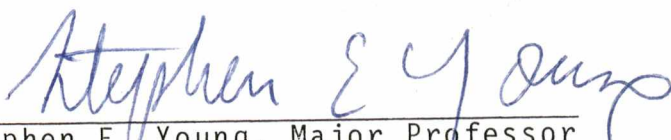
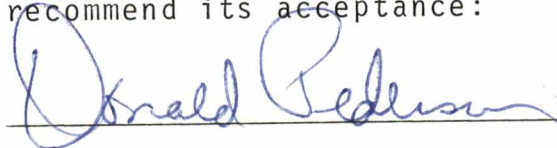


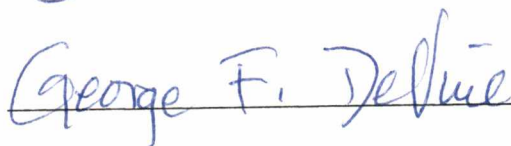
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Stephen Wilson Jackson entitled "An Analysis and Comparison of the Mathias Georg Monn Concerto for Cembalo in C Major and the W.A. Mozart Concerto for Piano in D Major, K. 175." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts, with a major in Music.

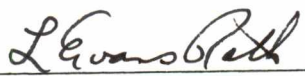

Stephen E. Young, Major Professor

We have read this thesis and
recommend its acceptance:





Accepted for the Council:



Vice Chancellor
Graduate Studies and Research

AN ANALYSIS AND COMPARISON OF THE MATHIAS GEORG MONN
CONCERTO FOR CEMBALO IN C MAJOR AND THE W. A. MOZART
CONCERTO FOR PIANO IN D MAJOR, K. 175

A Thesis
Presented for the
Master of Arts
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Stephen Wilson Jackson
December 1980

3046677

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to thank the following individuals and institutions to which he is indebted for inestimable assistance in the preparation of this thesis:

Dr. Rudolf Elvers, Bibliotheksdirector,
Staatsbibliothek der Stiftung Preußischer Kultur-
besitz, Musikabteilung; Berlin.

Dr. Judith Schwartz, Northwestern University;
Evanston, Illinois.

The Newberry Library, Special Archives Collection;
Chicago, Illinois.

Mrs. Georgia Bunn, Thesis Consultant, The
University of Tennessee; Knoxville, Tennessee.

Members of the graduate committee: Mr. George
F. DeVine, Dr. Stephen Young, and Dr. Donald Pederson.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to determine whether the works of Mathias Georg Monn, a composer identified as an important member of the first Viennese school, can be considered a link between the High Baroque and the Classic styles. Musicologists have long argued over exactly what part mid-eighteenth century composers played in developing the Classic style, as typified by the works of Haydn and Mozart, and an examination of a composition by Monn and Mozart in the same genre should prove to point out those aspects of style similar or disjunct in each man's work, and to answer the question regarding the stylistic leanings of Monn. Monn's works have long been given credence as important works of the midcentury period, and in demonstrating successfully the link between Monn and Mozart stylistically, new evidence in support of a developmental chain between the Viennese school and the Classic style masters will be brought to light.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Concerning the Manuscript	5
Purpose of the Thesis	7
II. MELODY	8
Number of Intervals per Measure	9
Note Repetition	10
Chromatic Tones	13
Melodic Changes in Direction	14
Phrase Length	15
Melodic Pitch Range	22
Conclusions	23
III. RHYTHM	25
Meter	25
Beat	26
Rhythmic Patterns	28
Rhythmic Devices	30
Cadences	30
Dotted Notes	31
Durchbrochene Arbeit	32
Conclusions	33
IV. HARMONY	35
Harmonic Rhythm	36
Chord Frequency and Variety	39
Modulation	44
Nonharmonic Tones	46
Harmonic Formulæ	48
Cadences	48
Conclusions	50
V. FORM	52
Conclusions	62
VI. CONCLUSIONS	65
BIBLIOGRAPHY	67

APPENDIX	72
VITA	86

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1. Intervallic Frequency	10
2. Chord Frequency and Variety	42
3. Nonharmonic Tones	47
4. Heinrich Koch: Concerto First Movement Form . .	53
5. First Movement Form in the Monn Concerto . . .	58
6. First Movement Form in the Mozart Concerto . .	61
7. Selected Works by Monn as Found in Traeg and Fischer	73

LIST OF EXAMPLES

EXAMPLE	PAGE
1. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 62-65.	11
2. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 21-23.	12
3. W.A. Mozart, <u>Concerto for Piano in D major</u> , K. 175, <u>Allegro</u> , measures 20-23	12
4. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 37-41.	14
5. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 1-3	16
6. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 1-4	16
7. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 58-62	17
8. W.A. Mozart, <u>Concerto for Piano in D Major</u> , K. 175, <u>Allegro</u> , measures 46-48	18
9. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 69-71	19
10. W.A. Mozart, <u>Concerto for Piano in D Major</u> , K. 175, <u>Allegro</u> , subordinate theme . . .	20
11. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 13-16	21
12. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measure 1 and 160	22
13. W.A. Mozart, <u>Concerto for Piano in D Major</u> , K. 175, <u>Allegro</u> , measures 98-100	27
14. W.A. Mozart, <u>Concerto for Piano in D Major</u> , K. 175, <u>Allegro</u> , measures 33-34	29
15. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 29-30	30

EXAMPLE	PAGE
16. W.A. Mozart, <u>Concerto for Piano in D Major</u> , K. 175, <u>Allegro</u> , measures 17-19	30
17. W.A. Mozart, <u>Concerto for Piano in D Major</u> , K. 175, <u>Allegro</u> , measures 39-41	31
18. W. A. Mozart, <u>Concerto for Piano in D Major</u> , K. 175, <u>Allegro</u> , measures 1-2	31
19. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 176-177	32
20. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 166-167	33
21. W.A. Mozart, <u>Concerto for Piano in D Major</u> , K. 175, <u>Allegro</u> , measures 13-15	37
22. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 44-45	38
23. W.A. Mozart, <u>Concerto for Piano in D Major</u> , K. 175, <u>Allegro</u> , measures 55-56	38
24. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 66-69	45
25. W.A. Mozart, <u>Concerto for Piano in D Major</u> , K. 175, <u>Allegro</u> , measures 49-51	45
26. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 127-128	48
27. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 22-23	49
28. W.A. Mozart, <u>Concerto for Piano in D Major</u> , K. 175, <u>Allegro</u> , measures 13-15	49
29. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 179-180	50
30. M.G. Monn, <u>Concerto for Cembalo in C Major</u> , <u>Allegro</u> , measures 125-127	57

EXAMPLE

PAGE

31. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major,
K. 175, measures 51 and 164 60
32. M.G. Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major,
Allegro, measures 40-42 63
33. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major,
K. 175, Allegro, measures 140-141 . . . 64

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The pre-classic Viennese school, which covered the years 1740 through 1775, has always been hidden in the shadows cast by those giants of the Viennese high Classic period: Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven. Only since the turn of the century have musicologists begun to recognize the wealth of other material composed during those years, most of which had lain unplayed and unpublished. The pre-classic era had its share of mediocre composers, but it also included many composers who did not deserve the fate which left their manuscripts in libraries, unnoticed and unappreciated. Now at last, little by little, their compositions are beginning to come to light.

Such is the case with Mathias Georg Monn, who, unlike his contemporaries Georg Wagenseil and Johann Stamitz, has remained a somewhat obscure figure of this period, not through design, but rather through neglect. Monn worked, studied, and taught at various times in Vienna and was a highly esteemed musician of his day.¹

¹ For an interesting analysis of Monn's contribution to the pre-classic Viennese tradition, see Ernst Ludwig Gerber's Neues Historisches Biographisches Lexicon der Tonkünstler (1812-1814), published in Leipzig by A. Kühnel.

Monn was born April 9, 1717, in Niederösterreich, or perhaps more precisely, in Vienna.² From an early age, Monn devoted himself to the study of music, especially composition, and was considered to be a fair violinist and an excellent organist. He studied in the Klosterneubergstift until 1732; by 1738 he had become organist at the newly built Karlskirche in Vienna, at which post he probably remained until his death in 1750.

According to Sonnleithner,³ Monn was extremely moody and always wore black. His seriousness is at least partially reflected in the many scholarly fugues and fugal passages found in his music; his industriousness is immediately apparent when one compares Monn's large musical output with his very short life. He died October 3, 1750, at the age of 33. Sonnleithner describes Monn's death in the following anecdote. Monn had a weak constitution and never drank, but was finally cajoled one day by a group of merry students into having a few "Bottlellen" with them, following which he became deathly ill and died shortly afterwards at his home.

² Die Musik in Geschichte und Gegenwart: Allgemeine Enzyklopädie der Musik (henceforth noted as MGG), Band 9, (Basel: Bärenreiter Kassel, 1961), s.v. "Monn", by Ingrid Kollpacher.

³ Joseph Sonnleithner, Biographische Notizen über Monn; Monatsbericht der Gesellschaft der Musikfreunde des österreichischen Kaiserstaats, volume IV, (Berlin, 1840), p. viii.

Paul Henry Lang considers Monn one of the most important precursors of the Classic school. He goes on to state of Monn:⁴

His was not yet a mature style; the repetition techniques of the suite are obvious in the numerous sequences, and some Baroque spirit can be found in the somewhat trudging basses, but the refined dances of the Rococo begin to yield to the more earth bound Austrian and Bohemian peasant dances, which we know so well from the minuets of Haydn.

Lang's comparison of Monn and Haydn is appropriate in that Monn and his contemporaries were the first representatives of a truly Germanic symphonic idiom, which had its culmination in the Viennese high Classic period in the works of Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven. Monn's Symphony in D Major, composed in 1740, is recognized as the first complete symphony in four movements. The added movement, a minuet, is similar to its classical counterpart, using an accentuation of primary beats and a lilting melody to achieve a rhythmic intensity similar to that of the well-known minuets of Haydn. The last movement of Monn's Symphony in D Major, which is published in the Historical Anthology of Music, is a short but complete example of sonata form.⁵ It was not until 1743 that Johann Stamitz produced a four-movement symphonic work; recent studies suggest, therefore, that others should share the credit with the Mannheimers for introducing the modern symphonic plan.

⁴ Paul Henry Lang, Music in Western Civilization, (New York: W.W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1969), p. 607.

