INTENSITY AND TIME

AND THE EXPRESSIONS AND SIGNS WHICH REPRESENT THEM.

Music combines not only the *intonation* and *duration*, but also the *intensity*, of sounds; that is to say, the degree of force with which they act upon the organ of hearing.

To mark the various degrees of intensity of sound, the following expressions are used, which we have arranged in the order of their gradation from soft to loud.

pp. (Pianissimo)	-	-	-	-	very soft.
s. v. (Sotto Voce) -		-	-	-	in an under tone.
p. (Piano) -	-	-	-	-	soft.
m. p. (Mezzo Piano)	-	-	-	-	half soft.
m. v. (Mezza Voce)	-	-	-	-	in a middle tone.
m. f. (Mezzo Forte)	-	-	-	-	half loud.
f. (Forte) -		-	-	-	loud.
ff. (Fortissimo) -	-	-	-	-	very loud.

Sometimes, also, *ppp* is used to express the greatest degree of softness; and *fff* to express the greatest degree of loudness.

A loud sound followed by a soft one is indicated by fp. (forte piano); and the converse by pf. (piano forte). If the forte affects only a single note, it is expressed by sf. (sforzando). The gradual augmentation of the intensity of several sounds is indicated by the sign \longrightarrow ; the converse effect is expressed by >>; the compound sign *composed*, expresses the succession of the two preceding effects. The value of these signs does not extend beyond their prolongation. When the gradual augmentation or diminution of intensity embraces a greater compass, it is better to make use of the following Italian words-crescendo, decrescendo, or diminuendo. The rinforzando is a more abrupt crescendo, owing to the shorter space within which it is contained. If the composer desires only one note to be thus expressed, the sign \wedge is made use of, which indicates, in general, a degree of intensity inferior to the sforzando. If the loud note be followed by a soft one, the same sign is resorted to, placed horizontally >; if the execution of a single note require it to be heavily accented, the sign - is employed; the word tenuto (ten.), used when a note or chord is to be sustained, is represented by the sign \square . We have added these two signs to the system of musical figures in consequence of their utility in the works of modern composers.

Time consists of the degrees of quickness in the execution of

music given to the succession of bars of which the phrase is composed. In our general elements of music, in the chapter on the duration of sounds, we have already treated of this subject; we refer the reader to that chapter for fundamental notions, and confine ourselves here to explaining the *modified expressions* most in use. These are either *diminutive* or *augmentative*; and their effect is confined to the limits assigned them by the composer.

They are as follows, in a progressive order.

DIMINUTIVES.

Morendo,	dying away.	These three expressions indicate				
Smorzando,	extinguishing.	the diminution of both time and				
Perdendosi,) intensity.				
Calando,		dragging.				
Rallentando	or Ritardando,	retarding.				
Ritenuto,		kept back.				
Meno mo	osso (less quick)	, expresses, in a decided manner,				
diminution of quickness in the time.						

AUGMENTATIVES.

Accelerando,accelerating.Stretto,-pressed.Stringendo,pressing.Animato,--animated.Più mosso (quicker) expresses, in a decided manner, augmentation of celerity in the time.---

The words *molto*, *assai*, added to any expression whatever, augment its current value. For more ample details, the reader may refer to the end of this Method, where he will find a list of the Italian words employed in music.

OF THE MANNER OF STUDYING.

Perseverance and a love of his art are, for a young artist, indispensable requisites of success. Without these, talent, and even genius, condemned to remain stationary, will languish in pitiable mediocrity. It is often thought, that perseverance and a love of art will alone suffice for the attainment of perfection; but nothing can be more delusive than this belief. Patience and continued labor will never lead to superiority, unless enlightened by a sound judgment and directed by a rational method. The main object is to pursue from the outset a system of practice founded upon rational principles, and to adhere to it rigidly, so that the student may not at a future period be compelled to retrace his steps, and thus lose the time which would otherwise be devoted to his rapid advancement. For this reason the utmost vigilance should be exercised with the youthful student. But the pupil will never make any real progress till he is induced to make spontaneous efforts, instead of requiring, as at first, special directions. The formation of the character should also be attended to in due season, so as to inspire in him a sentiment of duty, and, above all, a taste for the art which he is learning. If he be imbued with a love for music, rigor on the part of parents and masters is superfluous; and if not, it is unavailing.

If, without being imperative, I might venture to advise young piano-forte players upon the employment of their time, I would say that, supposing four hours are daily set apart for practice (and this will be sufficient), they may be allotted somewhat after the following manner:—

- First Hour.—Exercises with the Dactylion; scales and passages contained in my Method.
- Second Hour.—Improvement in the execution of the piece sclected for study.
- Third and Fourth.—The repetition of pieces already learned, and the commencement of new

Whatever may be the amount of time at the disposal of the pupil, he would do well to regulate its employment nearly according to the above scheme, which ought, however, to be modified according to age, or the state of advancement. To avoid fatigue, a suitable interval should be allowed between the hours of study.

On commencing the study of a piece, the earliest steps are invariably mechanical. In the first place, the pupil must find out the best method of fingering the difficult passages, and after having practised these parts with each hand separately, he may attempt the performance of the whole, playing slowly, that he may observe all the proportions of the measure.

The mental study succeeds the mechanical. Before he acquits himself of his task, the pupil must think and feel; the fingers can merely be considered as the medium by which our thoughts and feelings are communicated to those who listen. Now, we are only enabled to elevate our moral and intellectual powers to a level with the lofty productions of genius by means of reflection, which brings us within its influence, and even renders us partakers of its inspiration. Reflection enables us to discern the peculiar character of each composition, and the different forms under which the composer repeats the subjects, by varying the accessory ideas with which they are combined; and lastly, reflection teaches us to distinguish the accessories from the melody, which forms the groundwork, and which ought to stand out from the accompanying chords and combinations, as, in a well-conceived picture, the principal feature is clearly discerned amidst the tints and shadows which enfold its outlines.

After a careful study of the general character and peculiarities of a composition, which will render its performance casicr and more correct, the time may be gradually accelerated till the proper degree of rapidity is attained.

When the pupil has mastered a piece, he would do well to lay it aside for a few days, and then resume it in a more composed state of mind. By pursuing this course he will be able to form a due estimate of his own performance, and to penetrate more into the intentions of the composer. Many of the nicer shades which he may have overlooked in his earlier practice, will not escape him on this second trial.

Instead of coinciding with some who have preceded me in forbidding my pupils to learn pieces by heart, I, on the contrary, advise them by no means to omit doing so, as soon as they are able. For why should they be incapable of becoming useful and agreeable in society, without burdening themselves with a cumbersome load of music? There is, moreover, an advantage in performing a piece by heart, inasmuch as a wider scope is given to the imagination. The performer, released from the care of reading and turning over the leaves, yields himself wholly to the emotions which he experiences and wishes to communicate. In order, however, to ascertain that the pupil does not play mechanically, the master should occasionally make him note down from memory a passage taken at random, or even the whole piece, with all its shades of expression.

As the best method of creating a love for music, and of inspiring emulation, I recommend that pupils should play together, either with four hands on one piano-forte, or with two pianofortes, or ducts, trios, and quartetts with other instruments. They may even be accompanied by a full orchestra. By this means their minds become enlarged, they learn to appreciate the effects of masses of harmony, and they become better prepared to perform the compositions of the great masters who have made use of similar effects in their larger works.

By way of agreeably diversifying the ordinary routine, the pupil would do well to hear the most eminent singers and performers, and to endeavor to initate on the piano-forte the particular style by which each is characterized. I know nothing more pleasing than such imitations, more calculated to develope musical tact, and to impart to talent the flexibility, grace, and freedom which stamp the true artist.

.

OF EXPRESSION.

THERE are in music, as in all other arts, fleeting shades of expression which possess a sway over the heart, but escape analysis. The mind can comprehend, but cannot define them; and musical language, like all others, is unable to represent them by signs. A knowledge of theory, however profound, is inadequate to produce sensibility, without which it is impossible to become an artist.

But the performer, in delivering himself up to his emotions, should be careful to concentrate them; it is a sad disappointment to be rendered ridiculous by the very means which we employ to excite interest. Affectation of gesture and physiognomy, all convulsive movements, and looks of pretended inspiration, should be studiously avoided. A pianist should never resemble a pantomimist. While young, he should contract the habit of severe study, in which the flight of the moment should never exclude the laws of rhythm or regularity of execution. Thus, instead of destroying, by extravagant enthusiasm, the classical proportions and the grandeur of the work he wishes to execute, he will study to preserve, without alteration, the true coloring of each passage.

Rhythm and intensity are the two pivots on which all the powers of execution turn. The art of the composer consists in combining them together, in varying and shading them according to the relations determined by the particular character of his subject. The performer, in his turn, should endeavor to comprehend these relations, in order to identify himself, by reflection and feeling, with the composer himself.

After these general considerations, we think it may not be useless to enter into some technical details on musical phrase, and on the different kinds of expression of which it is susceptible.

A *Phrase* is a succession of sounds or chords which present a musical meaning more or less complete, and of which the end is preceded by a cadence more or less sensible.

Musical as well as common language has a punctuation, represented by the different varieties of *Rests*, which, in reading at sight, it is necessary scrupulously to observe. Each phrase has its peculiar expression, which should be comprehended, in order to arrive at the proper character of the composition, if we wish to preserve, in our progress, the variety, richness, and originality of the work.

But as this expression is capable of infinite modification, and has no bounds but those of task and genius, it would be absurd to attempt reducing it to absolute theory. It is impossible to apply rules to it, except in some few cases where the appreciation is generally agreed upon; this may be applied generally to intensity and to singing phrases. Scale-passages or arpeggios should be executed *crescendo* when ascending, *diminuendo* when descending. The same principle should be observed in every succession of sounds, though containing only two or three notes; for, with some rare exceptions, there are no really equal sounds in music. The *forte* and *piano* are to music what light and shadow are to painting — the source of contrast and effect. In virtue of this rule, a good singer will diversify the same sound by successive augmentation and diminution, when its duration is sufficiently long to admit of this effect.

Under this point of view, there is a proportion which the pianist must seize between strength of touch and duration of sound; for the vibration of chords is prolonged more or less according to the direct impulses they have received. The force should be moderate in acute sounds, and considerable in ascending passages marked crescendo; passages which ascend as far as the seventh octave should be rather soft than loud; and, above all, a hard touch should be avoided when a single note in this octave is to be struck. A correct ear will of itself obviate difficulties of this description. A more difficult point, and one which demands great experience and an exquisite delicacy in the performer, consists in an immediate perception of the most important part in the melody or harmony, in order that it may be rendered perfectly distinct from the rest of the piece. Perhaps it is a still greater difficulty to be able to diversify the sounds of the piano at will, and to change, so to speak, their natural tone by giving them a character appropriate to every kind of expression. This merit, confined to artists of the first rank, requires an equal degree of energy and agility in the fingers, a facility in the execution of difficulties, and, above all, a refined feeling for musical coloring.

As regards rhythm, the accented parts, and especially the first note of a phrase or passage, should always be sufficiently marked. Complicated passages, abounding in modulations and difficulties, should never be played too quick; it does not suffice to have attained by practice the ability to execute them easily; the hearer must be allowed time to comprehend them. Instead of entering into minute details on this subject, we will cite a great name in support of our position. Hummel, whose rapidity of execution was always regulated by judicious moderation, was, beyond all his contemporaries, the pianist who most completely captivated the attention and interest of a public audience.

Too uniform and exact an equality of time is likely to produce monotony. A particular singing phrase may require more slowness of execution than the brilliant passage which follows it; sometimes even the double character of the accompaniment and melody demands from each hand a different rhythmical effect. Thus, while the right hand is wandering and lost in wild variations, the left, supporting itself against time, follows with heavy steps and syncopated notes. In this case, as in all those where the expression is complex, not only is a perfect independence of the hands required, but, if we may use the expression, a different mind must animate each of them. Thus, Dussek frequently cast a melancholy tint over certain periods by allowing the right hand to play in a vague and mysterious manner, while the left vigorously sustained a well-marked theme. This style, which was formerly so much admired, is now fallen into disuse.

We shall terminate these observations by a brief definition of the character of the principal movements, and the accent peculiar to each of them. By the aid of a slight modification, the shade of difference in each intermediate movement may be easily seized. In the *allegro*, expressive of joy, agitation, and all violent passions,—strength, warmth, and impetuosity, alternately prevail. The *allegretto*, the type of grace and gaiety, demands a light and delicate touch. The *andante*, less quick, but more tender, describes the softer affections and melancholy, and requires a more marked accentuation, and a deeper coloring. The *adagio* responds to the gravest thought, the most elevated sentiments, the most profound emotions; a slow and solemn pace, sounds full and connected together, animated by a noble and sustained expression, are the characteristics of this sublime style in music.

ON THE CHOICE OF PIECES FOR STUDY, AND THE PRECAUTIONS TO BE TAKEN IN ORDER TO PLAY EFFECTIVELY IN PUBLIC.

Ir frequently happens that pianists of real merit, whose powers of execution have been developed by long and severe study, are not sufficiently appreciated in public, owing to an injudicious selection of music in which to make their debut, or from having omitted certain precautions independent of real talent. Considered under this point of view, the choice of music appears of sufficient importance to claim a chapter of itself.

This selection may be regarded under three heads :—1st, as regards the performer himself; 2nd, as regards his audience; 3rd, as regards the room in which his performance takes place.

With regard to the performer, the piece should be in harmony with his physical and moral faculties. A pianist, remarkable for brilliancy and equality of touch, for strength and agility of fingers, will triumph over the greatest mechanical difficulties with equal boldness and success; whilst, perhaps, he may fail in passages characterized by the *sostenuto* of an expressive melody.

Another pianist, less sensible to the effects of complicated harmony than to those of simple and pure melody, will excel in *legato* playing, and may, perhaps, want precision or lightness in bravura passages.

It may easily be conceived that the same pieces cannot equally suit performers whose talents are of so opposite a kind. The former will choose brilliant fantasias, light and rapid variations, works adorned with *fioritures*, and written in quick time; so that the suppleness and facility of his fingering may shine with all their lustre, without injuring the character of the piece. Thus, the Variations on the March in *Alexander*, by Moscheles; *Le Petit Tambour*, and the *Op.* 14, by Czerny; the *Fantasia on Airs* in the Pirata, by Kalkbrenner; the Fantasia on Airs in the Barber of Seville, by Pixis; the Rondo Brilliant in B minor, by J. Herz; and the Fantasias on the Romance in Joseph, Ma Fanchette est charmante, La Famille Suisse, Le Siège de Corinth, and Weber's Last Waltz, by Henri Herz; will give him free scope for displaying all the grace and brilliancy of his execution. The latter individual, on the contrary, would give a preference to pieces of a severe, touching, and more passionate character, in which he may display, in the most favorable light, the sensibility, warmth, and tact of his style. Thus the Concerto in C minor of Beethoven; his celebrated Trios and Sonatas for Pianoforte and Violin; the Concerto in A minor of Hummel; his Sonata for two Performers; the Concerto in C sharp minor of Ries: the Nonetta of Spohr; Weber's Concert-Stück; the Quintet of J. Herz; the Invocation, Plus Ultra, Farewell, Elegy on the death of Prince Ferdinand of Prussia, Consolation, Three Sonatas, Op. 35, ditto, Op. 9, and Concerto in G minor, of Dussek; the Morceaux d'Ensemble of Onslow and Bertini; the Concertos of Moscheles and Chopin; the Fantasias on Euryanthe, the Ländler Viennois, the Comte Ory, and the third Concerto, of Henri Herz; are the works in which his sympathy will be more called forth ; they are, consequently, better adapted to his powers of execution.