⁵ Willi Apel and Archibald T. Davison, Historical

Another, and perhaps more important, link between Monn and the Viennese high classicists is through Johann Georg Albrechtsberger. Albrechtsberger studied composition with Monn in Vienna and later became an important teacher, including among his pupils the youthful Beethoven, and among his friends Haydn and Mozart.⁶ Albrechtsberger was noted for his fugal exercises, which are similar in conception to those of his teacher.⁷

Ernst Ludwig Gerber characterizes Monn as a diligent and prolific composer, but a composer about which little, unfortunately, is known.⁸ In his article, Gerber lists several of the composer's important works and comments on Monn's compositional techniques. Gerber's account is based on an early thematic index, the Verzeichnis alter und neuer Musikalien by Traeg, published in 1799. This

Anthology of Music, volume 2 (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1959), p. 295.

⁶ Lang, p. 757.

⁷ MGG, I, s.v. "Albrechtsberger" by Ingrid Kollpacher.

⁸ Ernst Ludwig Gerber, Neues Historische-Biographisches Lexicon der Tonkünstler (Graz: Akademische Druck- u. Verlagsanstalt, 1960), p. 118.

catalogue includes an array of works, including choral works, an opera, several symphonies, and 12 harpsichord concertos. Because many of these works have been lost, the exact number of works by Monn is unknown.⁹

The primary source of information for the music of Mathias Georg Monn is found in the index of Wilhelm Fischer published in the Denkmäler der Tonkunst in Österreich.¹⁰ Fischer provides a complete catalogue of Monn's extant works along with an historical perspective of the composer gleaned from important writings on Monn by Gerber, Adler, and Fétis. Fischer underscores the importance of Monn as a precursor of the Viennese classic era, and points to those aspects of his compositional technique which are most clearly connected with the classic style.

Concerning the Manuscript

Manuscript number 14630 in the Staatsbibliothek der Stiftung Preußischer Kulturbesitz contains eleven keyboard concertos ostensibly by Mathias Georg Monn.¹¹ Concertos Two, Three, and Eleven, however, are separated by stylistic

⁹ The Traeg catalogue, along with a comparison to the extant works of Monn, is reproduced in the Appendix.

¹⁰ Denkmäler der Tonkunst in Österreich (henceforth noted as DTÖ), volume 39 (Graz: Akademische Druck- u. Verlagsanstalt, 1959), p. XII.

¹¹ Robert Eitner, Biographische-Bibliographische Quellen Lexicon du Musiker un Musikgelehrten christlicher-

differences which cause Wilhelm Fischer¹² and Ingrid Kollpacher¹³ to assign authorship of these works to Johann Christoph Monn, the younger brother of Georg Mathias. Number Seven, in C major, is characteristic of the eight harpsichord concertos by Mathias Georg Monn in this particular collection.

The manuscript for the Concerto for Cembalo in C Major exists only in parts; if a score existed, it was either lost or destroyed. The string parts are on vertical paper, ten staves per page, and total thirty-six pages. The keyboard part has been written on oblong paper, eight single staves or four braces to the page, and totals twenty-seven pages.

The parts were apparently intended for performance, because great care was taken to allow the players time for

Zeitnung bis mitte das neunzehnten Jahrhunderts, 11 volumes, (Leipzig: Breitkopf und Härtel, 1900; reprint ed., Graz: Akademische Druck-U. Verlagsanstalt, 1959), 7:31. The entry reads: "14630 in K[apsel]: 11 Concerti per il clavic., c.v., viole, fl., e Bc. Stb." This is not entirely correct as only 14630/1 contains a part for flute. This same concerto is also scored for only one violin and no viola. 14630/5 and 6 also omit the viola.

¹² Wilhelm Fischer, ed., Wiener Instrumentalmusik vor und um 1750 Vorläufer der Wiener Klassiker, volume 39 in Denkmäler der Tonkunst in Österreich (Vienna: Österreichischer Bundesverlag, 1912; reprint ed., Graz: Akademische Druck-U. Verlagsanstalt, 1959), xxxix.

¹³ MGG, 9, p. 470.

page turns during rests, the direction Volti or Volti Subito, or their abbreviations are frequently present at page turns.

Dynamic markings are indicated only in the string parts and in the tutti sections of the keyboard part. These indications are confined largely to piano and forte, but the compound fp does appear. In no instance is pianissimo or fortissimo indicated. Spelling variants and an obvious difference in handwriting within the parts suggest either different copyists or the intrusion of an editorial hand.

Purpose of the Thesis

The purpose of this study is to determine, through analysis, the melodic, rhythmic, harmonic, textural, and formal characteristics of the first movement of the Mathias Georg Monn Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, and to compare these same characteristics with those found in the first movement of W.A. Mozart's Concerto for Piano in D Major, K. 175. Such a study should prove fruitful, and should lend support to the generally held view that Monn exerted considerable influence on the composers of the Viennese Classic school.

CHAPTER II

MELODY

Melody is defined as that aspect of music which is concerned with range, motion, density, and patterns and is unusual among musical elements in that it may depend upon or derive from, to some extent, pre-existent materials (such as a cantus firmus or folk tune) or from entirely external components (such as tape recordings). Therefore, when dealing with melody it is necessary to determine how these melodies are treated.

LaRue regards melody as: melody in large dimension, which is concerned with a general description of an entire movement or section; melody in middle dimension, which encompasses the extremely large range of melody such as recurrence, development, interdependence, and contrast; and melody in small dimension, which includes intervals and motivic patterns.¹ Obviously, each of these dimensions "cannot produce more than a narrow angle of insight on this seemingly most familiar and accessible, yet actually quite elusive and ambiguous--even mysterious--of musical elements."²

¹ Jan LaRue, Guidelines for Style Analysis, (New York: W.W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1970), p. 87.

² Ibid.

Melody is interwoven with the other characteristics of music--rhythm, color, texture, and form--each contributing to the composition as a whole, yet each possessing a degree of autonomy. For the purposes of this thesis, each characteristic of music, as defined in the introduction, will be considered as a separate entity wherever possible. Also, the term "melodic segment" will refer to a segment in any part of the orchestration that is primarily melodic, and functions as melody: that is, it is discernable as the principal voice and is preiminent among all the parts in that it advances the melodic motion of the composition.

The study of intervals, the basic fabric of melody, will be approached in three ways: 1) the number and types of intervals per measure; 2) the number of conjunct and disjunct intervals; 3) the number of note repetitions. A distinction should be made between "live" and "dead" intervals, the latter being those intervals larger than a second which occur between the end of one phrase and the beginning of the next, and the former being those intervals contained within the span of one phrase. Only the "live" intervals will be analyzed in this study.

Number of Intervals per Measure

Table 1, referring to the initial melodic segments of phrases tabulated here from the first movement of the Monn concerto and the first movement of the Mozart concerto, shows

TABLE 1
INTERVALLIC FREQUENCY

Type of Interval	Number Ascending		Number Descending		Percentage of Occurrence	
	Monn	Mozart	Monn	Mozart	Monn	Mozart
Seconds	65	190	131	160	42	53
Thirds	80	36	42	75	24	17
Fourths	20	30	14	18	7	7
Fifths	35	25	17	12	9	6
Sixths	22	29	12	15	7	7
Sevenths	8	5	-	2	2	1
Octaves	15	13	13	8	6	3
Note repetitions:			14	37	3	6

Source of melodic segments:

Monn		Mozart	
Measures	Part	Measure	Part
1-3	1st Violin	1-5	1st Violin
1-4	Bass & Cello	7	1st violin
27-34	Keyboard	10-14	1st Violin
36-47	Keyboard	17-24	1st Violin
62-69	Keyboard	30-32	1st Violin
101-105	Keyboard	59-63	Keyboard
110-124	Keyboard	71-79	Keyboard
		112-118	Keyboard
		128-134	Keyboard
		140-142	Keyboard
		229-238	1st Violin
Total number of intervals: 470		Total number of intervals: 650	

the number of intervals per measure and the average frequency of occurrence for specific intervals. These initial melodic segments are noted by means of measure numbers as a part of Table I. The intervals were determined by beginning at the first of each segment and noting the distance between consecutive pitches. Conjunct intervals, or seconds, comprise half of the total number of melodic intervals, with the third being the next most common interval. Both Monn and Mozart treat the melodic intervals of the fourth and the sixth similarly; these intervals occur 7% of the time in both compositions and are usually figural.

Example 1. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 62-65, keyboard part.



Monn and Mozart differ considerably in their preference for conjunct melodic motion. Whereas the former uses more than twice as many descending seconds as ascending, the latter shows a slight preference for ascending intervals (27%) rather than descending (24%).

The widest intervals encountered in the melodic segments, those of the octave, are, in both compositions, most often ascending leaps.

Note Repetitions

Both Monn and Mozart use repeated notes to emphasize important cadences and to underscore sequential passages. In the example from Monn, the cadence is extended through the use of repeated notes in the viola, cello, and bass parts.

Example 2. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo
in C Major, Allegro, measures 21-23, orchestra.



The example from Mozart typifies the treatment of repeated notes at sequential passages, a characteristic of the Classic period.

Example 3. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major,
K. 175, Allegro, measures 20-23 in the string parts.



Chromatic Tones

Chromatic tones, or more properly chromaticism, may be defined in two ways: either as a functional alteration of tone through the addition of accidentals in order to achieve a specific harmonic result, or as a non-functional alternation of tone. One primary mechanism of the first type of chromaticism is to create the raised third in the dominant of the dominant chord (V/V). The second type of chromaticism serves no harmonic purpose; it is movement by semi-tones which may, or may not, obscure the underlying harmony depending upon its effect upon the listener.

Chromaticism of the latter type, more frequently used in his later works, is relatively unimportant in this early Mozart concerto, and not surprisingly, is insignificant in the Monn concerto. Less than 2% of the total tones in the Mozart concerto and only 1% of the total tones in the Monn concerto are chromatic.

In the Monn concerto, the two-voice texture of the keyboard part lends itself to melodic chromatic alteration, a technique highly prized in Rococo music and further refined and developed in the Classic period. This melodic chromatic alteration emphasizes the subtle nuances of a melodic line, and tends to produce short regular phrases, as opposed to the fortspinnung of the Baroque period.

Where the two-voice texture occurs, it tends to contribute to a sense of the improvisatory.

Example 4. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 37-41 in the keyboard part.



Melodic Changes in Direction

Melodic changes in direction are determined by using the beat as the basic unit against which the number of direction changes are noted.

In the Monn concerto, the melody changes direction slightly more than once per beat, while in the Mozart concerto it changes less than once per beat. Since both movements have a lively tempo and use 16th note passages frequently, one would expect melodic changes in direction to occur once per beat, or slightly less often, to avoid what Newman calls the "zigzagging" effect of too rapid a change in direction.³

³ William S. Newman, The Sonata in the Classic Era, New York: W.W. Norton and Co., 1965.

Phrase Length

In both the Monn concerto and the Mozart concerto, most of the phrases are two measures long: 50% in the Monn concerto and 58% in the Mozart concerto. Next in importance is the four-measure phrase, followed by the one-measure phrase and the three-measure phrase.

How are these phrases generated melodically, and how are they connected in longer units within each work? Perhaps a definition of the term "phrase" is appropriate at this point. Green defines it as:⁴

...the shortest passage of music which, having reached a point of relative repose, has expressed a more or less complete musical thought.

A phrase must, therefore, express a musical idea and close with a cadence.

The melodic structure of the phrase is built upon motives, short melodic fragments used as constructional elements and characterized by melodic contour, harmonic implication, and rhythm. Motives may be varied in order to achieve interest or to generate new patterns by means of ornamentation, diminution, augmentation, intervallic change, inversion, retrogression, or any combination of these. Also, motives may permeate the texture by repetition in the other

⁴ Douglas M. Green, Form in Tonal Music: An Introduction to Analysis, (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1965), p. 7.

voice parts, creating imitation. This imitation may be exact (i.e., no alteration of the original pattern), tonal (i.e., containing melodic modification to avoid a change of key), or free (i.e., using intervallic change and/or ornamentation).

The nature of the first movement of the Monn concerto -- the first two to three measures resemble the exposition of a double fugue -- allows for considerable imitation and motivic development. The principal motives contained in the first theme are:

Example 5. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 1-3 in the first violin part.



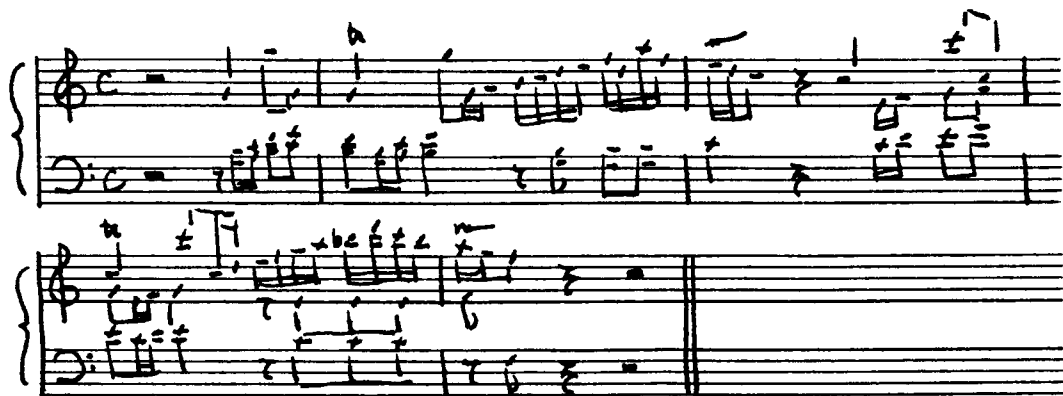
The principal motives contained in the subordinate theme are:

Example 6. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 1-4 in the bass part.



These two themes, or phrases, which resemble fugue subjects, serve as points of departure for extensive motivic development. The first phrase appears in all voices; it is repeated at the octave in the bass part at measures 7-8, at the fifth in the second violin part at measures 3-5, and in other passages throughout the piece. This phrase is altered at times so that instead of beginning on the down-beat, it begins on beat three (as illustrated in measure 160 in the first violin part). The first phrase also serves to join sections of the movement and, more importantly, as a means of modulation

Example 7. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo
in C Major, Allegro, measures 58-62 in the
keyboard part.



Mozart, too, relies upon motivic development as a means of connecting phrases and constructing larger units, such as phrase chains and entire sections. The principal theme is used by Mozart to connect two lengthy solo passages at measure 46 by means of an orchestral interjection.

Example 8. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major, K. 175, Allegro, measures 46-48.

The image displays a handwritten musical score for measures 46, 47, and 48 of the first movement (Allegro) of Mozart's Piano Concerto in D Major, K. 175. The score is written on ten staves, organized into three systems. The first system (measures 46-48) features a treble and bass staff for the piano, with the piano part playing a series of sixteenth-note chords. The second system (measures 46-48) shows the orchestral interjection, with a treble and bass staff for the orchestra. The third system (measures 46-48) shows the piano part continuing its sixteenth-note chordal pattern. The score is written in D major (two sharps) and 4/4 time. Measure numbers 46, 47, and 48 are clearly marked above the first staff of each system. The handwriting is in ink on aged paper.

Imitation is an important device for achieving unity in the Monn concerto. At measure 69, the first violin begins a motive which is played at two measure intervals by the second violins, the viola and low strings, and finally the soloist. This passage stands midway between two lengthy solo passages, and although it is short (only two measures long), it nonetheless provides an effective link between the sections. Notice too that measures 69-71 are derived from measures 34-36, which, in turn, are derived from motive 3 of the opening theme, although shifted this time to the middle of the measure (this thematic material is also found at measures 137-39 serving not as a digression away from the principal key but as the bridge back to it, and to the return of the original thematic material at measure 160). This shifting of phrases to fall on other than the downbeat of each measure occurs so frequently that it may be considered a compositional trait of Monn.

Example 9. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo
in C Major, Allegro, measures 69-71.

The image shows a handwritten musical score for measures 69, 70, and 71. The score is written on four staves: two for the upper strings (Violins I and II) and two for the lower strings (Viola and Cello/Double Bass). The key signature is one sharp (F#), indicating C Major. Measure 69 begins with a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp. The notation is dense, featuring many beamed sixteenth and thirty-second notes, suggesting a fast, rhythmic passage. Measure 70 continues this pattern. Measure 71 shows a change in the lower strings, with some rests and different rhythmic values. The handwriting is clear but shows signs of being a working draft or a personal study score.

Mozart uses themes imitatively also, but because the first movement of his concerto is in first-movement concerto form, derived from the sonata, the imitative use of motivic material is much less prominent than it is in the Monn concerto. Mozart uses thematic material and motives in the development section. For example, the subordinate theme, which first appears at measure 15 in the first violins, appears in the development section. Also, due to the close relationship of the Mozart concerto to sonata form, all motivic and thematic material, or at least most of it, reappears in the recapitulation. Because of the formal structure of the first movements of the concerti under discussion, the method of treatment for previously utilized material is interesting.

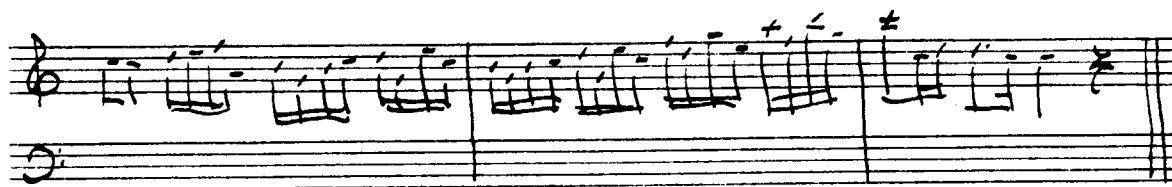
Example 10. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major, K. 175, Allegro, subordinate theme.



Sequences are used by Monn to develop phrases into larger units as a means of going from one tonal center to another. These sequences are often built upon arpeggiated chords, a device which is inherently more

interesting than using block chords which would perform the same function harmonically but which would not contribute to the forward motion or rhythmic intensity and thus lessen the desired effect, that of fortspinnung. Again, this use of the characteristic motivic pattern to animate the melodic line relates more to the Baroque style than the Classical style, and indicates that in regard to rhythm, Monn was definitely maintaining the status quo of the Baroque rhythmic tradition.

Example 11. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 13-16 in the keyboard part.



Melodic displacement is used by Monn as a means of eliding phrases and sections. Monn displaces the principal theme regularly, and also displaces important motivic material (as at measure 69).

Example 12. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, comparison of measures 1 and 160 in the 1st violin part.



Melodic Pitch Range

To arrive at an idea of the melodic pitch range in the first movement of the Monn and Mozart concerti, melodic phrases were examined to determine the interval between the highest and lowest tones and to arrive at an idea of the frequency of occurrence of certain intervals. The same melodic segments which were used in Table 1 were utilized in determining pitch range.

Within the melodic segments of the first movement of the Monn concerto, the narrowest pitch range is that of the octave (i.e., within these segments the greatest interval was an octave or less), the widest pitch range is that of the fifteenth, and the most frequent pitch range is that of the eleventh, occurring 33% of the time.

In the first movement of the Mozart concerto, the narrowest pitch range is that of the sixth, the widest pitch range is that of the double octave plus a fourth, and the most common pitch range is that of the fifteenth,

occurring 38% of the time.

Within both first movements, a melodic pitch range of an octave or less occurs on the average 10% of the time, while a pitch range wider than an octave occurs, on the average, 90% of the time. Both composers frequently use arpeggiation and scalar passages which extend well beyond the octave, accounting for the predeliction for melodic ranges greater than the octave. This use of an extended melodic range is characteristic of the Classical style.

Conclusions

As the statistics readily show, many similarities are to be seen in the melodic concepts of Monn and Mozart. In the construction of phrases and the joining of phrases into larger units, both composers rely upon the same basic techniques: imitation, sequence, and motivic development. But whereas Mozart relies upon a concerto form intimately linked with sonata form, Monn relies heavily on the Baroque tradition of fortspinnung, and the chromatic alteration of the melodic line which is an important characteristic of the Rococo period.

Monn's melodies are invariably tuneful, regular, and pleasing to the ear; those of Mozart are no less so. The pitch range of the two composers is approximately the

same; because of arpeggiation and extended scalar passages Monn and Mozart rely upon pitch ranges greater than the octave.

Monn loved contrapuntal writing and used it extensively in his compositions, as can be seen by the use of fugue-like subjects in the first movement of this particular concerto. This is perhaps a holdover from the Baroque tradition of J.S. Bach and Vivaldi. But the use of thematic material developmentally, even though not as prominent in Monn as in Mozart, points toward the Classic period and indicates that Monn can rightly be regarded as an important precursor of the Classic style.

CHAPTER III

RHYTHM

Rhythm may be defined as that aspect of music which is concerned with the feeling of movement in music, "with a strong implication of both regularity and differentiation."¹ Jan LaRue defines rhythm thus:²

To a large extent Rhythm results from changes in Sound, Harmony, and Melody, in this respect relating closely to the Movement function in Growth, which accomplishes an expansion of Rhythm on a large scale, just as Rhythm controls the details of Movement on a small scale.