For the same reason, pieces characterized by energetic expression, strongly-marked rhythm, and a great degree of intensity, like the Concerto in B minor of Hummel; the celebrated Septet by the same; the Fantasias of Thalberg and Listz; the second Trio of Mayseder; the Polonaise in E; La Fête Pastorale, and Souvenirs des Voyages, of Henri Herz; will suit a performer who has more vigor than delicacy of touch, and whose indefatigable fingers can sustain, without tiring, long-continued difficulties. Pieces written in a soft, light, graceful style, and distinguished by a moderate degree of intensity, should be preferred by a pianist whose delicate and finished touch would not suit the preceding works, while it would admirably express the slightest and most ephemeral shades of feeling. This last species of composition is particularly adapted to female pianists.

A first-rate artist, whose powers are fully matured, can alone display excellence in the most opposite styles; yet any young planists of good musical organization, whose powers have been carefully developed, may attempt, without distinction, works in which all the above-mentioned characters and effects are combined. The Second and Third Concerto of Field; the First Trio of Mayseder; the Trio in E of Hummel; Non più andrai of Ries; the Dame Blanche of J. Herz; Norma, and Russian Airs, of Thalberg; the Recollections of Ireland, of Moscheles; The Dream of Kalkbrenner; and the First Concerto; Rondo Brilliant, Op. 11; Fantasias on Otello, Guillaume Tell, L'Ambassadrice, Crociata, Philtre, Norma, Zampa, Figurante, Domino Noir, and all the pieces in the same style by Henri Herz. These compositions, considered in themselves, are the most likely to please generally, as they offer the greatest variety and contrast; but, for this very reason, their correct execution requires the most complete and finished powers.

The choice of music, as regards the audience, is worthy of not less serious consideration: thus, a learned composition of Mozart, Beethoven, Weber or Hummel, executed before a numerous and mixed audience, would by no means make the same impression, or engage the same sympathy, as if it were performed before a conclave of artists and connoisseurs. There exists a vast distinction between those who study music professionally and those to whom it is but a momentary amusement; therefore, in all cases, the choice of music should, as much as possible, be adapted to the tastes of the audience.

The rule is, consequently, always to perform in public such music as an audience can comprehend and appreciate. Hence it must be allowed, that the tact which enables us to discover the peculiar taste of the musical public with whom we are connected, is a quality both valuable and necessary to every artist.

Public concerts generally comprise an audience more or less mixed; and, for this reason, such music only should be executed as may be comprehended by all present.

TO YOUNG PIANISTS WHO COMPOSE AND IMPROVISE.

BOFORE concluding these observations, the author may perhaps be permitted to address a few severe, but useful, remarks to the young pianist who is desirous of becoming a composer and impromptu performer, not on the theory of composition and improvisation, which of themselves are matter for a considerable volume, but merely on the reserve and circumspection he should impose upon his efforts.

The infatuation of parents and teachers, too impatient to see the unknown merits of their children and pupils brought into public view, often causes the latter to commit indiscretions which compromise their prospects and future fame, merely from an injudicious want of forethought. The age of youth is the age of illusion; and how often have the hopes of a young artist been followed by the most cruel disappointment!

Instead of advising them to watch diligently over themselves, and warning them against the seductions of self-estimation, by applying the precepts which Boileau recommends to the poets—

"Be to thyself the critic most severe"

their ill-advised friends surround them at their debut with an atmosphere of praise and adulation which intoxicates them, and enervates their budding genius, by inspiring them with vanity at a time when their attention should be directed to the hardest and severest studies, which alone can nourish and rear up their talents.

--nonumque prematur in annum.

For no sooner has it left the author's hands, and launched forth into the sea of publicity, than its faults, with his name, in ominous characters, are placed before the public; and it is well to bear in mind, that the success of many subsequent chef-d'œuvres will hardly obliterate the unfavorable impressions produced by the errors of a first composition.

It suffices not, to have instinctively and with the aid of fortuitous inspiration, imagined some happy idea, some melodious phrase; you must first ascertain that this is not a reminiscence from some author of celebrity; for I have often been shown, by young composers, certain melodies which they seriously conceived to be their own, which doubtless they had previously heard, and to which their hearts naturally responded, like the echo in the woods.

But, granting that the young student has really imagined a

phrase, it is not enough to have accidentally conceived a good and original motive; it is necessary to know how to treat it, how to develope it in all the variations of which it may be capable, and to combine the different forms under which it may appear, so happily, that each part of the work shall afford a fresh relief to that which precedes or follows it, and thus present to the ear the liveliest contrasts sufficiently blended to produce a wellproportioned and consistent whole. Without these conditions, we should produce an imperfect sketch—not a work of art.

With respect to fantasias and variations on well-known themes, it is not enough to imitate, in the variations, the style of any celebrated composer; originality is even more indispensable in works of this character, since the theme is not our own. In fact, the composer in such cases can rarely succeed in appropriating to himself the air of his adoption, but by means of variety in the harmonic resources, fecundity of invention in the passage and developement of the subject, and in new combinations and striking rhythmical effects.

When the work is finished, and before it is committed to the public, the young composer should allow the first moment of enthusiasm to pass away; let him put his work aside, and forget it, if possible, for several months. If, at the expiration of that time, with the alterations that reflection may suggest, and under the sanction of a judicious friend, he shall find it worthy of the public and of himself, let him publish without hesitation a work whose merits have resisted the double examination of time and reason.

What I have already said to young composers of the necessity of profound study, and of possessing originality, is still more applicable to those who wish to improvise in a drawing-room, or venture to do so before the public. But, in addition to a thorough command of all the resources of harmony, they should have acquired such a perfection of execution as to enable them to modulate in all the various keys with ease, and to play the most fantastic passages with boldness and precision.

In improvising, as in composition, the young artist will take a higher or lower flight, according to his inventions; yet reason must guide his flights, and he must compress within due limits that independence which is the characteristic of genius, and which permits him to venture without fear of failure.

Whatever may be the idea of the glory attached to improvisation when this glory is without alloy and free from charlatanism, the author would still advise his pupils to refrain from engaging in it, except in private, or before such intimate friends as shall have previously consented to pardon the imperfections attendant on instantaneous and unpremeditated performance. As to improvisation in public, to those who look upon it in a high point of view, and comprehend the conditions it imposes, it is the most dangerous ordeal to which a pianist can expose himself, provided he abandons himself entirely to the sway of his imagination.

If we are aware of our real interest, we should not think of elevating ourselves to so high a standard; for many ambitious though talented pianists have, by one hazardous effort, descended below mediocrity. Even Hummel, the first and unrivalled improvisatore of the present day, has sometimes failed to sustain his usual degree of excellence.

Lastly, as regards the room in which a performance is to take place,—according as it may be more or less spacious and favorable to sound, the instrument employed should have more or less power of tone, and the pianist should infuse a greater or less degree of energy into his execution. In a confined room, a piano-forte of too great power, and a touch too vigorous, will injure the effect and fatigue the ear; while, on the other hand, a piano-forte too soft and mellow, and a touch too weak and timid, cannot fill a space of any extent.

These considerations lead us to conclude, first, that those pieces which are best suited to a large room are such as possess a strongly-marked rhythm, and whose execution requires in general great brilliancy; secondly, that such as are of moderate intensity, and in which the composer has been more lavish in the delicacy of effect, the softness and sweetness of expression, will be better appreciated, and will be consequently better adapted to a room of small dimensions.

The author, in visiting different countries, has been enabled to observe the physical causes, advantages, or imperfections in the most esteemed concert-rooms in Europe, and has conceived in consequence the idea of founding in Paris a musical building, which is much wanted in that metropolis. This idea he has just realized, in constructing, under his own directions, a concertroom, so admirable in its form and proportions that its superiority over all others for sound, and its desirable situation in the *Chaussée d'Antin*, has made it the rendezvous of all the most celebrated artists. In order to render this establishment of greater utility to the public, the author, in conjunction with his brother, Mr. Jacques Herz, has opened a school expressly for the piano-forte, the design of which is to propagate their method of instruction, and to form a centre of emulation to promote the interest of the art.

PRACTICAL PART*

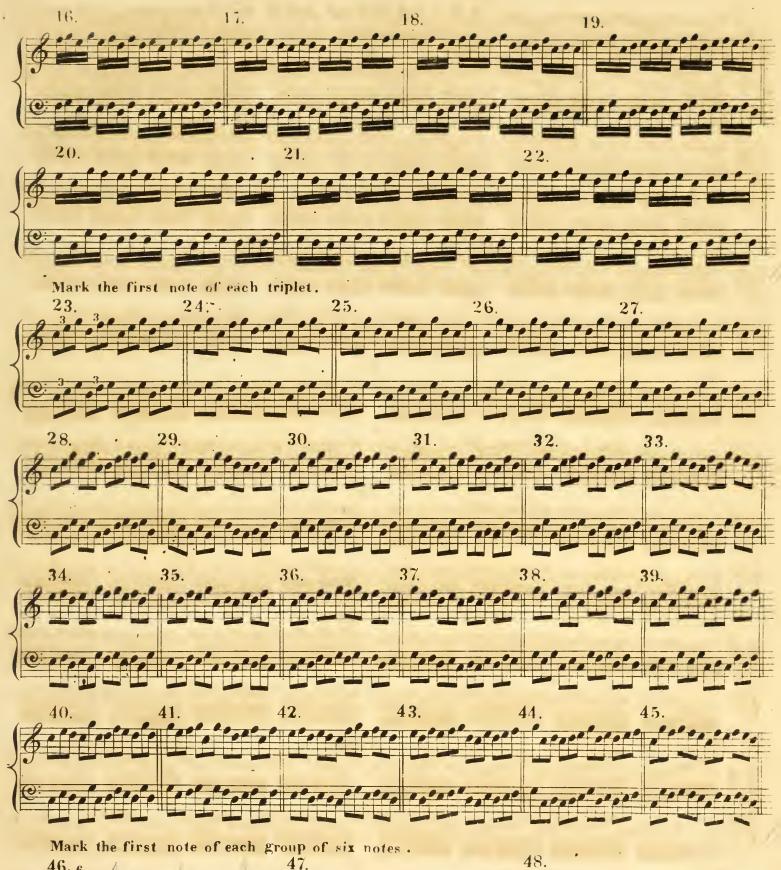
EXERCISES FOR THE FIVE FINGERS, WITHOUT CHANGING THE POSITION OF THE HAND To be practised with the assistance of the DACTYLION.

The exercises for five fingers, are intended to form the mechanism of the hand by accustoming it to execute with ease the different combinations of the five notes.

The DACTYLION is of immense advantage in studying these exercises, which, as they serve as a basis to all the others, are indispensable to the progress of the pupil.



*To avoid interrupting the gradual progress of these exercises, I leave to Professors the care of relieving this monotony by interspersing them at different times with some agreeable study, selected either from the 12 favorite airs, or the Six Recreations which are to be found in this work, or from among the 48 Lessons or the Mosaique Musicale which compose the first and second part of this method. The 18 concluding Studies are a concise selection of the chief difficulties in Piano-Forte Music, the selections of these should depend on the progress of the Pupil.

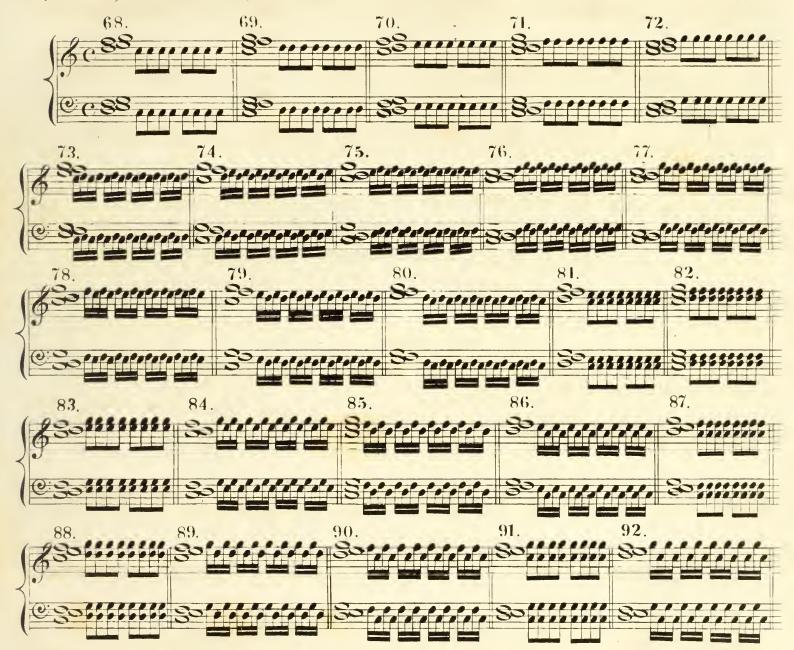






EXERCISES for rendering the fingers independent of each other.

The fingers which rest on the sustained notes should be rounded, that is to say, drawn into the form of a curve; while the others should strike sharply those notes to which they correspond by their situation on the key-board.



EXERCISES for acquiring a facility in running over the key-board without passing the thumb; and for accustoming the fingers to the distances of Seconds, Thirds, Fourths, and Fifths.

The action of the fingers should be entirely independent of the hand and arm, which in no case admit of other movement than that of tremulation from one part of the Piano to another. Each Exercise is to be practised to the extent of two or three octaves.

