The analysis of rhythm in the concertos is divided into four parts: 1) meter, 2) beat, 3) rhythmic patterns, and 4) special rhythmic devices.

Meter

Meter, as defined in the Harvard Dictionary of Music, is "the pattern of fixed temporal units, called beats, by which the timespan of a piece of music or a section thereof is measured."³ Both the first movement of the Monn concerto and the first movement of the Mozart concerto are written in common time, and both have allegro as a tempo indication.

¹ Harvard Dictionary of Music, second edition, revised and enlarged by Willi Apel (Cambridge: Belknap Press, 1970), p. 729.

² Jan LaRue, Guidelines for Style Analysis (New York: W.W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1970), p. 88.

³ Harvard Dictionary of Music, p. 523.

Within these two movements the impetus derived from meter is strong. In neither work does the meter change within the movement; triplets are usually ornamental and seldom occur with sufficient frequency to turn a simple meter into a compound one.

Beat

An important aspect of rhythmic analysis concerns the impetus derived from the feeling of beat. Even in sections in which the rhythm is static (i.e., at rests, sustained tones, or extended trills), a feeling of beat prevails. German musicologists call this phenomenon "takt" and have placed emphasis upon implied pulses in their theoretical writings on music.

The Baroque period considered rhythm an integral part of the doctrine of temperaments and affections. Once a rhythmic pattern was begun, it usually ran its course without interruption. Tonality, harmony, even instrumentation were subject to the principles of the theory of affections; once a specific pattern, harmony, or instrumentation was established, no change occurred. As a consequence of this theory, certain melodic and rhythmic patterns were established to represent specific affections. One of the most famous of these rhythmic patterns, and one which occurs in the first movement of the Monn concerto, is fortspinnung, or

the use of 16th notes in rapid succession. Since the first movement of the Monn concerto uses such a rhythmic pattern, a pattern that runs throughout the piece with only occasional interruption, the rhythmic style of writing in the first movement of this concerto is clearly Baroque.

The first movement of the Mozart concerto, while containing passages of sixteenth notes, includes several sections of slower rhythm. The rhythm is slowed by introducing measures in which the basic unit of beat is the quarter note rather than the eighth note. These passages divide the piece into rhythmic sections which provide rhythmic contrast.

Example 13. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major, K. 175, Allegro, measures 98-100 in the string parts.



Here, then, is a clear distinction between the two compositions: Monn relies on a Baroque rhythmic vocabulary while Mozart demonstrates a more flexible concept of rhythm, allowing a relaxation of motion in some places, and an increase of motion in others.

Rhythmic Patterns

Rhythmic patterns can also be classified as rhythmic motives or patterns. Just as melodic motives unify phrases and sections within a composition, rhythmic patterns provide unity to phrases, although on a less obvious level. Rhythmic patterns, like their melodic counterparts, can be altered; the most common methods of rhythmic alteration are through augmentation, diminution, and embellishment.

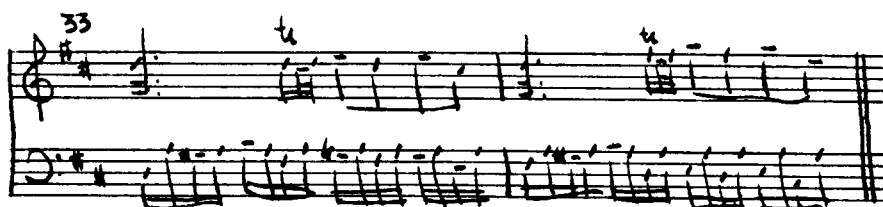
Melodic patterns are more easily recognized on the whole simply because they deal with sound. For instance, the motivic use of the principal theme of the Monn concerto (found on page 77) is recognizable by the most casual listener. The rhythm of that pattern can be used motivically; it too can be recognized, but perhaps not as clearly as its melodic counterpart. However, when rhythm and melody are combined into a motivic unit, both functions are recognizable. This discussion must lead toward a certain goal: motivic patterns are based upon the interaction of both sound and rhythm. These two functions are what give a motive its charac-

ter, and they tend to become inseparable.

Most motivic development, in both the first movement of the Monn concerto and the first movement of the Mozart concerto, is melodic rather than rhythmic. No examples of augmentation or diminution were located in either piece.

A rhythmic pattern that also has an harmonic function is the Alberti bass. It occurs frequently in the first movement of the Mozart concerto, not only in the keyboard part, but in the string parts as well. This type of bass provides rhythmic energy, propelling the music forward.

Example 14. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major, K. 175, Allegro, measures 33-34 in the keyboard part.



In the first movement of the Monn concerto, the largest concentration of sixteenth notes is in the upper voices rather than in the bass. The rhythm derived from the motion of these sixteenth notes does propel the piece forward, but unlike the Alberti bass in the Mozart concerto, the sixteenth note passages in the first movement of the Monn concerto are sections of figuration (arpeggiation, ornamented scales, and melodic patterns). These passages contain motivic signifi-

cance.

Example 15. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 29-30 in the keyboard part.



Rhythmic Devices

Cadences

Mozart rarely uses masculine endings for his phrases; except in sections of quicker tempo or at important cadential points, feminine endings are most common. The use of the feminine cadence allows Mozart to use the characteristic melodic sigh of the classical period--the seufzer.

Example 16. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major, K. 175, Allegro, measures 17-19 in the string parts.



Monn uses masculine endings almost exclusively. This trait points not to the classical style, but rather it is reminiscent of the Baroque style.

Dotted Notes

Dotted notes tend to emphasize rhythm, momentarily drawing attention away from the other aspects of music. Mozart uses dotted notes motivically, either as transitional material, as at measure 23, or as a cadential extension, as in measures 39-41.

Example 17. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major, K. 175, Allegro, measures 39-41 in the keyboard part.



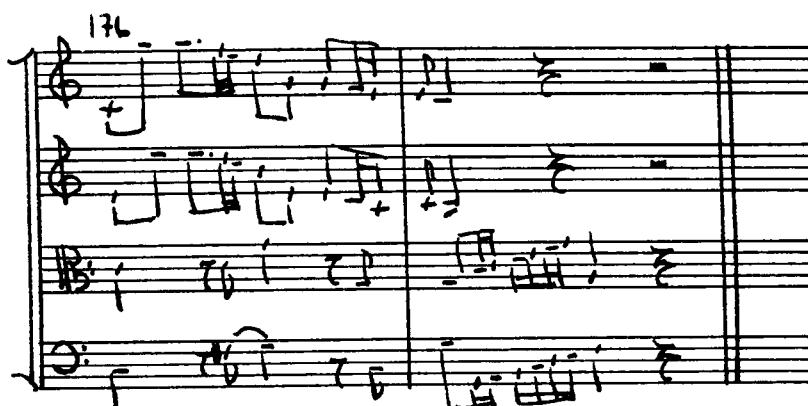
The principal theme in the first movement of the Mozart concerto uses a dotted rhythm:

Example 18. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major, K. 175, Allegro, measures 1-2 in the 1st violin part.



In the first movement of the Monn concerto, dotted rhythms are not used as frequently nor as creatively as they are in the first movement of the Mozart concerto. Monn often uses implied dotted rhythms, as in measures 17-19, in which the dot is replaced by a rest, a device that produces a result similar to that of the melodic sigh. At other times, dotted notes are used as ornaments, or to prepare ornaments.

Example 19. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 176-177 in the string parts.



Durchbrochene Arbeit

Durchbrochene Arbeit is "a technique of writing in which fragments of a melody are given to different instruments in turn."⁴ This technique is a descendant of the medieval technique of the hocket. This technique does not appear in

⁴ Harvard Dictionary of Music, p. 249.

the Mozart concerto, but in the first movement of the Monn concerto, with its fugal subjects and sections of imitation, it does occur.

Example 20. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 166-167 in the string parts.



Conclusions

A basic difference between the Baroque style and the Classic lies in their respective approaches to rhythm. Founded in the theory of affections, the Baroque style relies upon one rhythmic pattern throughout a composition, whereas the Classical style allows more freedom of rhythm within a movement, alternating sections of faster and slower rhythms within one movement.

Just as Monn and Mozart are similar in many respects, they are different in their approach to rhythm. Monn is clearly Baroque, relying on one rhythmic pattern (16th notes

in this case) to provide motion throughout the movement. Mozart is Classical in his handling of rhythm, placing sections of slower rhythm beside sections of lively rhythm.

In cadence structure Monn and Mozart are again in conflict. Monn mostly uses masculine cadences. Mozart, on the other hand, uses feminine cadences.

Both composers use rhythmic devices to achieve variety and to provide unity to phrases and sections, but they use different techniques: Monn relies upon durchbrochene arbeit and implied dotted rhythms, while Mozart uses dotted notes motivically.

CHAPTER IV

HARMONY

Harmony may be defined as the chordal structure of a musical composition, as distinct from counterpoint, and it is concerned with movement relationships (chord frequency and variety, harmonic rhythm, and modulation), nonharmonic tones, and harmonic formulæ (cadences, cadenzas, and pedals). The contributions of harmony to movement within a composition are "...particularly direct, owing to the obvious forward motion implicit in every contrast of harmonic tension and stability...."¹ Harmony is also important as a strengthening element, since it tends to clarify motion within a movement.

The harmonic study of the first movements of the concertos under discussion will include the following points: chord frequency and chord variety, harmonic rhythm, modulation, nonharmonic tones, and such formulæ as cadences and pedals. The information gathered from this study will be treated in different ways: the results obtained for each composition will either be compared, or, when similar, will be combined into one general statement.

¹ Jan LaRue, Guidelines for Style Analysis (New York: W.W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1970), p. 48.

Harmonic Rhythm

Harmonic rhythm is "the rhythmic pattern provided by changes in harmony."¹ It is concerned primarily with root changes and their frequency of occurrence, and establishes a heirarchy of harmonic importance with regard to movement. In its simplest form, this definition implies that a root movement of II to V is harmonically more active than one from V to II, and so on.

Harmonic rhythm is a device that provides interest in a slow movement where harmonic changes occur more frequently than they do in lively sections or movements. Conversely, movements with quicker tempos have a much slower harmonic rhythm.

Within the first movement of the Monn and Mozart concerti, the harmonic rhythm changes approximately once per measure; there are notable exceptions to this general rule, such as the first measure of the Monn concerto, but on the whole, this statement of harmonic rhythm is correct. In the Mozart concerto, a noticeable increase in harmonic rhythm occurs at least one measure before important cadence points.

¹ Harvard Dictionary of Music, p. 369.

Example 21. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major, K. 175, Allegro, measures 13-15 in the string parts.



How is harmonic rhythm achieved in these compositions? In small dimensions the chief harmonic changes result from chord movement; at the other extreme, large movement in harmony is related to key movement. Between these extremes are various formulæ and tonal structures which contribute to harmonic rhythm: tonal plateaus (sections which extend a specific harmony for a specific amount of time), pedals (a voice which is sustained while other voices move around it without disturbing the basic harmonic fabric), and figural devices (such as broken chords [the Alberti bass being perhaps the most famous]) and cadences.

Questions concerning the use of pedals and sustained harmonies invariably lead to confusion. So much depends upon the way these tones and harmonies are heard or thought of by each individual, that precise agreement is often impossible.

Monn uses pedals and tonal plateaus to continue a specific harmony. They may either be clearly enunciated or implied, as is the case in measures 44 and 45.

Example 22. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 44-45 in the keyboard part.



Mozart uses pedals from time to time. When they are used it is generally in conjunction with a florid melodic passage. More commonly, however, the Alberti bass is used to provide harmonic rhythm.

Example 23. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major, K. 175, Allegro, measures 55-56 in the keyboard part.



Another method of achieving interesting harmonic rhythm is to choose themes which require harmonic change. In the first movement of the Monn concerto, both fugal themes have implied harmonic motion. The first theme, in measure 1 in the first violin part, projects this harmonic motion: $I-V-I_4^6-V-I$. The second theme, found in the cello and bass parts at measure 1 uses this harmonic rhythm: $I-V-V_7-I$. In the first movement of the Mozart

concerto, the principal theme sustains one harmonic base, that of D major. This theme, in the first violin part from measures 1 through 4, requires nothing more than a tonic pedal, over which the theme outlines a D major chord. Harmonic motion is, therefore, intimately connected with the melody, since it is melody that affects harmonic rhythm to a greater extent than any other aspect of music.

Chord Frequency and Variety

Chord frequency is a term used to describe the regularity with which certain chords appear in a composition; chord variety is a term used to indicate what kind of chord is used: a simple triad, a seventh chord, or an inverted triad or chord. Chord frequency and variety is determined by extracting passages from each movement in which the overall tonality remains constant, and by preparing a table showing frequency of occurrence (represented in this instance by a percentage) and the predeliction these chords have for appearing in root position or inversion. However, before moving to these very specific interpretations of the harmonic pattern in each composition, a general investigation of the tonality and construction of these two first movements is important.

The Monn concerto is basically centered upon a C major tonality, and moves from the tonic to the dominant and then

back to the tonic. The opening orchestral passage of 23 measures is basically in C major, cadencing in the tonic to allow the Anlage, or first solo section, to begin in C major as well. By measure 31, with the introduction of f#, the tonality is clearly changing toward D major, particularly after the g# occurs in measure 33. Then, through a blurring of the harmony and hence the tonality in measures 36 through 41, G major emerges as the dominant key center.

At measure 58, the second solo section begins, with G major as the tonality. Then, moving through a transitional circle of fifths, and thematic development in several tonal areas, particularly in measures 69 through 80, the tonality is blurred and one is left with a feeling of improvisation during this section. By measure 84, a minor has become the dominant tonality.

The longest section of the composition is measures 100 through 160, and it is here that the tonality becomes blurred as thematic areas are developed, segmented, joined in different patterns than those found in the original presentation, and moved through a series of key centers to emerge, at measure 160, in C major. The tonality changes frequently during these 60 measures from 100 to 160, breaking down into a pattern somewhat like this:

measures 100-103	d minor
measures 103-105	g minor
measures 106-108	transitional
measures 109-110	cadence (V ₇ -I) F major
measures 111-112	cadence (V ₇ -I) G major
measures 113-114	cadence (V ₇ -i) a minor
measures 115-116	cadence (V ₇ -I) D major
measures 116-123	improvisational (Tonal movement varied)
measure 124	e minor
measures 125-129	figural transition
measure 129	C major
measures 130-134	C major
measures 135-143	motivic development, basically in C major
measure 143	abruptly in g minor
measures 144-147	blurring of tonality through motivic variation
measures 148-160	a repetition of mm. 37- 47, this time leading into C major [the additional 2 measures emphasize this tonality]
measures 161-180	C major

Clearly, then, the tonality is not static. Through devices such as thematic and motivic development, improvisatory type passages, blurring of the tonality, use of the circle of fifths, Monn is able to create an interesting key relationship which points toward the Classic style.

What types of chord structures and chords did these two composers use in their compositions. The results obtained in the first movements of both the Monn and the Mozart concerti are strikingly similar, and thus allow the findings to be tabulated into a table (Table 2).

The tonic triad occurs almost 50% of the time. Of tonic triads, 66% are in root position, slightly less

TABLE 2
CHORD FREQUENCY AND VARIETY

Chord Type	Total %	Percentages in:			
		Root Position	First invers.	Second invers.	Third invers.
I	46	66	23	11	-
II	6	46	54	-	-
III	1	60	40	-	-
IV	9	65	25	11	-
V	18	75	19	6	-
VI	2	73	18	9	-
VII	2	62	38	-	-
V ₇	12	37	29	14	20
VII ₇	0.2	100	-	-	-
I ₇	0.8	50	25	-	25
II ₇	2	70	30	-	-
III ₇	1	25	75	-	-

than 25% are in first inversion, and the remaining very few are in second inversion.

Dominant triads occur 18% of the time. Of these triads, 75% are in root position and 20% are in first inversion. The dominant seventh chord occurs 12% of the time; it is found most frequently in root position, followed by first inversion, third inversion, and second inversion.

The next most common triad is the subdominant, which makes up not quite 10% of the total number of chords counted. Root position is most common. In the supertonic triad, on the other hand, which occurs 6% of the time, the second inversion is more common than root position (54% to 46%). The supertonic seventh chord occurs only 2% of the time; combining it with the supertonic triad brings the total of supertonic harmony to 8%.

The submediant and leading-tone triads are next in frequency, followed by the tonic seventh chord and the leading-tone seventh chord.

What does this information provide as far as the harmonic vocabularies of Monn and Mozart are concerned? Initially, it demonstrates that their harmonic vocabularies are consistent with common practices of the time. Emphasis is placed on the tonic, dominant, and subdominant harmonies (46%, 30%, and 17% respectively). Secondly, it demonstrates

that these two composers relied upon the same harmonic vocabulary as a basis of composition; while Monn and Mozart may go about the process of harmonic rhythm, harmonic formulae, and modulation in different ways, they nonetheless use the same basic harmonic vocabulary, allowing limitless comparison of specific harmonic techniques among the two composers.

Modulation

Earlier in this thesis, melodic chromaticism was discussed at some length. At that time, chromaticism was given two definitions, one of which dealt with harmonic alteration. Modulation is chromatic alteration; this is obvious from the moment that the raised third appears in the V/V, and from the moment that one realizes that the purpose of modulation is to present original material (that is, previously heard material) in a new key. This is not the only function of modulation, but it is the function with which we are primarily concerned in these two Allegro movements.

The most frequent modulation found in the first movement of the Monn concerto as well as the Mozart concerto is that from the tonic to the dominant and back to the tonic. This is the harmonic movement of most tonal music since 1650; indeed, this very precept of movement away from the tonic and returning to it is the basis for

music of the period. This progression, I-V-I, occurs well over 50% of the time in both concerti. The modulation from I to V is usually direct; it is most often a diatonic modulation using a common pivot chord, but it can be chromatic. Chromatic modulations are especially common in the section moving back to the tonic; modulatory sequences are used to move from V back to I. Common tonal centers en route back to the tonic are vi and iii. There is little use of the subdominant.

Example 24. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 66-69 in the keyboard part.



Example 25. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major, K. 175, Allegro, measures 49-51 in the keyboard part.



Nonharmonic Tones

The nonharmonic tones under consideration are: passing tones, auxillary tones, echappées, appoggiaturas, anticipations, and suspensions. Nonharmonic tones receive similar treatment in both the Monn and Mozart concerti. Therefore, a common table has been prepared showing the frequency of occurrence for each nonharmonic tone (Table 3).

Passing tones make up 52% of all nonharmonic tones counted. Of these passing tones, over half (58%) are descending.

The appoggiatura is the next most frequent nonharmonic tone, making up 23% of all nonharmonic tones counted. Of these appoggiaturas, 66% are descending.

The auxillary or neighboring tone is next in importance after the passing tone and the appoggiatura. 11% of the nonharmonic tones counted are neighboring tones; they occur equally as often ascending (50%) as descending (50%).

Nonharmonic tones are tones which are foreign to the underlying harmony, and they are basically ornamental within the two concerti. They may be divided into two groups: those nonharmonic tones which are rhythmically weak notes, occurring between two harmonic tones, and those nonharmonic tones which are rhythmically strong, occurring in place of harmonic tones. There are five types of rhythmically weak nonharmonic tones: the passing tone, the

TABLE 3
NONHARMONIC TONES

Nonharmonic tone	Direction	Monn	Mozart	Total %
Passing tone	ascending	18%	20%	52
Passing tone	descending	34	32	
Auxillary	ascending	2	9	11
Auxillary	descending	3	8	
Echappée	ascending	17	4	10
Echappée	descending	-	-	
Cambiata	descending	2	2	2
Appoggiatura	ascending	15	21	23
Suspension	ascending	-	-	
Suspension	descending	2	2	2

anticipation, the échappée, the cambiata, and the auxillary tone. There is only one rhythmically strong nonharmonic tone: the appoggiatura.

Both Monn and Mozart handle nonharmonic tones in a similar manner. They primarily use them as ornamentation, particularly in the Monn where anticipations at the beginnings of the measure are common, and as fillers in running melodic passages.

Example 26. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 127-128 in the keyboard part.



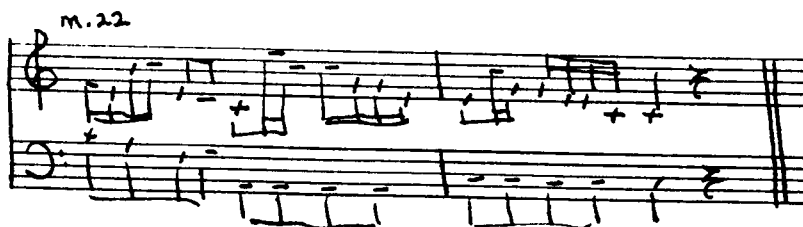
Harmonic Formulæ

Cadences

Of the 170 cadences counted in both the first movements of the Monn and Mozart concerti, the greatest number were authentic cadences (94 cadences or 55% of the total); half-cadences accounted for 40% of the total cadences; deceptive cadences made up the remaining 5% of the cadences. There were no plagal cadences found in either work.