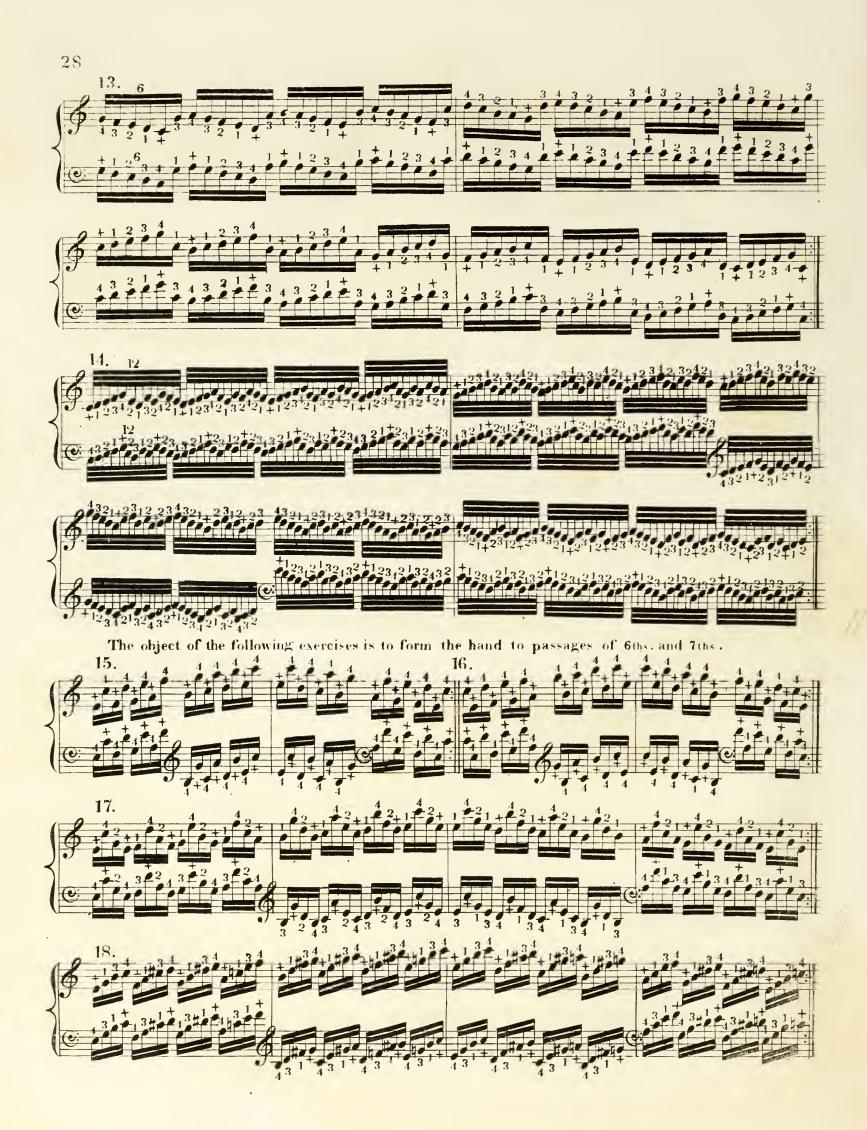




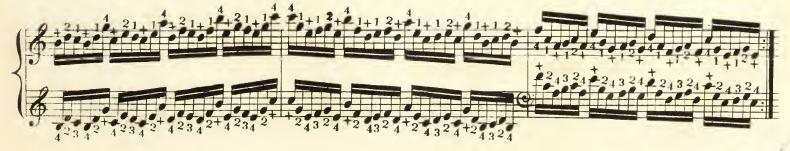








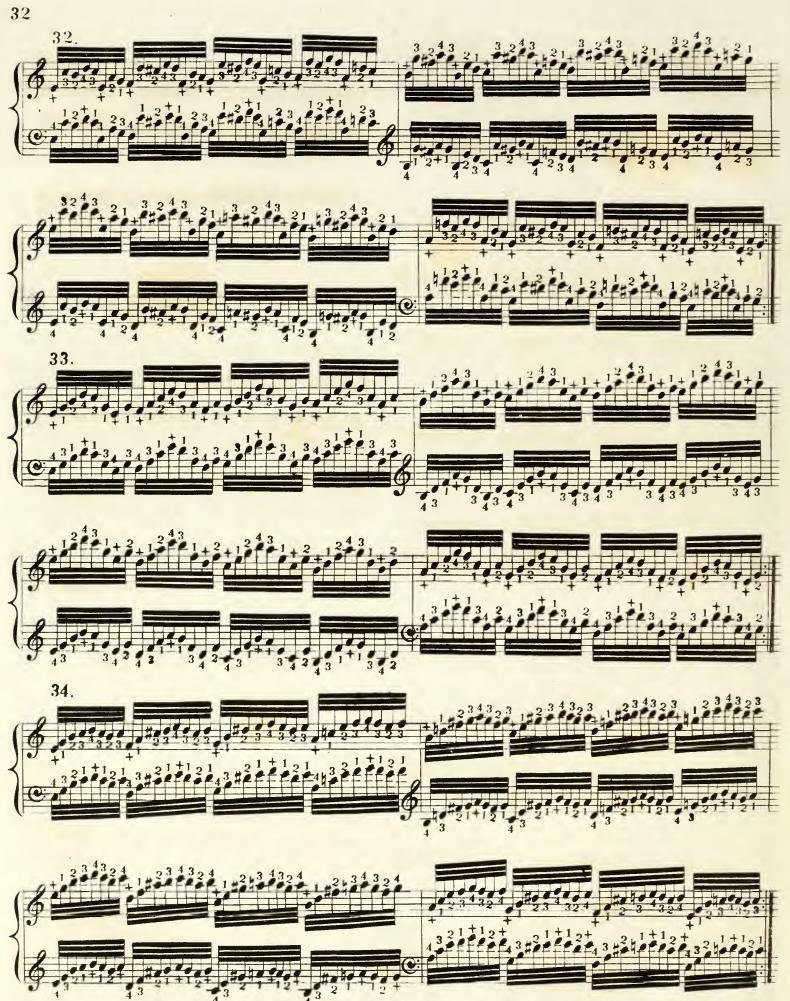


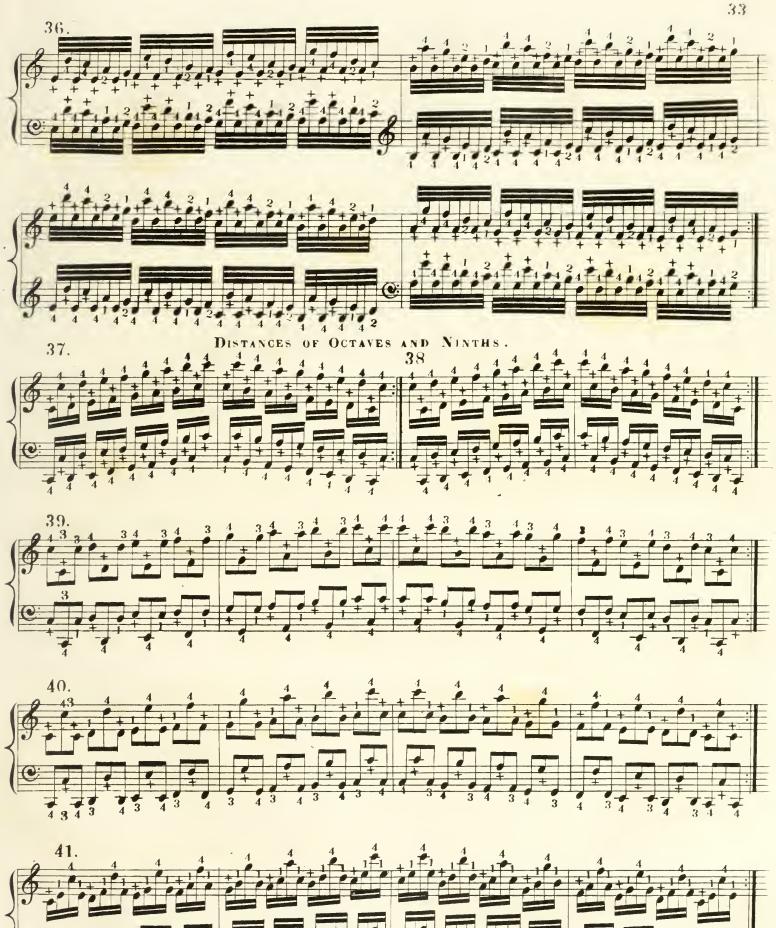


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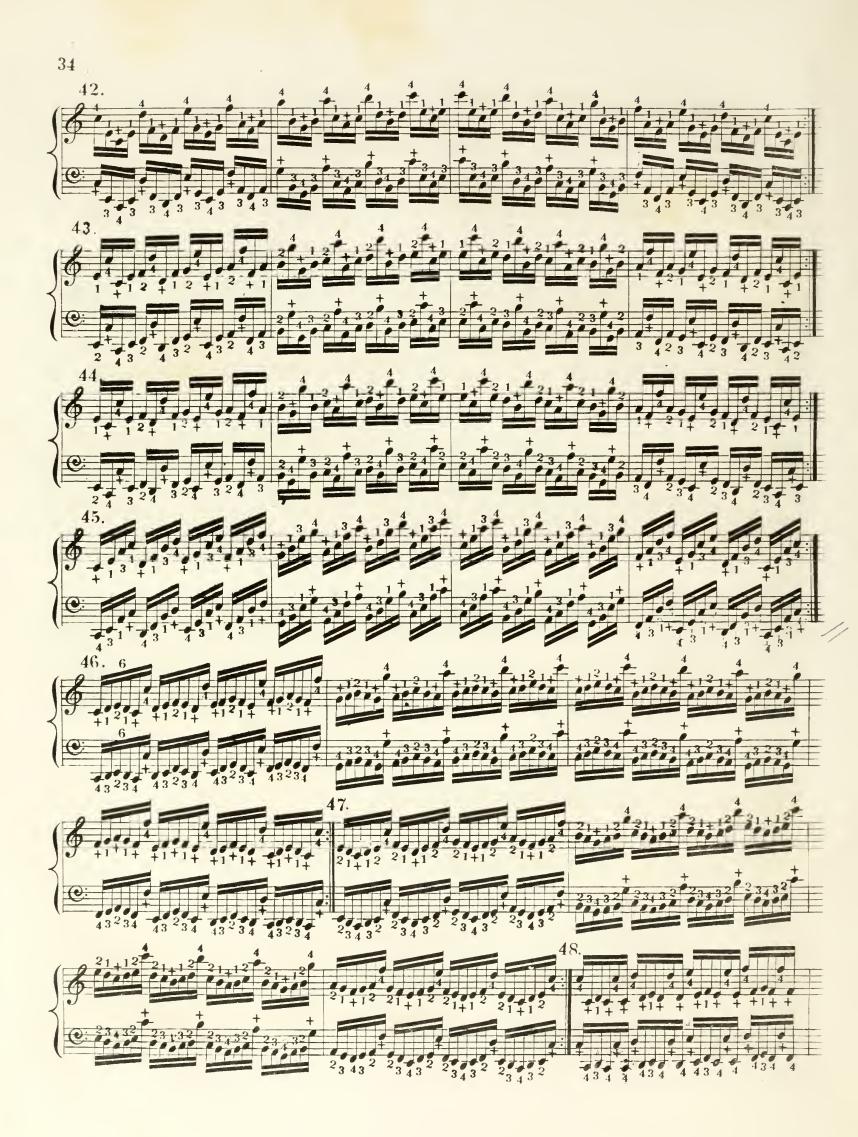


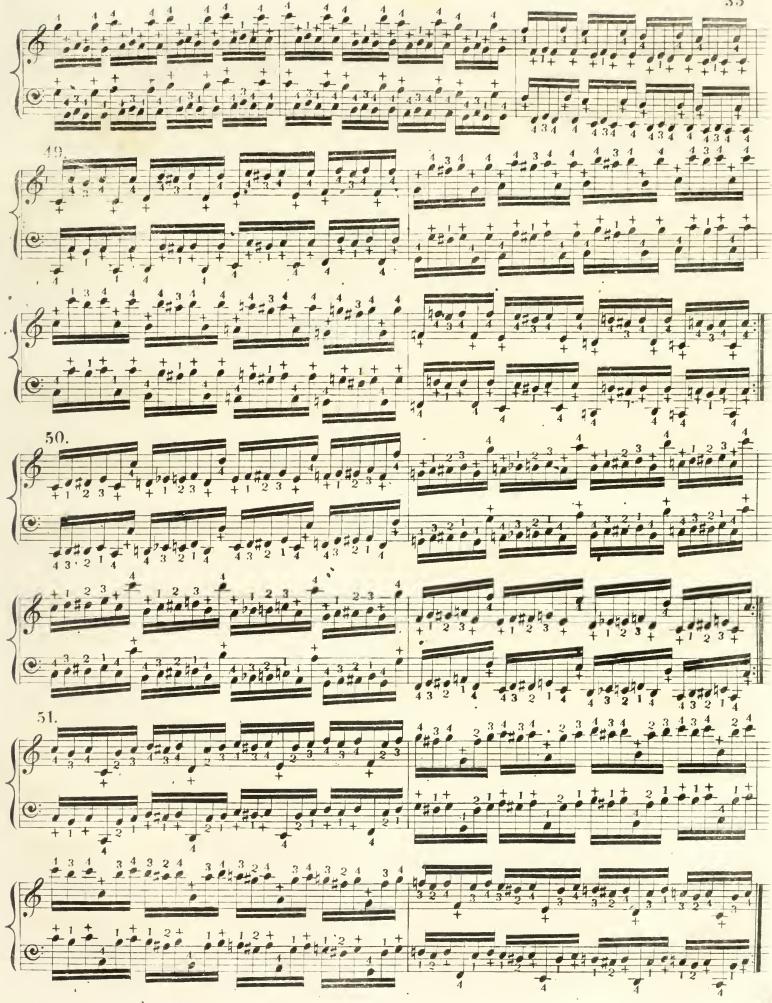






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OF SCALES IN GENERAL.

When, by the preceding exercises the pupil has acquired a sufficient degree of equality in the mechanism of the fingers, he may commence the study of the scales which is one of the most useful for the development of the hand. The most difficult point consists in passing the thumb under the fingers, and the fingers over the the thumb, without the least inequality resulting in the execution. The most certain way of arriving at this, is to prepare for it by numerous exercises such as the following.



Having attained the easy execution of the preceding exercises in all the keys, others may be practised of the following kind, in order to acquire great lightness of touch.



It is only after these preparations that it will be advisable to commence the practise of the scales, to which it is necessary to devote at least an hour daily, repeating them in succession, a great number of times, and varying them in all the keys after the model we have given in the Scale of C Major.

There is hut one correct way of fingering the Scales: the following rules once fixed in the memory will serve for general application.

In every ascending Scale commencing on a white key, the fingering of the right hand begins with the thumb, which returns after the second finger, except in the Scale of B_2 , where the fourth note is a black key (E_2) which in this Scale does not admit of the thumb.

 2^{ndly} For the left hand, the same Scales commence with the 4 \oplus finger, and after the 5th note the 2^{nd} finger passes over the thumb, except in the Scale of B[†], where the 5th note is a black key (F[‡]) which in this Scale does not admit of the thumb.

31dly In all flat Scales the thumb of the right hand is used on the notes C and F.

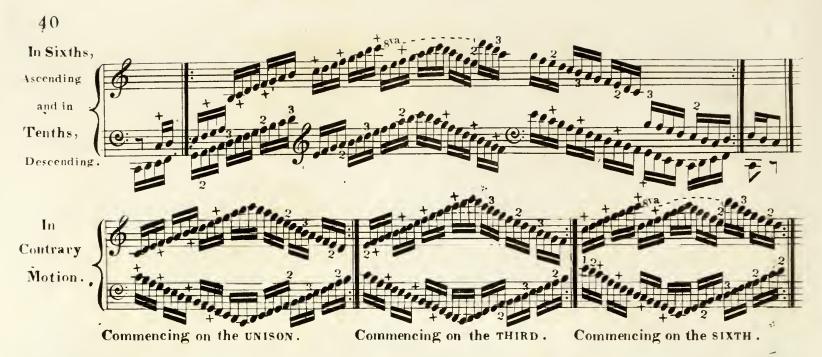
4thly Every mode of fingering for either hand, is common both to ascending and descending scales.

SCALES IN EVERY KEY MAJOR AND MINOR.

Here the pupil should begin to join equality of execution to the different shades of intensity, by playing the ascending Scales CRESCENDO, and the descending Scales DIMINUENDO.



The Scale of C Major is generally considered the easiest, in consequence of its having neither Sharps nor Flats. In order, to abolish this erroneous notion, we need only observe 1^{st} that in this Scale, the longest fingers are obliged to be rounded sufficiently to be on a line with the others, and consequently, that equality of execution is thereby rendered more difficult; 2^{dly} that in this same Scale, the thumb being enabled to touch every key, the best method of fingering is more difficult to determine than in those keys where the black notes almost invariably indicate the passage of the thumb; 3^{dly} in those keys characterised by black notes, the thumb being then elevated and more under the dominion of the $1^{st} 2^{dt}$ and 3^{dt} fingers the fingering is consequently more easy.



The minor scale, as it is written in the the theoretical part of this method, is the form the most regular and the most generally used. The following

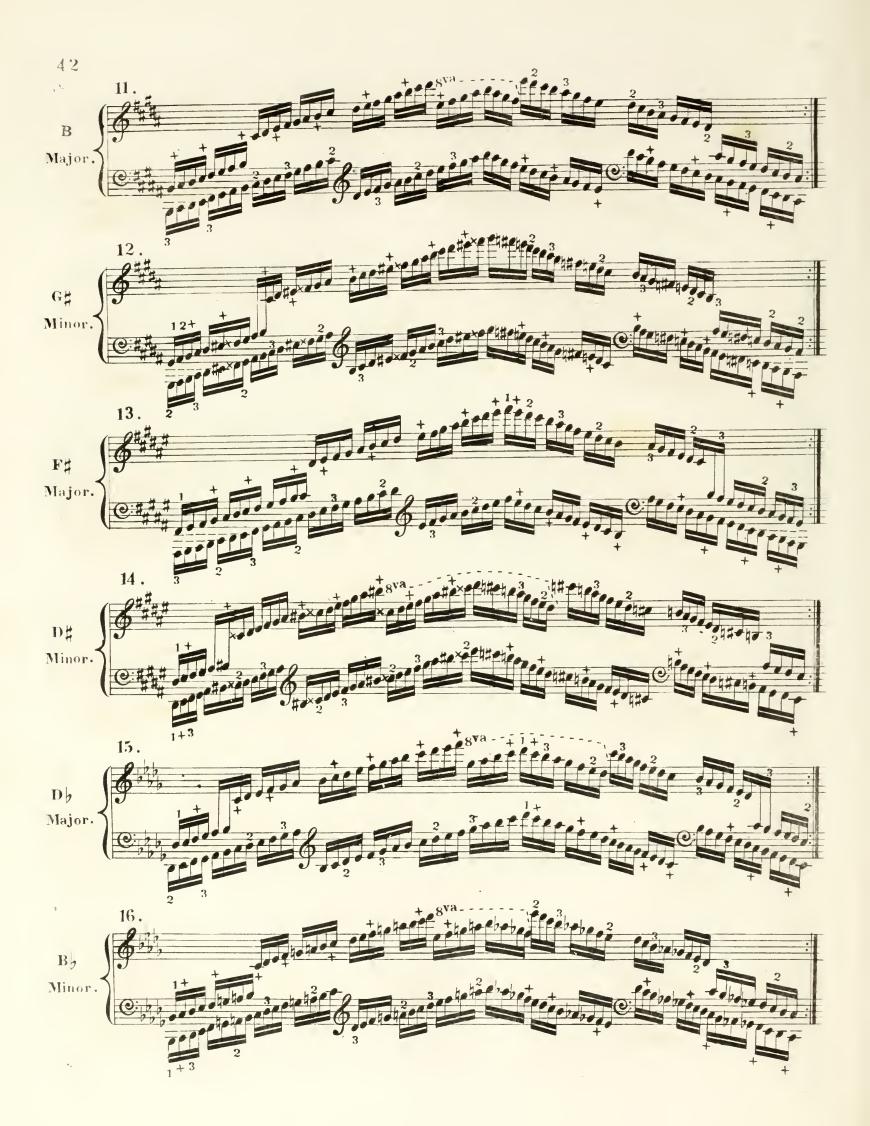


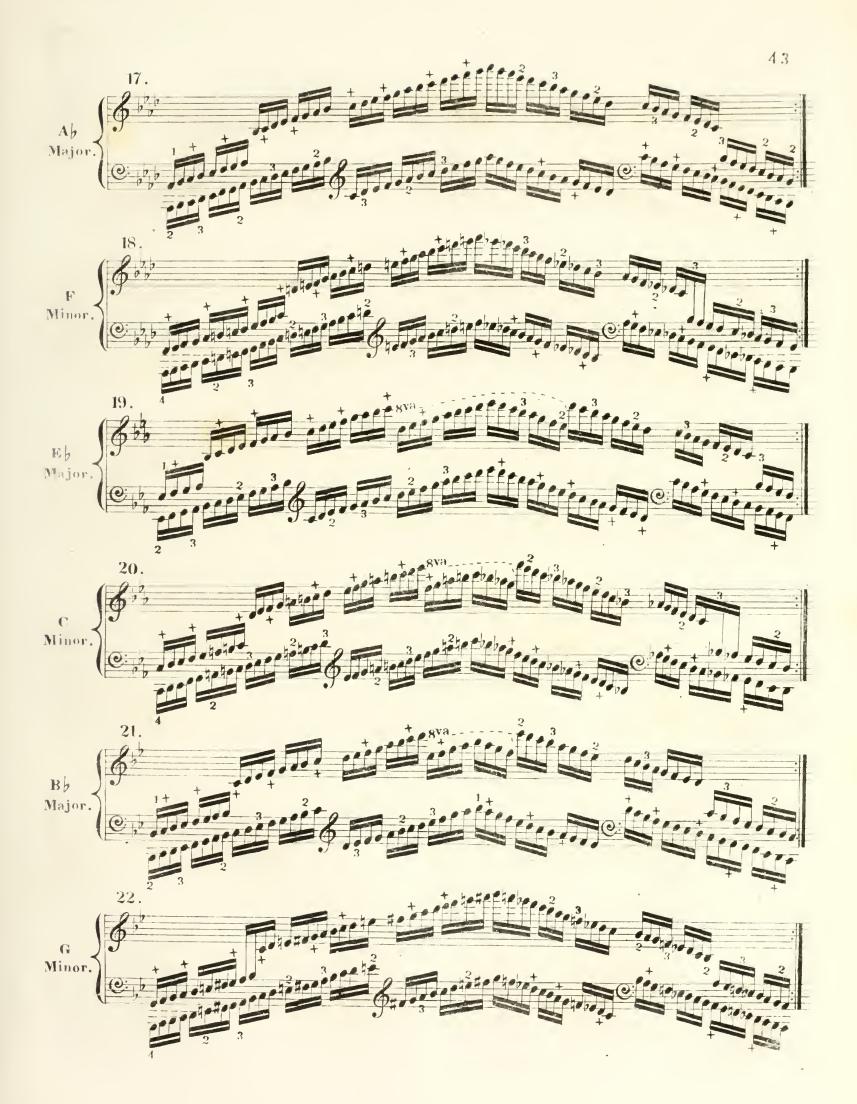
and others similar, although recommended by some professors, can only be regarded as exceptions. When composers make use of them, it is only to recall and render susceptible for a moment the minor key, by some characteristic notes, without touching the tonic.

The minor scales executed in contrary motion would produce false relations of harmony, the student should therefore confine himself to practising them in octaves, thirds, and sixths, similar direction.





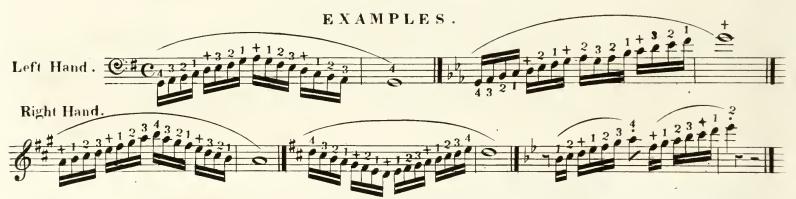






When the scales commence and finish on the tonic, the fingering is fixed as has just been shown in the regular scales; but, when they commence or finish on other notes, the fingering should be so contrived that the 4th.finger of the right hand shall be on the highest note, and the thumb on the lowest. With the left hand, the converse of this may be applied.

We must nevertheless exclude from this rule, the black notes, which are fingered according to the regular fingering of the scales to which they belong.



Sometimes to render the execution of a passage more equal, the following mode of fingering may be made use of with advantage.



When the composer requires a very light and delicate execution Pianissimo, in the Scale of C Major, the performer is at liberty to make use of only three fingers.



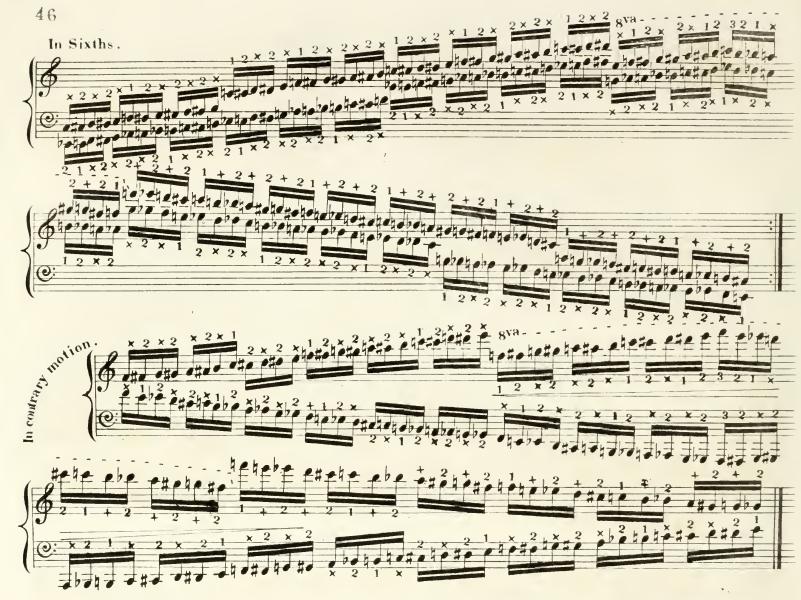
CHROMATIC SCALES.

Though pianists are almost all agreed as to the fingering of the chromatic scales, adopting the second finger for the black notes, there are nevertheless numerous exceptions this rule.



In default of the precise indication of the composer, it remains with the performer to distinguish which of these different fingerings should be prefered to the others; but the best and generally adopted mode is that in which the second finger is placed on the black notes; the following exercises are therefore particularly recommended.

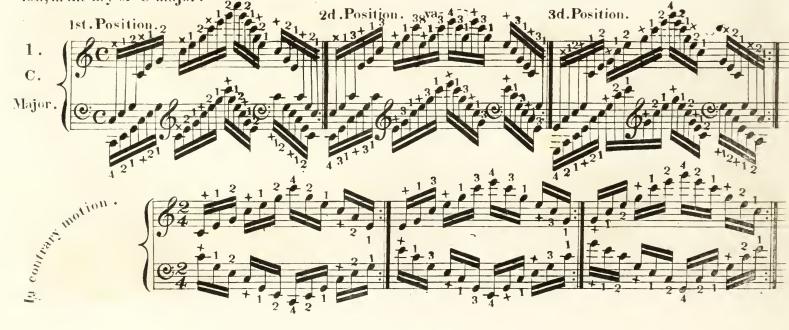


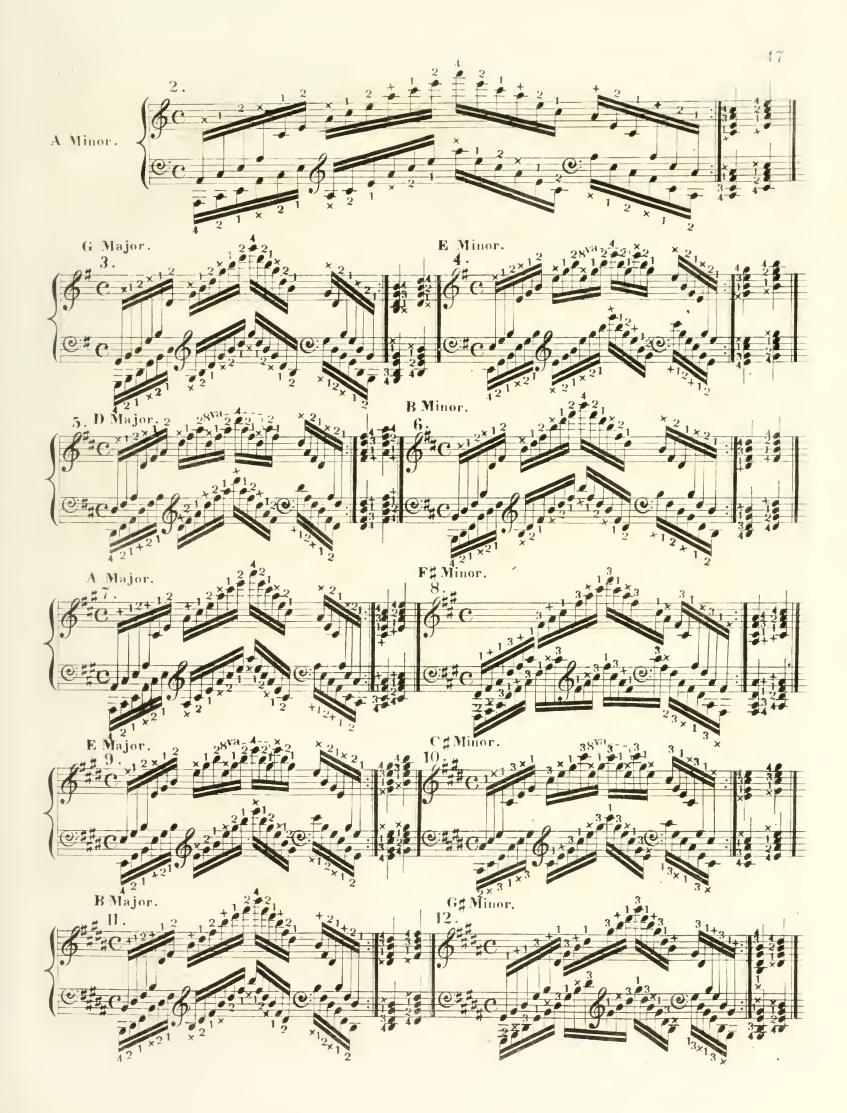


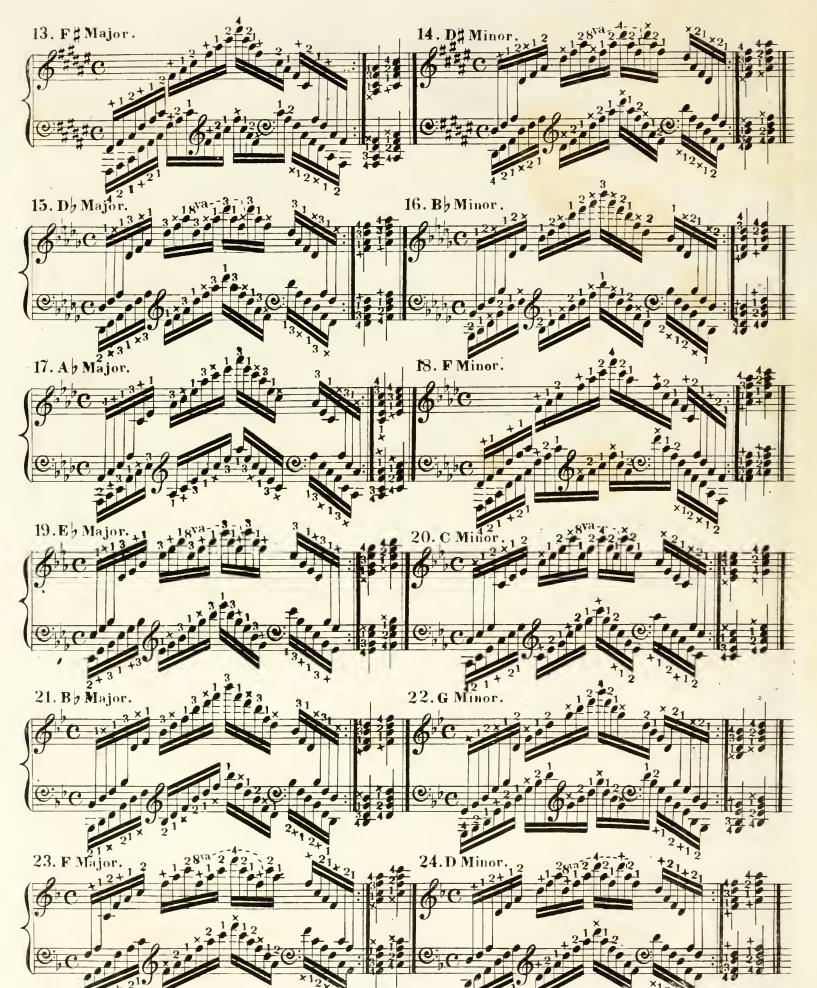
EXERCISES of Apreggios in perfect Chords, and in Chords of the Seventh .