Of the 94 authentic cadences, 75 follow the pattern ii^6 (or IV)-V-I. Of the remaining 19 cadences, the most prominent cadential patterns were I^6_4 -V-I and I-V-I.

Example 27. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 22-23 in the 1st violin and bass parts.



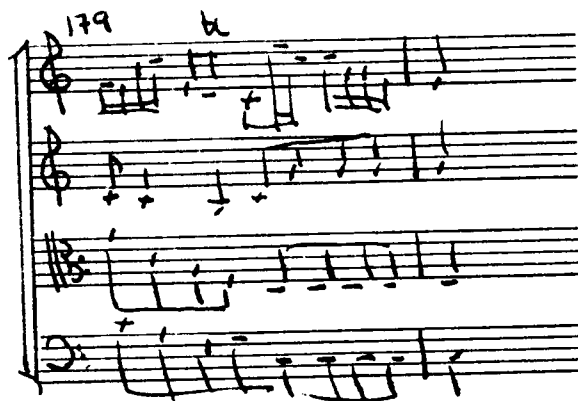
Half-cadences follow the formula V-I-V to the virtual exclusion of other patterns. Other half-cadences do occur, however, notably $I-I^6_4$ -V and V/V-V.

Example 28. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major, K. 175, Allegro, measures 13-15 in the string parts.



After thoroughly examining the way in which both composers handle cadences, a characteristic trait emerges that is found in both compositions. A short, repeated pattern is frequently found before the cadence, and serves to inform the listener that a cadence is imminent.

Example 29. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 179-80 in the string parts.



Both Monn and Mozart show a propensity for authentic cadences, and they treat cadence structure almost identically, relying on the same basic patterns to reach cadence points.

Conclusions

There is little that is exceptional about the harmonic treatment as a whole in either the first movement of the

Monn or the Mozart concerto. Tonic harmony predominates, followed closely by dominant harmony. Seventh chords and diminished chords are found fairly frequently in transitional passages, but hardly at all in tonally stable passages. The overall modulatory scheme for each movement conforms to the traditional idea of starting at the tonic, moving toward the dominant, and then returning to the tonic. The use of nonharmonic tones is ornamental, and although each composer favors certain nonharmonic tones over others, both men share a common method in how they utilize these nonharmonic tones. There is special emphasis in both works on descending passing tones and appoggiaturas.

The greatest number of cadences are authentic, while almost 40% are half-cadences. Cadence structure is not unique; it is based upon standard progressions such as ii^6-V-I .

Harmonic rhythm is achieved through the selection of melodies and themes which require a certain harmonic vocabulary. Monn exhibits somewhat more harmonic motion due to the nature of his motives and themes, while Mozart's use of harmonic pedals with overlying melodic motion produces a slower harmonic rhythm. Mozart also uses the Alberti bass as a means of achieving harmonic motion. Both men rely on established harmonic procedures within the first movements of their concertos.

CHAPTER V

FORM

More importance has been attached to first movement form than to those forms usually associated with the other movements of the symphony, the sonata, and the concerto. Perhaps this is because first movement form in the symphony, sonata, and concerto is usually based upon sonata form; the way in which a composer handles this form within a stated genre provides insight into his compositional style and expertness in conforming sonata form to fit the needs of a composition. In the first movement of a concerto, for example, a composer is confronted with the problem of giving the solo entrance dramatic impact, when it has been preceded by an orchestral exposition which utilises the same material in the same key.

The way in which Monn and Mozart handle form within the first movements of the concertos under discussion is the matter that confronts us. What were contemporary practices concerning first movement concerto form, the practices which would have the greatest impact on these two composers? Luckily, a treatise on composition written by Heinrich Koch (1749-1816) contains a description of first movement concerto form.¹

¹ Koch's treatise, Versuch einer Anleitung zur Kompositionen (1782-93), is a three volume work dealing with composition.

TABLE 4
HEINRICH KOCH: CONCERTO FIRST MOVEMENT FORM

Solo Sections: <u>Structured like the</u> three principal periods of the symphony.	S ₁		S ₂		S ₃		Fantasy/Cadenza	I ₄ ⁶)
	T ₁		T ₂		T ₃			
	I-V-I		V		V-vi			
	(I-V)		V		- - V			
Tuttis: Played by the Orchestra.	T ₁		T ₂		T ₃		Fantasy/Cadenza	I ₄ ⁶)
	I		I		I			
Harmonic Plan:	I-V-I		V		V-vi		Fantasy/Cadenza	I ₄ ⁶)
	(I-V)		V		- - V			
	T ₁		T ₂		T ₃		T ₄	I

In his discussion of the solo concerto, Koch first defines the opening movement in terms of textural divisions, that is, the alteration of solo and tutti sections. According to Koch, three principal periods are performed by the soloist, enclosed by four secondary periods performed by the orchestra. The three principal periods of the solo part are to have the same outward organization and the same course of modulations as the three principal periods in the first Allegro of a symphony.

Koch reasons that the important thematic material is found in the Anlage, or first solo section, presenting the melodic ideas in their original order. The composer writes the first solo section before composing any other music, then constructs an orchestral opening based on the material found in the Anlage. The opening tutti section is in the tonic key throughout, enabling the solo to begin in the tonic key and modulate to the dominant. The solo may occasionally be interrupted at phrase endings by the orchestra; the melodic material employed in these orchestral interpolations is, according to Koch, usually based on fragments from the opening tutti. The second tutti section begins on the final note of the opening solo, and closes with a formal cadence in the dominant.

The second solo section corresponds to a development section. It is in this section that modulation and key juxtaposition, if any, blur the harmonic fabric. A short tutti section follows, modulating back to the tonic

and closing on a dominant chord, allowing the final solo to begin with a tonic chord.

The third solo section corresponds to the third principal period of the symphony; it repeats passages from the first solo section and its second half is an exact repetition of the second half of the first solo, now in the tonic key. Following the final solo section, the orchestra plays a few bars leading to a fermata on a second inversion tonic chord, at which point the soloist improvises a cadenza.

Each section in the Koch model is roughly the same length as the others; symmetry between sections is an integral part of the Koch model.

Koch states that the first solo presents the movement's principal thematic material, but later notes that the tutti may present a main theme and that the tutti and solo may even have completely independent themes.

How does the first movement of the Monn concerto and the first movement of the Mozart concerto conform to or contrast with Koch's model, and how are these movements related, if indeed they are, to each other?

The first movement of the Monn concerto can be divided into sections corresponding to Koch's model for concerto first movement form (Table 5). Both first movement forms are similar through the second solo section. But at

the third tutti section, the harmonic plan changes; the Monn concerto moves from vi to ii, whereas the Koch model has the tonic sounding by the end of the third tutti section. The third solo section in the Monn concerto is dissimilar to the Koch model. The handling of melody, harmony, and rhythm in this section points toward a development section, rather than the reiteration of principal themes in the tonic that is found in the Koch model. Notice also the length of the third solo section in the Monn concerto; it is by far the longest section of the piece.

If the third solo section in the Monn concerto coincides with the development section of a sonata, what characteristics should be present? One would expect to find modulation through several keys: measures 101 sounds d minor (as shown by the c sharp and b flat); through a section of sequence (mm. 103-106) F major is reached; then a series of dominant chords modulates to a B major tonality at measure 118. A chromatic pattern in the melody leads to a restatement of the principal theme in e minor at measure 124. The theme appears again at measure 126, this time in d minor, and shifted so that it begins not on the downbeat, but on beat three. A common chord modulation returns the original tonality (C major) with the cadence, and restatement of the principal theme at measure 129. The

tonality remains constant through the end of this section at measure 160. Brief changes occur between measures 129 and 160, but they are not truly modulations to new tonal areas. The pattern of modulation found within this third solo section is, in C major, ii-IV-VII-iii-ii-(V)-I.

If the third solo section is truly developmental, one might expect to find motivic development. This motivic development is found in the reiteration of the principal theme in new keys and the shift in its placement from the downbeat to beat three. This section--solo three--abounds in fragmentary motives, which are developed and discarded with amazing dexterity.

Example 30. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 125-127 in the keyboard part.

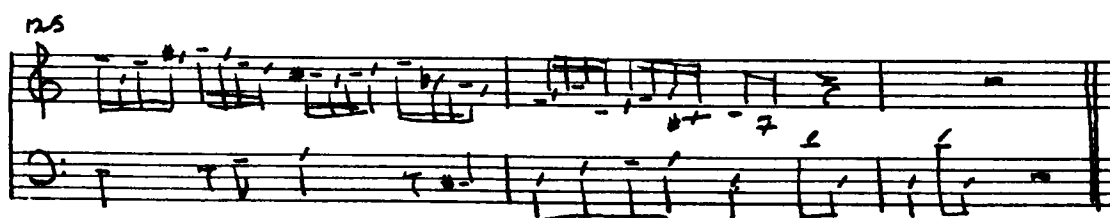


TABLE 5
FIRST MOVEMENT FORM IN THE MONN CONCERTO

Section	Measure Numbers	Length	Harmonic Plan
Tutti 1	1-23	23 measures	I
Solo 1	24-46	22 measures	I-V
Tutti 2	47-58	11 measures	V
Solo 2	58-84	26 measures	V-vi
Tutti 3	84-100	16 measures	vi-ii
Solo 3	101-160	59 measures	ii-mod-I
Tutti 4	161-180	19 measures	I

The first movement of the Monn concerto is, for all intents and purposes, the exposition of a double fugue. There are two fugue subjects which begin at measure 1, one in the first violin, and the other in the low strings. Both of these subjects are used imitatively and motivically throughout the movement, as has been discussed earlier in this thesis. The Monn concerto does divide nicely into sections of tutti and soli, and in this respect it is similar to the Koch model. However, the sections can hardly be defined as symmetrical; the third solo section is by far the longest section within the movement, having more than twice as many measures as the next longest section. The percentage of solo and tutti sections is not symmetrical either: of the 180 measures in the first movement, 107 measures are for the solo instrument (60%), and 73 measures are designated for the orchestra (40%).