The pupil should persevere in the following exercises, not only to familiarise himself with a description of passages which he will meet with at every step in modern music, but also to accustom his fingers to distances of thirds and fourths in all the major and minor keys. He will at the same time be able to observe the fingering of perfect chords in their three positions.

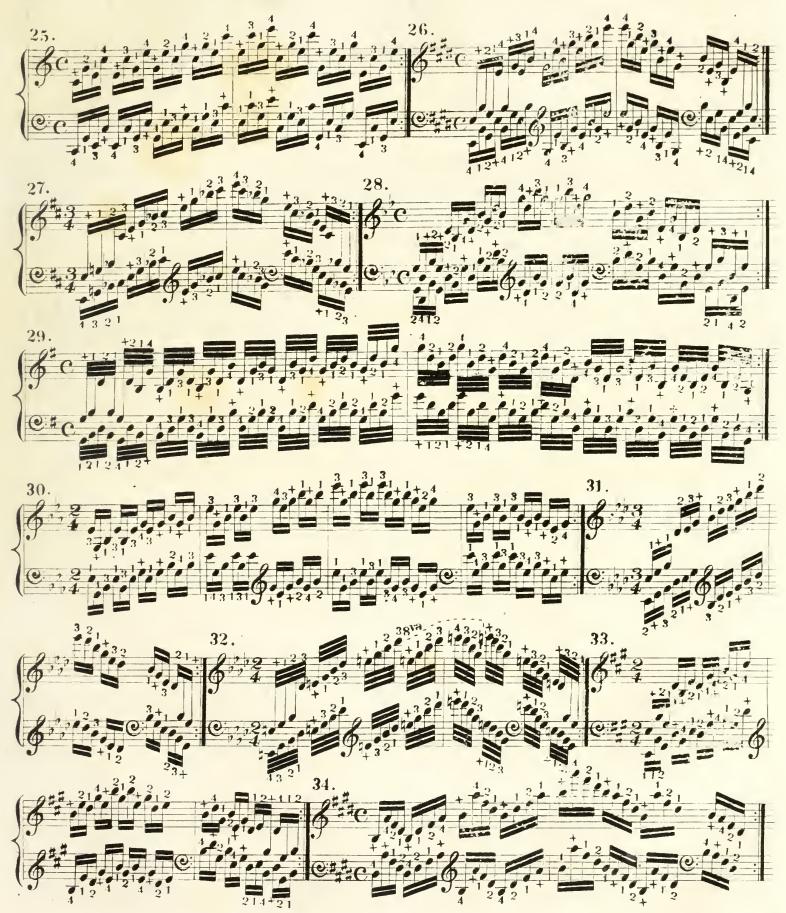
The pupil should play each exercise several times over, and vary it according to all the forms indicated below, in the key of C major. 242

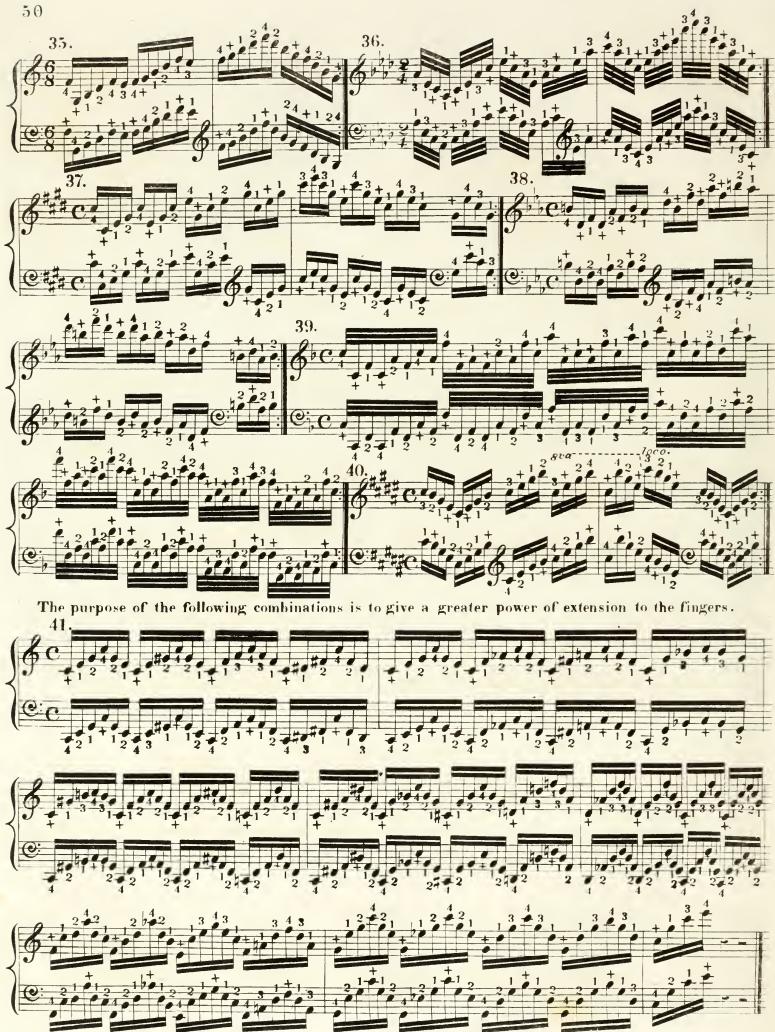






As the fingering of the following exercises varies but little in the different keys, a few only are given, through which means it will be easy to determine by analogy, the fingering of all passages of the same kind in whatever key.





NOTES OF REPETITION. PERFORMED, BY CHANGING THE FINGERS ON THE SAME KEY.

This description of passage belongs to the modern school. Moscheles and the Author were its first propagators; and since it was welcomed with the kind approval of the public in the author's variations on the motive MA "FANCHETTE EST CHARMANTE," its adoption has been carried far beyond his original intention; the spirit for novelty, and the mania which induce many artists to aim at producing effect, even at the expense of good taste, have caused it to be inconsiderably lavished in a variety of compositions where its application is certainly injudicions.

The real merit of this mode of execution consists in producing an illusion as to the nature of the instrument, by concealing the effect of the hammers, the rapidity of succession gives to the sounds the effect of a prolonged note.

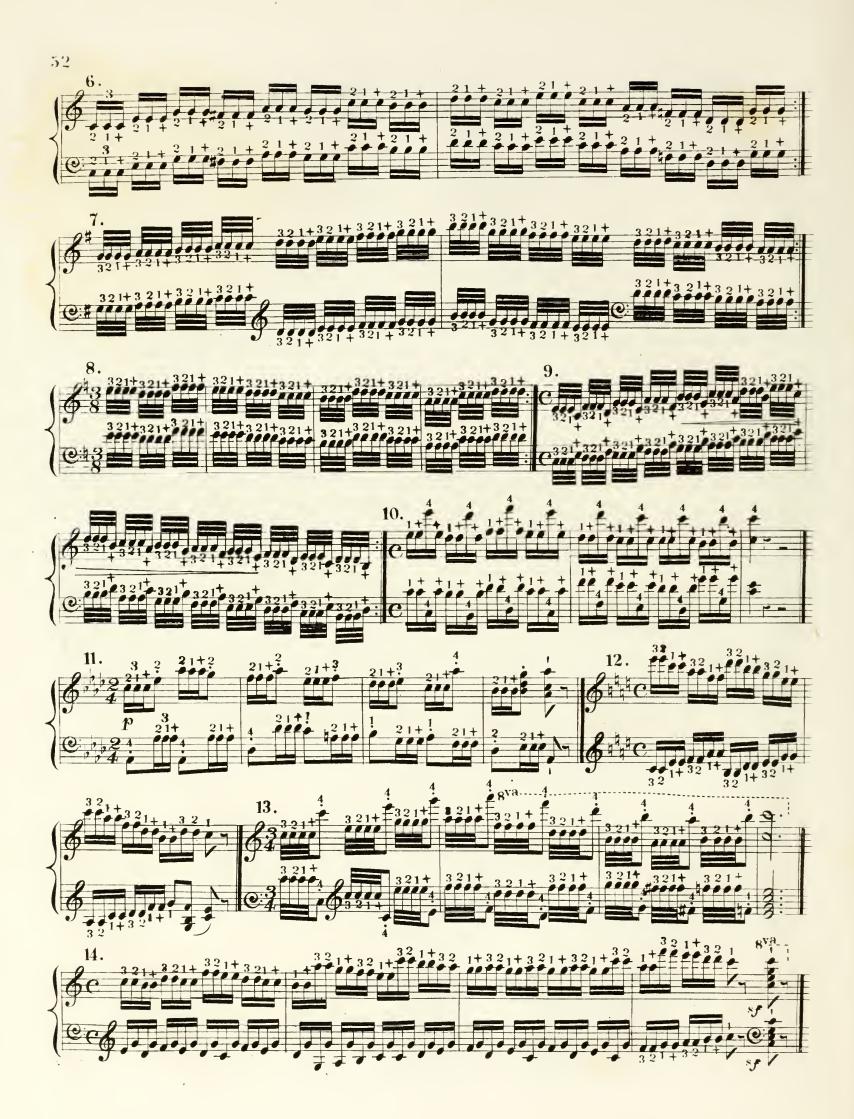
To acquire facility in producing this effect in passages of great celerity, the fingers must be drawn in towards the inner part of the hand, by an alternating motion of such rapidity that the ear can neither count nor seperate the sounds. But if the time be slower and the notes Staccato, the fingers should be raised perpendicularly from the keys, and the notes clearly defined.



The pupil will do well to practise the following exercises, in both ways here laid down.







This easy mode of attaining the greatest degree of rapidity and equality in execution, without the difficulties of fingering, appears for that very reason to savour of charlatanism; on which account the great masters rarely employ it.

Without indulging in its frequent practice it is as well to become acquainted with it, in order to make use of it when required. Sliding scales can only be performed on white notes. To execute them with ease, the fingers must be placed firmly on the first notes of the passage, supported only by the nail; and the hand must then be drawn without effort towards the upper or lower part of the piano, according to the order of the notes. To accomplish this with greater facility and grace, the arm should be bronght close to the body and the hand inclined slightly away from it, in ascending scales; in descending scales, the arm should be held apart from the body, and the hand directed towards it. For the same passages with the left hand, invert the above described position.

The fingers which remain inactive should be raised above the keys, without stiffening or drawing them back towards the inner part of the hand.



⁵⁴ In scales of sixths and octaves, the thunb of the right hand, ascending, and that of the left, descending, should rest obliquely on the keys; the fourth finger of the right hand, descending, and that of the left, ascending, should rest firmly on the part opposite to the nail.



Sliding scales in general can only be perfectly executed on piano-fortes of a light touch, and whose keys present rounded angles to the fingers. The pianos of Vienna, some years ago, were the only instruments favorable to this style of execution; but lately those of France and America have advanced rapidly towards perfection, and have acquired all the modern improvements. The more difficult touch of English pianos is unfavourable to the display of passages of this nature.

EXERCISES IN SEVERAL PARTS.

Exercises of double notes constitute one of the most efficacious means of perfecting the mechanism of the hand. The pupil should therefore bestow on them sufficient care and time to arrive at their correct execution; that is to say, to produce an equality, and an entire ensemble in combined sounds. — This result will be obtained much more promtlyand satisfactorily by practising the first twenty exercises with the assistance of the Dactyliou.





Each of the following exercises should be extended over three or four octaves .



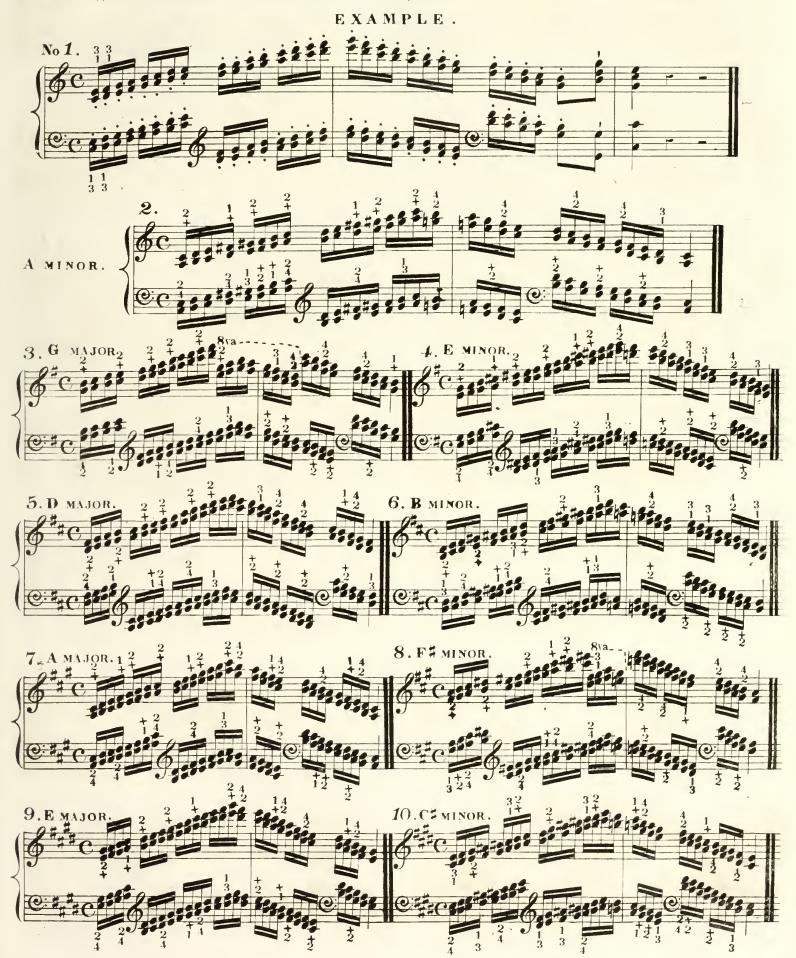


SCALES IN THIRDS IN ALL THE KEYS MAJOR AND MINOR. --

Although scales in thirds are rarely met with in keys possessing more than four accidentals, yet it is as well to practise them in every key, varying them according to the different forms indicated below, in the scale of C. It must however be remembered that in minor keys they can only be used in octaves, for the reason already given in the article on scales in single notes.



Scales in thirds written in keys wherein few black notes occur, are sometimes performed with the same fingers throughout, when the passage is marked Staccato.

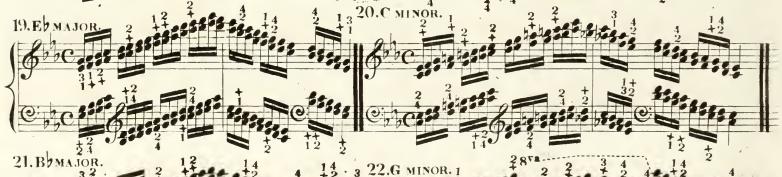


58 11. B MAJOR. 32 3 4 12.6# MINOR.2 0:2



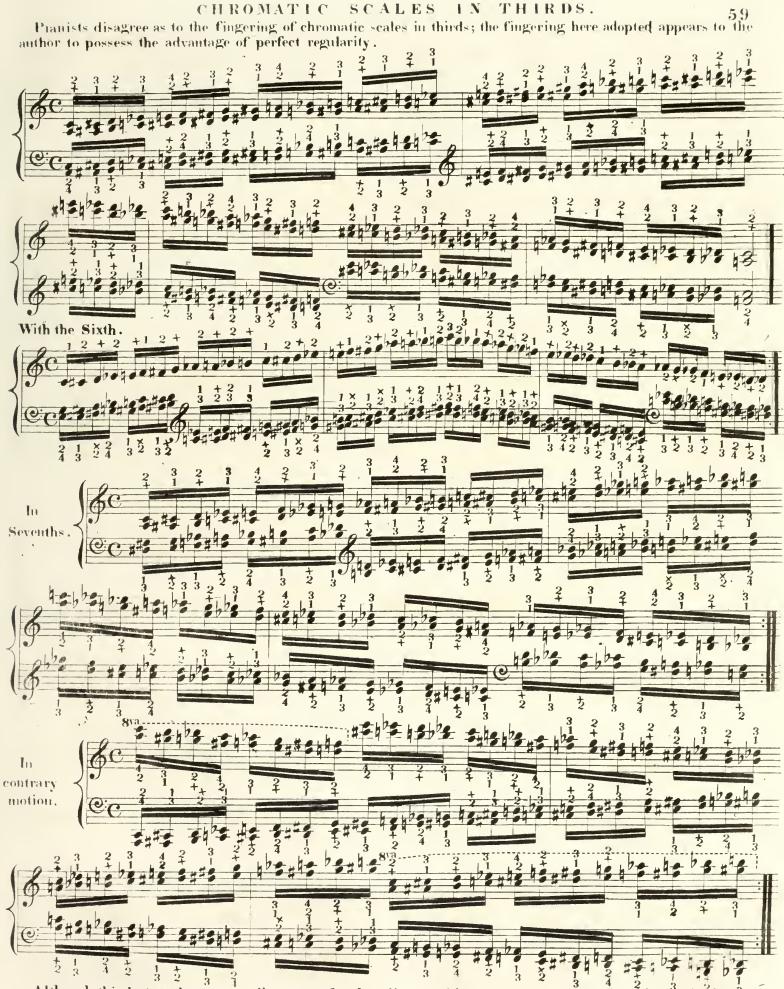








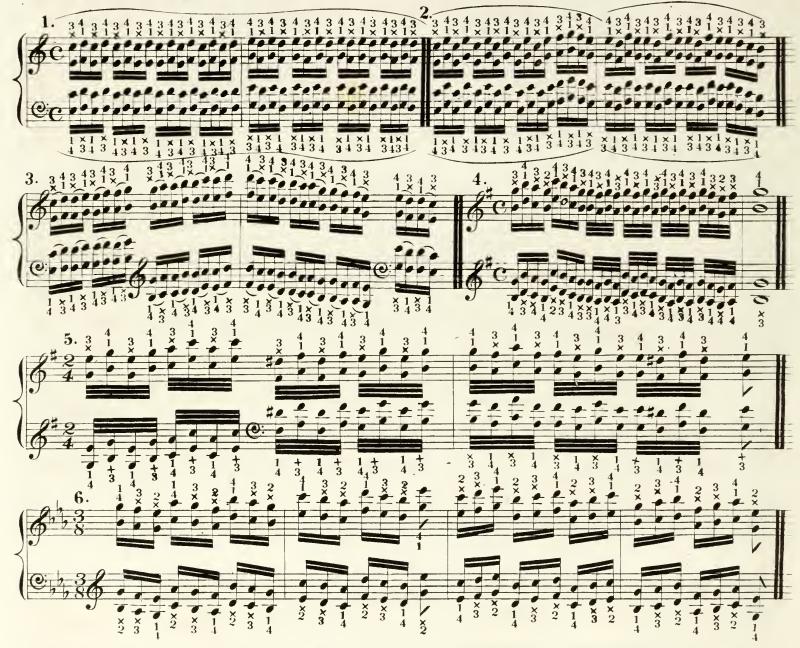




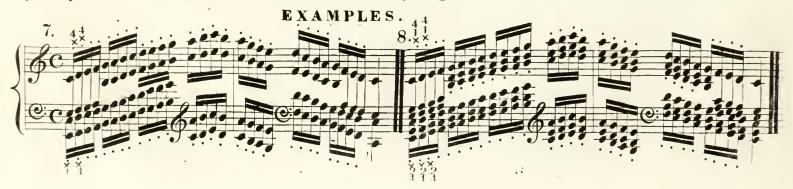
Although this last scale presents dissonage of rather disagreeable a nature, especially when played slowly, ³ yet its practice should not be neglected.

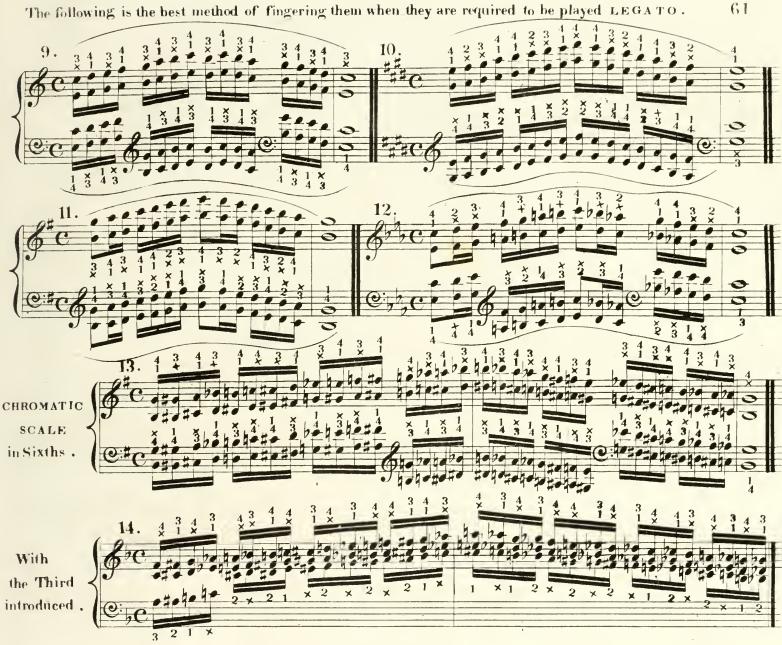
EXERCISES IN SIXTHS!.

Exercises in sixths possess the double advantage of giving suppleness to the fingers and extension to the hand: their frequent practice will be consequently very beneficial. A few only are given, and it is left to the pupil to transpose them into other keys, and invent new ones himself. When detached, sixths depend for execution on the wrist, and require a light touch; when smooth, they require a more tranquil movement of the hand. It will be as well to practise assidiously the following passages, both ways, in order to arrive at a facility of rendering them STAC-CATO or LEGATO at will.



Scales of sixths written in keys wherein few black notes occur, are often executed throughout with the same fingers; especially when the intermediate third is added, or when the passage is marked STACCATO.

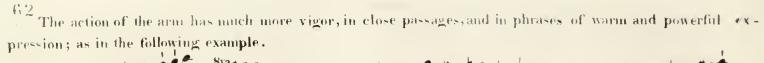




OF OCTAVES.

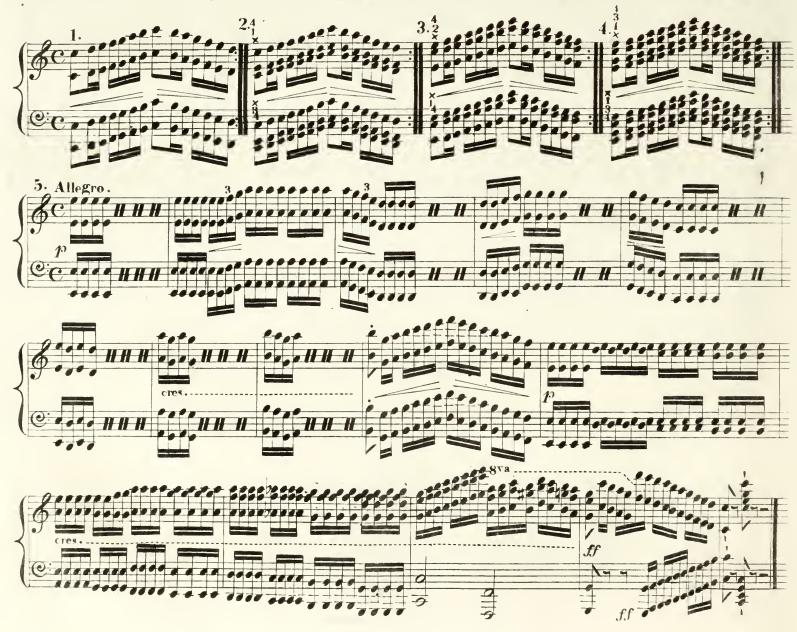
Many performers pretend that a succession of octaves can only be well executed by means of the wrist .Allowing this to be the best mode in certain cases, it would be nevertheless absurd to hold it up as an absolute principle. In the opinion of the author, it would be very wrong to reject the method adopted in Germany, which admits the action of the arm in a great number of passages of this kind. The examples of Hummel, Moscheles, and Thalberg, besides other eminent pianists support this opinion; and it is beyond a doubt, that if the action of the wrist be preferable in skipping passages, and in such as demand lightness of execution, as the following.

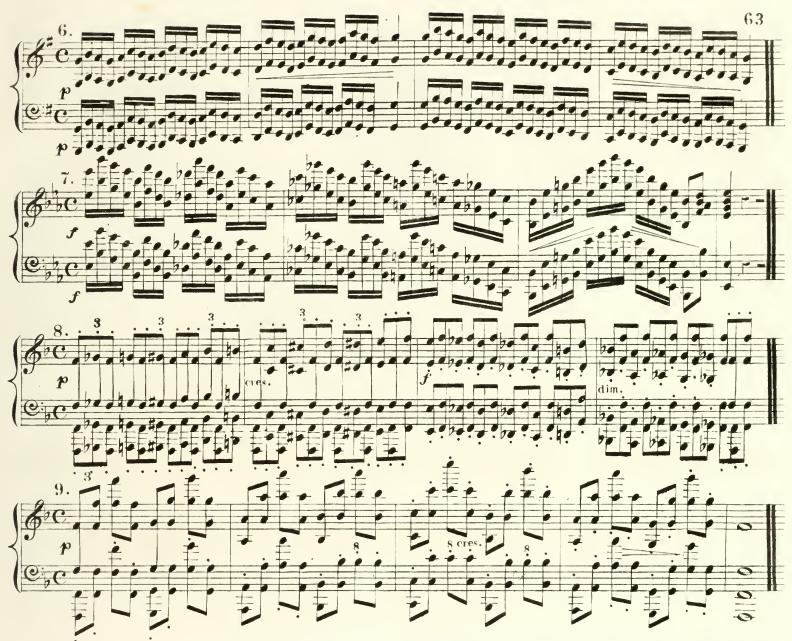






The author is therefore inclined to think that the pianist should possess equally, both modes of execution. To arrive at this, it will suffice for him to practise, in both ways, the following and such like exercises; the diatonic and chromatic scales in octaves, thirds, and sixths; and the same by contrary motion. &c. &c. Judgment and experience will teach him to employ each style when necessary. But in the FORTISSIMO he must be careful, that by striking too forcibly he does not give hardness to the sounds without increasing their force; for there is a limit beyond which the powers of the instrument once passed, no longer answer to the efforts of the performer. It is by pressure alone that these exercises should be practised, and which gives volume to the tone, without taking away from its roundnes and purity.

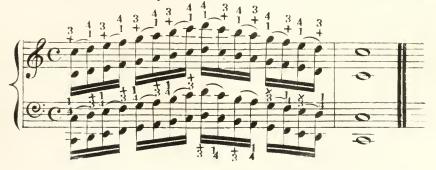




As we have just seen, the thumb and 3d finger are generally employed on black notes; nevertheless the thumb and 4th finger may often be more advantageously used; there are also cases where the nature of the passage requires the employment of the thumb and 2d finger, in order to preserve smoothness of execution.



Hands which have great power of extension may make use of the following fingering in a smooth passage of octaves.



OF CHORDS.

Although the piano does not possess, in common with the voice, the violin, the flute, the horn &c. the power of shading the same sound by means of the crescendo and diminuendo, it is compensated for by the superiority afforded by its immense compass and the facility of playing 10 or even 12 notes at a time. The ensemble composes the chief merit of an orchestra. The piano, which is an imitation of the orchestra, imposes the same law on the performer, particularly in passages distinguished by complicated harmonies. Chords are susceptible of various modes of execution: thus the following are characterised by a method of performancewhich imposes a perfect unanimity, and secondly, an equal proportion in the intensity and duration of the sounds of which they consist.



In chords in arpeggios, the notes must be successively struck from the lowest to the highest, and must be sustained in order to prolong the harmony.



In the following, the last note, which is struck by the left hand passing over the right, should also be marked and sustained.



In the following chords, the fingers are successively detarlast from the notes, and the sounds are immediately tinguished in the same order.