Just as the first movement of the Monn concerto contains the outward form of the Koch model, the Mozart concerto first movement could not be farther removed. Although the first movement of the Mozart concerto contains tutti and solo passages, it can best be graphed as a sonata, in that it contains theme groups, transitional and developmental sections, and a recapitulation (Table 6). Mozart did include a cadenza in this movement, so that in at least one respect he and Koch are similar in design.

The first movement of the Mozart concerto divides clearly into an exposition, a development section, and a recapitulation. Whereas in the Monn concerto the development section was the longest of all the sections, in the first movement of the Mozart concerto it is the shortest of the three sections, having only 31 measures as compared with the 111 measures in the exposition and the 96 measures in the recapitulation.

As can be seen from Table 6, motivic development takes place within the development section. The principal theme in the orchestra (a) is interspersed with new material (E). The second motive of the Secondary Theme group (B_2) is also found in the development section.

In the recapitulation, exact repetition of measures occurs; standard practice for a sonata. The material is shortened and occasionally omitted or altered when it reappears in the recapitulation. An example of this is measure 164, an alteration of measure 51.

Example 31. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major, k. 175, Allegro, measures 51 and 164.



TABLE 6

FIRST MOVEMENT FORM IN THE MOZART CONCERTO

Orchestral Exposition:	PT a	a ²	a ³	tr.	ST b	TTc	c ²	c ³	
m.	1		6		15	20			
Key: I	I		I - V-I	I					
Solo Exposition	PT A	A ²	A ³	A ⁴	tr. (D ₃	D ₄	d ₂)	ST B	B ² B ³ B ^{3'} d' D' TT a ₂
	33	35	38	41	47	62	65	71	75 79 82 86 94
	I				I (modulation)	V			V
Development:	E (new material)	a	Ep	a	E ₂ (from D ₃)	B ₂		D ₂	
	112		119	125	127	133		139	142
	V		I	IV	[modulation]	V			V
Recapitulation:	PT a	A	A ²	A ³	A ⁴	tr. (a D ₃	D ₄	d ₂)	ST B B ³ B ^{3'} B ² d D' c ² Cad.
	143					184			16 219
	I					I			I 4
	(Coda)	TT	a ²	c	c ²	c ³			
		I				238			
						I			

Conclusions

The main similarity between the first movements of the Monn and Mozart concerti is the use of a development section. This trait is a progressive one for Monn, while it is idiomatic of the Classic style for Mozart. By having the development section as the largest section of the movement, Monn emphasizes developmental procedures. Mozart, on the other hand, has the development section as the shortest of the three sections in his work which corresponds to the general tendency of the Classic period.

The movements differ in their arrangement. The first movement of the Monn concerto easily fits the scheme produced by Koch: a series of three solo sections surrounded by four tutti sections. It is only after a careful examination that the length and scope of the third solo section and its developmental aspect make it clear that this work is pointing toward the Classic period and is moving away from the Baroque. However, it is not a truly new form. The vast difference between the Monn and the Mozart concerti point up that although Monn is breaking away from the Baroque idiom, he has not yet arrived at a uniquely Classic style. Mozart's first movement Allegro is definitely a sonata form, with an exposition, a development, and a recapitulation.

In the Mozart concerto, the soloist plays in 158 of 234 measures, or 68% of the time. The orchestra plays exclusively in only 76 measures. In the first movement of the Monn concerto, the soloist plays in 107 of 180 measures, or 60% of the time, while the orchestra plays in only 73 measures exclusively. The close proximity of these percentages indicates that both composers had a similar concept of balance with regard to tutti and soli passages within the framework of the concerto.

The differences between the two composers shows up sharply in their choice of accompaniment figures. Monn invariably uses the walking bass of the Baroque. There are occasional examples of the Alberti bass, repeated or arpeggiated chords, broken octaves, and other figural devices, but his most prominent accompaniment by far is the quietly moving bass line, which serves both to outline and support the harmony and to give a certain unobtrusive contrapuntal effect against the melody.

Example 32. Mathias Georg Monn, Concerto for Cembalo in C Major, Allegro, measures 40-42 in the keyboard part.



Mozart, on the other hand, bases his accompaniments almost completely on the chord. The Alberti pattern appears frequently, most often in 16th note groups.

Example 33. W.A. Mozart, Concerto for Piano in D Major, K. 175, Allegro, measures 140-141 in the keyboard part.



CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

Georg Mathias Monn stands, along with his contemporaries in the Viennese tradition, as one of those composers who bridged the gap between the late Baroque and the Classic periods in music. His compositional style, while still grounded in the Baroque tradition, is nonetheless progressive; Monn's use of extensive thematic and motivic development, his harmonic vocabulary, and his concept of form all point toward the Classic period and the compositional techniques of Haydn and Mozart. What makes Monn all the more interesting and important is that in spite of the extremely conservative musical atmosphere in Vienna during the mid-portion of the eighteenth century¹, characterised by the pedantic style of Fux, Monn was able to develop a style with intrinsic links to the Classic style.

The intent of this thesis, as stated in the abstract, was to demonstrate the importance that Monn played upon the development of the Classic style. With each finding,

¹ Paul Henry Lang, Music in Western Civilization (New York: W.W. Norton and Co., 1969), p. 757

with each discovery of some stylistic trait that pointed toward the Classic and away from the Baroque, the case grew stronger. That Monn stands as an important precursor of Haydn and Mozart is by now obvious, and a further study of his works should only strengthen the argument that to him and the members of the Viennese school go the honor for cultivating the elements that would lead, in only a few years, to the Classic style.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adler, Guido, ed. Handbuch der Musikgeschichte, mitwirkung von Fachgenossen. 2 volumes. Berlin: H. Keller, 1930.
- Bach, C.P.E. Essay on the True Art of Playing Keyboard Instruments, trans. and ed. William J. Mitchell. New York: W.W. Norton and Co., 1949.
- Bach, C.P.E. Versuch Über die Wahre Art, das Clavier zu spielen. Berlin: Georg Ludwig Winter, 1759.
- Blume, Friedrich. Classic and Romantic Music: A Comprehensive Survey, trans. M.D. Herter Norton. New York: W.W. Norton and Co., 1970.
- Blume, Friedrich. "Klassik," Die Musik in Geschichte und Gegenwart: Allgemeine Enzyklopädie der Musik. Band 7. Basel: Bärenreiter Kassel, 1961.
- Boroff, Edith. Music of the Baroque. Dubuque: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1970.
- Burney, Dr. Charles. The Present State of Music in Germany, the Netherlands, and United Provinces (London, 1775), facsimile edition, as volume CVXIII of Monuments of Music and Music Literature in Facsimile, second series. New York: Broude Brothers, 1969.
- Carse, Adam. The Orchestra in the XVIIIth Century. Cambridge: W. Heffer and Sons, 1940; reprint ed., 1950.
- Cuyler, Louise. The Symphony. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Janovich, Inc., 1973.
- Dannreuther, Robert. Musical Ornamentation. 2 volumes bound in 1. New York: Edwin F. Kalmus, 1961.
- Donnington, Robert. The Interpretation of Early Music. London: Faber and Faber, 1963.
- Drummond, Pippa. The German Concerto: Five Eighteenth Century Studies. Oxford: Clarendon Press[a division of Oxford University Press], 1980.
- Eitner, Robert. Biographische-Bibliographische Quellen Lexicon du Musiker und Musikgelehrten christlicher Zeitnung bis mitte das neunzehnten Jahrhunderts. 11 volumes. Leipzig: Breitkopf und Härtel, 1900; reprint ed., Graz, Austria: Akademische Druck-U. Verlaganstalt, 1959.

- Engel, Hans. Die Entwicklung des Deutschen Klavierkonzertes von Mozart bis Liszt. Leipzig: Breitkopf und Härtel, 1927; reprint ed., Hildesheim: Georg Olms Verlag, 1970.
- Ferguson, Howard, ed. Style and Interpretation: An Anthology of 16th-20th Century Keyboard Music. 4 volumes. London: Oxford University Press, 1963.
- Fétis, F.J. Biographie Universell des Musiciens et Bibliographie Générale de la Musique. Duexieme edition. Paris: Librairie de Firmin, Didot et Cie., 1884.
- Fischer, Wilhelm, ed. Wiener Instrumentalmusik vor und um 1750 Vorläufer der Wiener Klassiker. Vol. 39 in the Denkmäler der Tonkunst in Österreich. Wien: [Österreich Bundesverlag], 1912; reprint ed., Graz: Akademische Druck-U. Verlaganstalt, 1960.
- Gerber, Ernst Ludwig. Neues Historisch-Biographisches Lexicon der Tonkünstler (1812-1814). Herausgegeben von Othmar Wessely. Lepzig: A. Kühnel, 1814; reprint ed., Graz: Akademische Druck-U. Verlaganstalt, 1960.
- Goldman, Richard Franco. Harmony in Western Music. New York: W.W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1965.
- Girdlestone, Cuthbert. Mozart and his Piano Concertos. London: Cassell and Co., Ltd., 1948; reprint ed., New York: Dover Press, Inc., 1964.
- Grandenwitz, Peter. "The Symphonies of Johann Stamitz," Music Review, Vol. I, 1940, 354-363.
- Green, Douglass M. Form in Tonal Music: An Introduction to Analysis. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1965.
- Hutchings, Arthur. A Companion to Mozart's Piano Concertos. London: Oxford University Press, 1948.
- Koch, Heinrich Christoph. Musikalisches Lexicon, welches die theoretische und praktische Tonkunst, encyclopädisch bearbeitet, alle alten und neuen Kunstwörter erklärt, und die alten und neuen Instrumente beschreiben enthält. 2 volumes. Frankfort am Main: A. Hermann dem Jungern, 1802; reprint ed., Hildesheim: G. Olms Verlag, 1964.
- Lang, Paul Henry. Music in Western Civilization. New York: W.W. Norton and Co., 1969.