The small notes forming the chords in the preceding example, as also in that which follows, should pass so quickly that the value of the principal notes will apparently be undiminished.



In order to produce successfully the effect of the following chords, the right hand should press the small notes and bring out the melody by a strongly marked accentuation. The left hand should commence the chords simultaneously with the small notes executed by the right, and these chords should be broken and detached.



In the following example the fingers which strike the small notes should be immediately raised from the keys whilst the thumb and the fourth finger sustain the minims.



OF ORNAMENTS.

As in discourse, a sentence reduced to its logical elements would lose its harmony, its richness, and its grace, so in music a phrase despoiled of its ornaments and reduced to the elements of which it is constituted, would frequently appear dull and monotonous.

To prove the utility of ornament in music and refute the opinion of the partisans of a bare simplicity in melo dy, it suffices to say that the Italian music, although less profound and less elevated than the German, less dramatic and less varied than the French, is nevertheless that which boasts of the greatest number of admirers. Without pretending to examine the stability of such preference, it may be safely affirmed that the Italians owe it not only to the marked and easy character of their melodies, but above all to the ornaments with which they so gracefully adom them.

If then ornaments are useful and even necessary in vocal music, how much more essential are they in music for the piano, which instrument being deprived of nature's mechanism, and of the power of varying the same sound, can only compensate for these disadvantages hy a broad development of harmony, and a richer and more varied choice of FIORITURES.

Let us however hasten to add that though the piano, above all other instruments, requires the addition of ornaments, that very necessity imposes on artists the obligation of avoiding their abuse. 66

We have already spoken in various parts of this method, of ornaments and the rules to which they are subject in execution; it would therefore be superfluous to explain here the precise nature of each. Besides, if we except the shake, ornaments generally written in small notes, offer too trifling a difficulty to embarrass the pupil who may have advanced thus far in the practical study of our work: We will therefore confine ourselves to the indication of the different modes of execution of which the shake is susceptible.

A shake, which, as we have already said, is the rapid and alternate emission of two notes of conjoint degrees, commences and finishes always on the note marked with the sign h. Of these two notes the lowest is the principal and the highest the auxiliary.



The rule of successive crescendos and diminuendos in a prolonged sound is applicable to the shake, which, in music for the piano, replaces and imitates, so to speak, the prolongation of the sound. The small notes which sometimes precede the close of the shake, are called the termination. The termination is not essential to the shake, as some authors have affirmed but purely voluntary; thus when it should take place, the composer must indicate it as he should also do with regard to the small notes which begin the shake.

EXAMPLES.



The interval which seperates the auxiliary note from the principal note, may, during the shake vary a semitone higher or lower.



When several shakes follow each other, ascending or descending, the termination only takes place, as in other cases at the indication of the composer.



The pianist who aspires to perfection should practise shakes until he can perform them with all the fingers with equal facility. The best method to arrive at this is to practise regularly every day the following examples, fingered as below. But the use of the DACTYLION applied to shakes, is the most powerful means of speedily giving to all the fingers the same degree of energy.



CHANGING THE FINGERS ON THE SHAKE .

When a shake is much prolonged, the crescendo is necessarily increased to a great degree of intensity: inwhich case, as two fingers could not without fatigue, suffice for the effort required, we have adopted a system, which, by the alternate change of three or four fingers, enables the performer to increase the shake to the greatest degree of rapidity, and to produce a brilliancy and crispness which it would be impossible to obtain with the ordinary fingering.

It is true that to acquire a perfect equality in this shake, the most careful and unremitting practice is requisite, but the result obtained will amply repay all the labour bestowed on it.

The pupil should begin very slowly and accelerate the time according as he may feel conscious of a certain ensemble in the mechanism of the hand.



From shakes produced by changing the fingers, a grace is derived, the original effect of which, depends equally on the fingering, and the elasticity of the touch.

The small notes must be struck simultaneously with the hass.



DOUBLE AND TRIPLE SHAKES.

Double and triple shakes are subject to the same rules as simple shakes, with this difference, that the terminations may be simple, double or triple according to the choice of the composer.



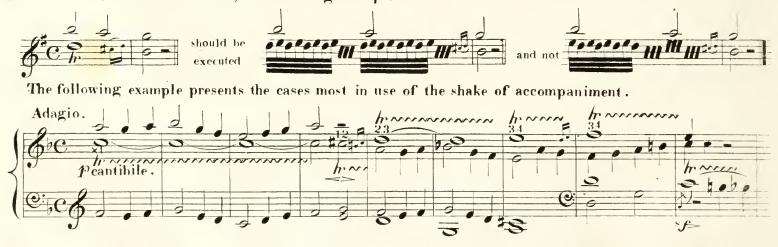


A shake is sometimes accompanied by one or more notes, sustained, or repeated symetrically; in which latter case it produces an effect analogous to that of the double or triple shake.



SHAKES OF ACCOMPANIMENT.

The first note of every shake which accompanies a melody, should be struck at the accented parts of the bar in order to mark them. Thus, the following example



 (\neq) As shakes in octaves can only be executed with facility by hands of more than ordinary size, composers but rarely make use of them .



EXERCISES FOR INTERMINGLING AND CROSSING THE HANDS.

To facilitate the execution of certain passages and to give to others a particular effect, two hands are sometimes employed in passages which could be played by one; but in such cases, the fingers should never rest longer on the keys than the exact value of the notes permit. The notes on which the change of hands takes place are in general indicated by their position being inversed; the Italian words MANO DESTRA (right hand) MANO SINISTRÅ (left hand) are also used, or their abridgements M.D' M.S or R.H. L.H.

In the execution of passages in which the hands are compelled to intermingle or cross each other, it is necssary to avoid as much as possible the use of the thumb, which always interferes more or less in such case with equality of execution; it is also as well to sit further than usual from the piano, in order to allow more liberty to the arm.



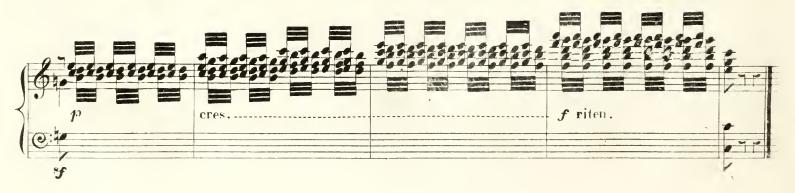












7.0



OF SKIPPING PASSAGES.

Chords composed of an extensive range of notes possess a character peculiar for softness and sweetness; skipping passages often produce an analogous effect.



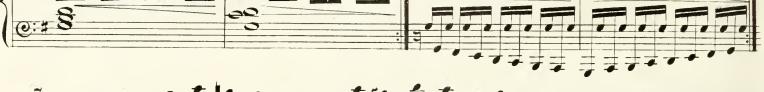
In compositions intended for public performance, skips of much greater extent are often introduced to give the pianist an opportunity for displaying his powers of execution and to astonish that portion of the public who hear with their eyes; but before venturing to accomplish such difficulties all nervousness and timidity should be overcome by a facility and power of execution which nothing can disturb.

The invention of such passages as these belong entirely to the modern school. The perfection and extent of the Pianos of the present day have contributed infinitely to the invention and adoption of effects unknown to the old masters, whose thin-strung instruments of five octaves were much wanting in sustension of tone and consequently far less capable of interpreting their inspirations.

EXERCISES.

In skipping passages, the first note is always more accented than the second, unless the contrary be indicated. The hand should be quite extended from the thumb to the fourth finger, in order to lessen the distances, and execute them as smoothly and evenly as possible.











Our observations on the practical part of piano-forte playing may here terminate; whatever might be added would extend beyond the limits which we assigned at the commencement. We have however, resumed in a methodical order, the general elements of music; we have laid down and developed the principles on which depend a thorough comprehension, and a perfect execution of music for the piano; lastly we have given the complete and gradual application of these principles in a series of exercises and studies which by maturing at once the mechanism and the taste will enable the pupil to surmount all the difficulties he may encounter in ancient or modern music; we have therefore attained our end, and our task is completed.

In another work destined for virtuosi, artists, and for such amateurs of the piano as endowed with a move than usual talent, may desire to be initiated into all the secrets of the art; we propose shortly to collect and put into order instructions of a more elevated kind, which usither could nor ought to enter into the plan of this method. This next publication, less volumnious than the present, may be considered as the completion and last part of our treatise.

TWELVE SHORT ELEMENTARY LESSONS.

















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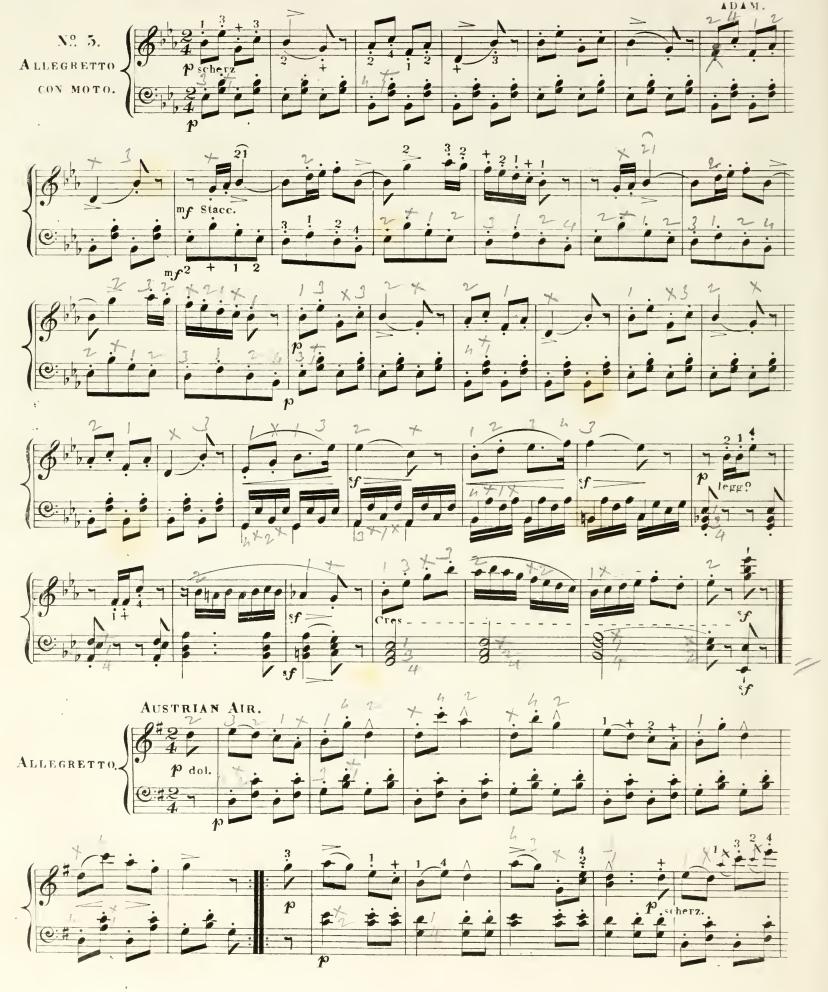








AIR FROM LE POSTILLON.







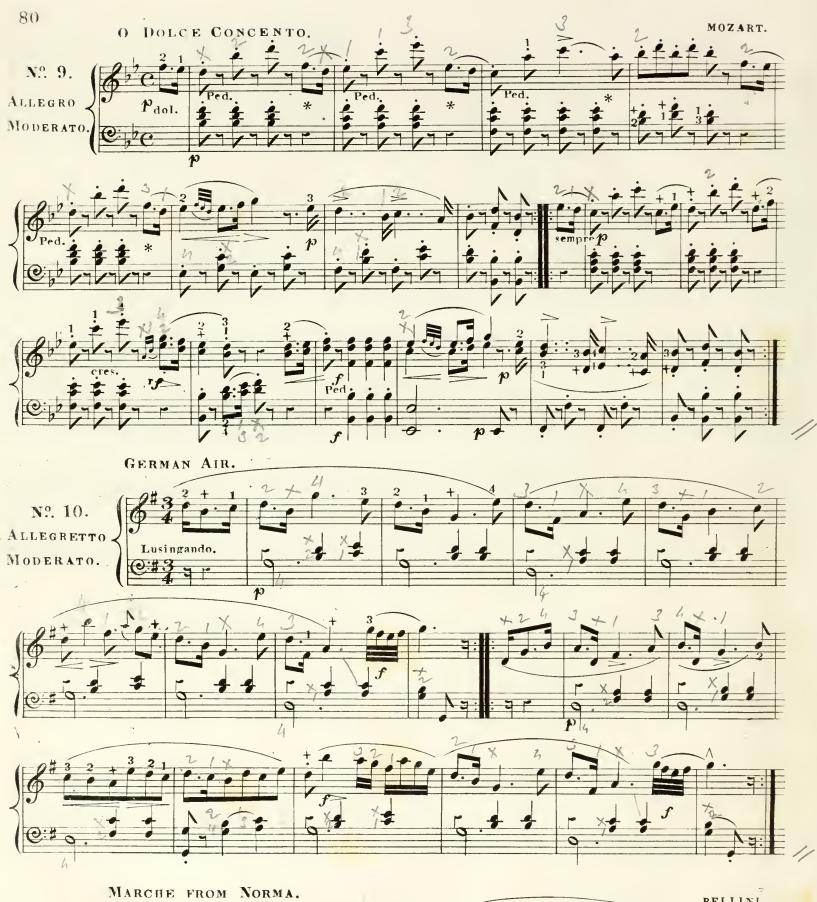














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RONDO

ON AN AIR





























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NOCTURNE

on an Air from

I CAPULETI ED I MONTECCHI.





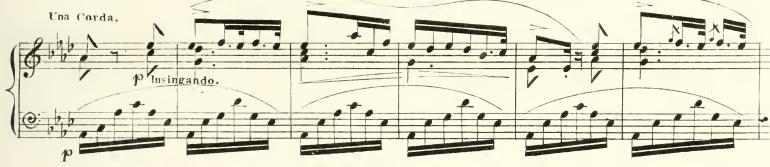


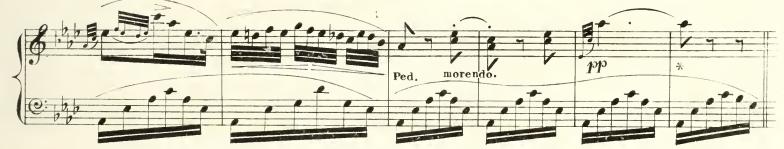




















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VARIATIONS

on an Air from









































BAGATELLE

on a Duet from





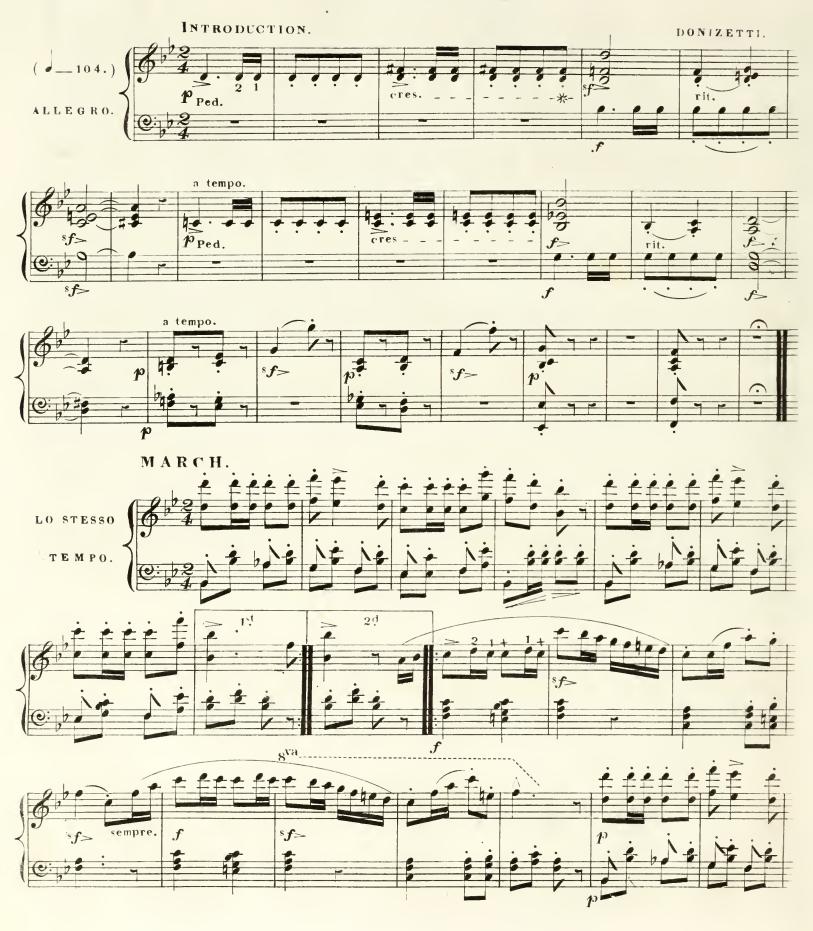




AMUSEMENT

on a March from

ANNA BOLENA









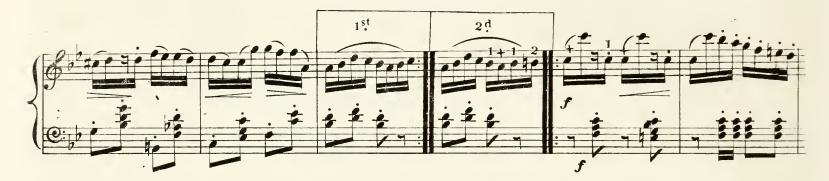






Più mosso. (_____116.]











10.4













OFC TAVES.















MORDEN'FE.













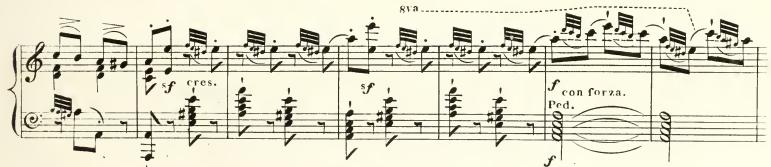




























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LIGHTNESS.













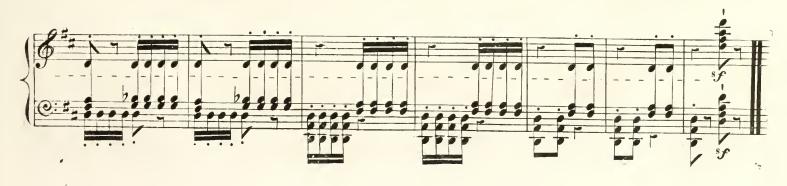
























STUDIO FOR THE LEFT HAND







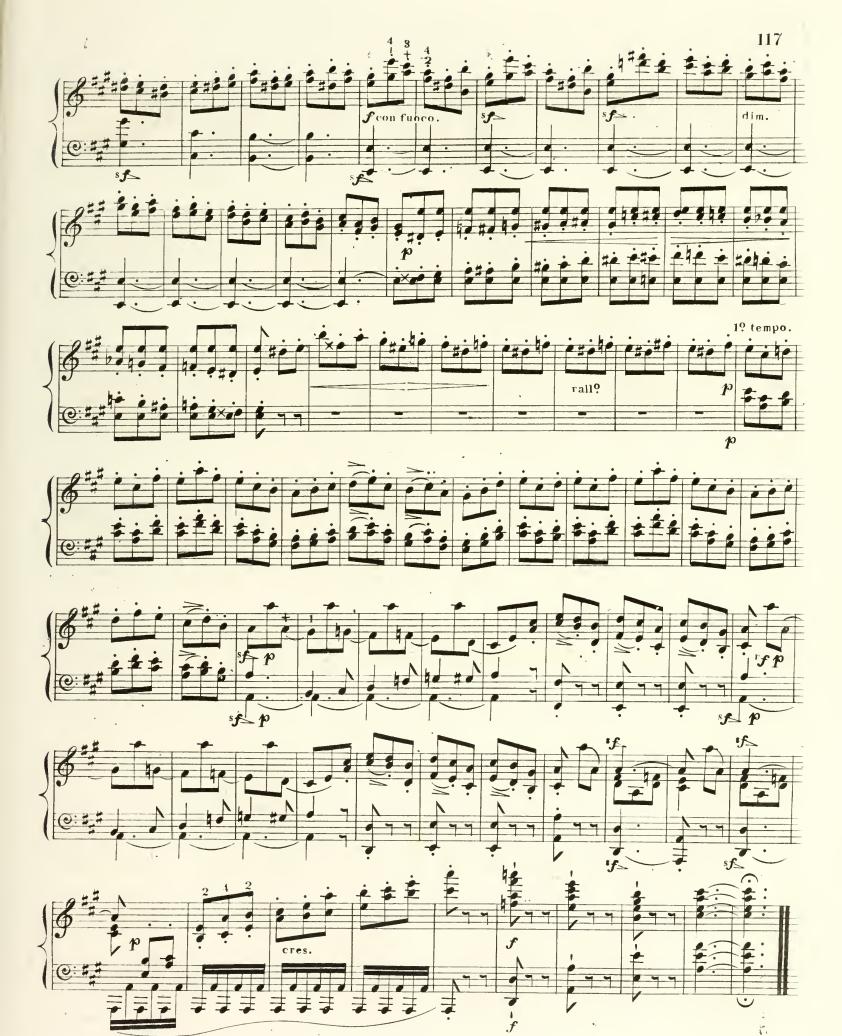
















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PASSAGES OF DISTANCES STACCATO.



GHORDS.



















REITERATED NOTES.





























































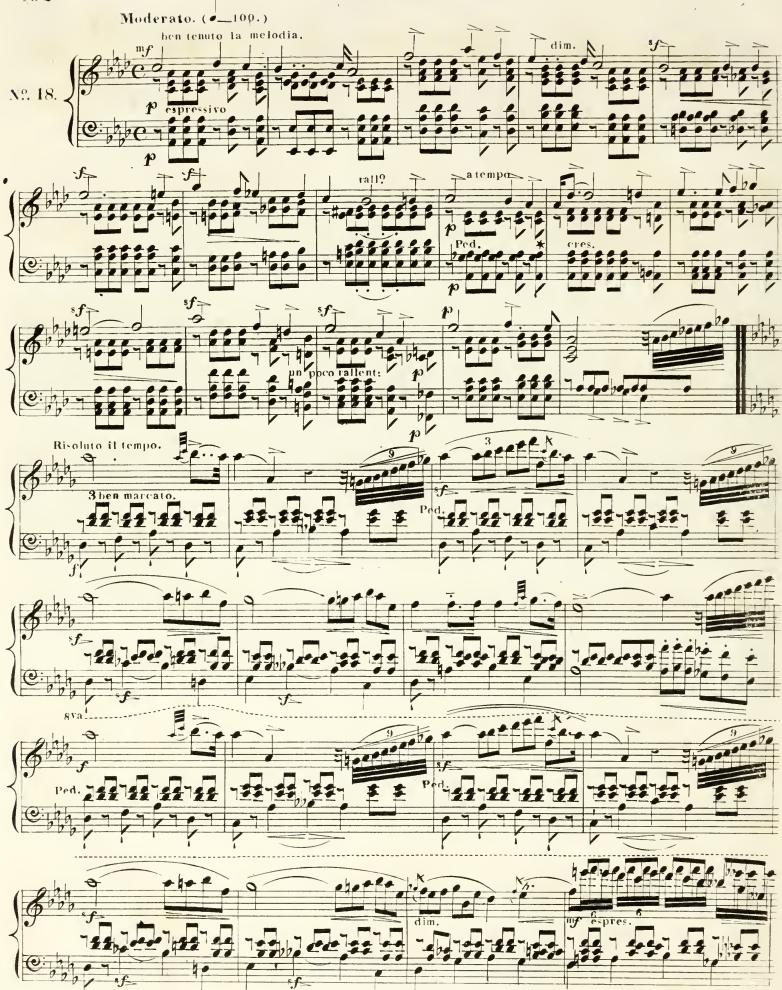


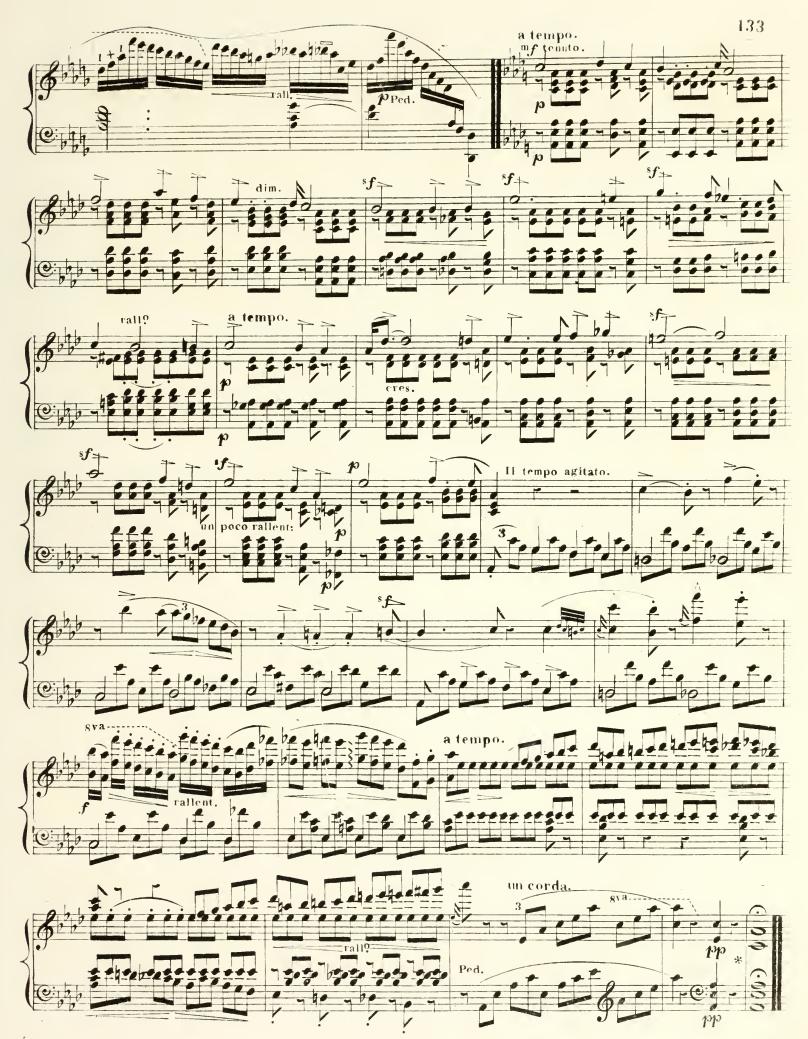


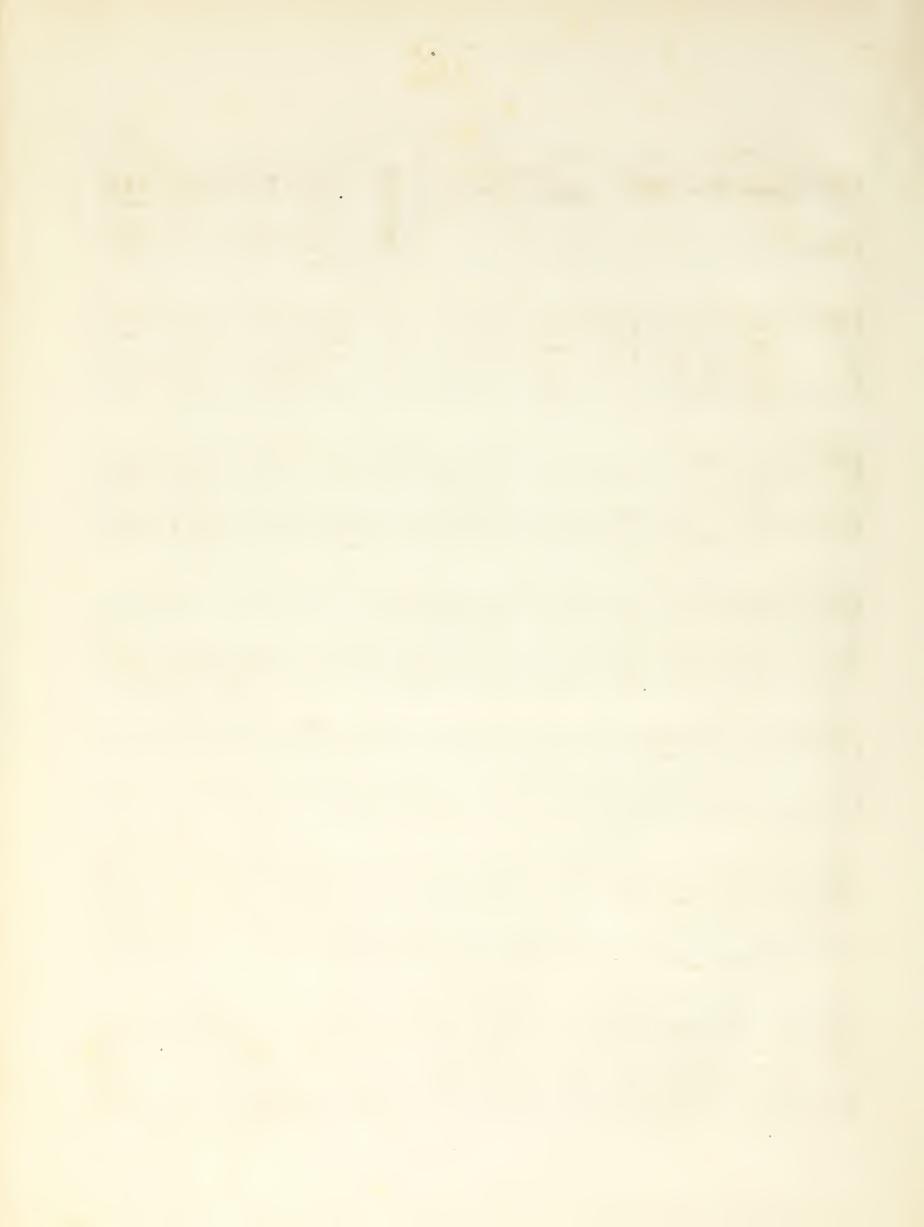


















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