- Larsen, Jans Peter. "Some Observations on the Development and Characteristics of Vienna Classical Instrumental Music," Studia Musicologica Academiae Scientiarum Hungaricae, Tomus IX (1967), 115-39.
- Larsen, Jans Peter. "Sonatenform-Probleme," Festschrift Friedrich Blume zum 70. Geburtstag, ed. by Anna Amalie Abert and Wilhelm Pfannkuch. Basel: Bärenreiter Kassel, 1963, 220-230.
- LaRue, Jan. Guidelines for Style Analysis. New York: W.W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1970.
- Liebermann, Walter. "Zur Frage der Eliminierung des Soloparts aus den Tutti-Abschnitten in der Partitur des Solo-Konzerts," Musikforschung, 14, 1961, 200-208.
- Mendel, Arthur. "Evidence and Explanation," Report of the Eighth Congress of the International Musicological Society, ed. by Jan LaRue. Volume 2: reports. New York: American Musicological Society [Basel: Bärenreiter Kassel], 1962, 3-18.
- Monn, Mathias Georg. Concerto per Cembalo, 2 Violins, Viola et Basso. D-Bds: Music Manuscript 14630/7. Staatsbibliothek der Stiftung Preußischer Kulturbesitz; Musikabteilung. Berlin.
- Mozart, Leopold. A Treatise on the Fundamental Principles of Violin Playing, trans. Editha Knocker. Second edition. London: Oxford University Press, 1951.
- Neue Ausgabe Sämtliche Werke in Verbindung mit den Mozartstädten Ausgabe, Alzburg, und Wien; Herausgegeben von der Internationalen Stiftung Mozarteum Salzburg. Serie V: Konzert; Werkgruppe 15: Konzert für ein oder mehrer Klavier und Orchester mit Kadenzen: Band I. Basel: Bärenreiter Kassel, 1972.
- Palisca, Claude V. Baroque Music. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968.
- Pauly, Reinhard G. Music in the Classic Period. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965.
- Quantz, Johann Joachim. On Playing the Flute, trans. Edward R. Reiley. New York: Free Press, 1966.
- Riemann, Hugo. Musik Lexicon, ed. Willibald Gurlitt. 3 volumes. Mainz: B. Schott's Söhne, 1959-67.

Rosen, Charles. The Classical Style: Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven. New York: W.W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1972.

Sonnleithner, Joseph. Biographische Notizen über Monn; Monatsberich der Gellschaft der Musikfreunde des Österreichisten Kaiserstaates. volume 4. Berlin, 1840.

Stevens, Jane R. "An Eighteenth Century Description of Concerto First Movement Form," Journal of the American Musicological Society, 24, Spring (1974), 85-95.

Strunk, Oliver. Source Readings in Music History: The Classical Era. New York: W.W. Norton and Co., 1965.

Tischler, Hans. A Structural Analysis of Mozart's Piano Concertos. New York: The Institute of Mediaeval Music, Ltd., 1966.

Veinus, Abraham. The Concerto. New York: Dover Publications Inc., 1944; reprint ed., 1964.

APPENDIX

TABLE 7
SELECTED WORKS BY MONN AS FOUND IN
TRAEG AND FISCHER

Work	Number in Traeg	Extant
Symphony for two flutes, three horns, bassoon, two violins and bass.....	6	1
Symphonies for string quartet.....	18	11
Symphonies for divertimenti à 3.....	15	12
Terzette for two violins and bass....	4	1
Suites for flute, violin, and cello..	3	0
Trios for flute, violin, and cello...	2	0
Sonatas for violin and bass.....	1	1
Concertos for harpsichord, with string orchestra.....	11	10
Concerto for harpsichord and flute with string accompaniment.....	1	1
Divertimenti for harpsichord.....	9	14
Suites for harpsichord.....	27	
Concerto for cello with string orchestra accompaniment.....	1	1

THE EDITION

The present edition represents an exact reproduction, in score form, of the manuscript parts. The original beaming of notes has been maintained, as have the spelling and punctuation variants of the dynamic indications. Any and all additions or changes which are the result of the editing process are clearly marked. Added slurs are indicated by , and all other additions are enclosed in brackets or explained in footnotes. When it appeared advisable to alter a pitch, the original pitch, using octave designation, is given in an accompanying footnote. Problems of alignment are discussed in the first section of this thesis. Measure numbers appear in the First Violin and Keyboard parts at the beginning of each brace.

Concerto in C

per

Cambridge

Violini

Viola et Bassa

Del Signor L. M. & Sonn

Concerto

per

Centolo

2. Violino

Viola et Basso

Del Sig. D. M. Moan

Staatsbibliothek der Stiftung Preussischer Kulturbesitz - Musikabteilung

I Berlin 33 - Ancharstraße 12-14

D. Bds.: Mus. Ms. 14630/7 = Jücker Verzeichnis #35

C. Major

Manuscript of the Principal Allegro

Allergro

Violin I

Violin II

Viola

Cello

Handwritten musical score for Violin I, Violin II, Viola, and Cello, measures 1-16. The score is written in common time (C) and features a complex, rhythmic melody. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and dynamic markings. The score is divided into four systems, each containing staves for Violin I, Violin II, Viola, and Cello. The first system (measures 1-5) includes a measure number '5' above the Violin I staff. The second system (measures 6-10) includes a measure number '10' above the Violin I staff. The third system (measures 11-15) includes a measure number '11' above the Violin I staff. The fourth system (measures 16-18) includes a measure number '16' above the Violin I staff. The score is marked with various dynamics including *f*, *p*, *sf*, and *fp*. The tempo is marked *Allergro* at the top left.

This page of musical notation, numbered 78, contains a complex arrangement for piano. It consists of 16 staves, organized into four systems of four staves each. The notation is dense, featuring a variety of rhythmic values including sixteenth, thirty-second, and sixty-fourth notes, as well as rests and ties. Dynamic markings such as *tu*, *fini*, and *h* are present throughout the score. The piece begins with a series of rapid sixteenth-note passages in the upper staves, which transition into more complex rhythmic patterns involving ties and rests. The lower staves provide a steady accompaniment with a mix of eighth and sixteenth notes. The notation is written in a standard musical format with a key signature of one flat and a time signature of 4/4. The overall style is characteristic of late 19th or early 20th-century piano music, emphasizing technical virtuosity and intricate rhythmic detail.

This page contains a handwritten musical score, identified by the page number 79 in the top right and the system number 46 in the top center. The score is written on 18 staves, organized into six systems of three staves each. The notation is in black ink on aged paper. The first system (staves 1-3) begins with a treble clef and a key signature of one flat (B-flat). The second system (staves 4-6) continues the melody and includes a measure marked with a '50'. The third system (staves 7-9) features a measure marked with a '55'. The fourth system (staves 10-12) includes a measure marked with a '60'. The fifth system (staves 13-15) and the sixth system (staves 16-18) complete the page's notation. The handwriting is fluid and characteristic of a composer's draft. Various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and clefs are used throughout the score.

This page contains a handwritten musical score, likely for a piano or similar instrument. The score is organized into four systems, each consisting of five staves. The notation is written in black ink on aged paper. The first system (measures 65-70) features a complex melody in the upper staves and a more rhythmic accompaniment in the lower staves. The second system (measures 71-76) continues the melodic line with some rests and includes a measure number '75' above the fourth staff. The third system (measures 77-82) shows a continuation of the melodic and accompanimental parts, with a measure number '80' above the fourth staff. The fourth system (measures 83-88) concludes the page with a final melodic phrase and a bass line. The handwriting is clear, and the notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, bar lines, and dynamic markings.

This page of musical notation, page 81, contains multiple staves of music. The notation is complex, featuring many sixteenth and thirty-second notes, often beamed together in groups. The music is written in a key with one sharp (F#) and a common time signature (C). The notation includes various musical symbols such as stems, beams, and note heads. There are also dynamic markings: *pia* (piano) at the bottom left, *forte* in the middle right, and *for(te)* at the bottom right. The page is numbered 81 in the top right corner.

This page of musical notation consists of 18 staves, organized into six systems of three staves each. The notation is handwritten and includes a variety of musical symbols:

- Clefs:** Treble and bass clefs are used throughout the score.
- Time Signature:** The time signature is not explicitly stated but appears to be common time (C) based on the note values.
- Notes and Rests:** The notation includes quarter, eighth, and sixteenth notes, as well as various rests.
- Dynamic Markings:** The markings *p* (piano) and *f* (forte) are present, indicating changes in volume.
- Articulation:** Accents and slurs are used to indicate phrasing and emphasis.
- Other Symbols:** There are several small, illegible markings and symbols, possibly indicating fingerings or performance instructions.

The notation is dense and complex, suggesting a piece of music with a high level of technical difficulty. The handwriting is clear and legible, typical of a professional manuscript.

This page of musical notation, page 83, contains a complex arrangement of multiple staves. The notation is written in a standard musical staff format with various note values, rests, and dynamic markings. The piece begins with a 'Tutti' marking, indicating a change in tempo or mood. The notation is dense, with many notes and rests, suggesting a fast and intricate composition. The page is numbered 83 in the top right corner.

Tutti

p

This page of handwritten musical notation, numbered 84, contains ten systems of staves. The notation is dense and complex, featuring a variety of rhythmic values, including many beamed sixteenth and thirty-second notes. The music is written in treble and bass clefs across multiple systems. Dynamic markings such as *f* (forte) and *p* (piano) are visible throughout the score. The handwriting is in black ink on aged paper, and the overall style suggests a historical or manuscript-based musical score.

This page of handwritten musical notation, numbered 85, contains four systems of staves. The notation is highly complex, featuring a dense arrangement of beamed sixteenth and thirty-second notes, suggesting a fast tempo. The score is written in a single key and includes various musical markings such as *p* (piano), *f* (forte), *sf* (sforzando), and *h* (accidental). The first system begins with a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). The notation is dense and intricate, with many beamed notes and slurs. The second system continues the complex melodic and harmonic development. The third system features a variety of dynamic markings and includes a section with a key signature change to one flat (Bb). The fourth system concludes the page with a final cadence and a key signature change to one flat (Bb). The handwriting is clear and professional, typical of a composer's fair copy.

VITA

Stephen Wilson Jackson was born in Chattanooga, Tennessee on May 21, 1952. He attended schools in that city and graduated from the McCallie School in June, 1970. The following September he entered Furman University in Greenville, South Carolina, and in June, 1974, he received a Bachelor of Music degree in piano performance. In the fall of 1974 he accepted a teaching assistantship to Northwestern University, where he served as coach-accompanist for the Northwestern University Opera Workshop under the direction of Robert Gay. In the fall of 1975, Mr. Jackson entered the University of Tennessee and began study toward a Master's degree in musicology.

Mr. Jackson then attended the Goethe Institut in Prien-am-Chiemsee, West Germany, in the summer of 1977, and entered the doctoral program in musicology at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill that same fall. During the 1979-80 season, Mr. Jackson served as Assistant Music Director of the Charlotte (N.C.) Opera Association, participating in the production of Aida, The Magic Flute, and The Elixer of Love.

After completion of his M.A. degree from the University of Tennessee in the fall of 1980, Mr. Jackson will study

in the Federal Republic of Germany, under the auspices of
the Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (DAAD).