Baroque and Classical Music

Baroque and classical music are similar but not the same. Here's a rough guide to both types...

Paroque Composers Used Major and Minor Scales



- 1) From about 1600, Western composers stopped writing modal (p.21) music.
- Instead they used major and minor keys to write tonal music. This was a big change. In Western countries, most music is still tonal, hundreds of years later.
- 3) Modulating (switching between keys see p.38) turned out to be a good way of creating contrast in music.
- Composers developed new structures for organising music using modulation and contrast, e.g. binary, ternary and rondo forms (see next page).

Baroque has a Recognisable Sound

Baroque music's pretty easy to recognise. These are the main things to look out for in the Listening:

- 1) The dynamics change suddenly. Each bit is either loud or soft. You won't hear any gradual changes in volume — no crescendos or diminuendos. This is called terraced or stepped dynamics.
- The melody's built up from short musical ideas (called motifs), so you get a fair bit of repetition.
- The <u>harmonies</u> are simple, with a fairly narrow range of chords mainly I and V.
- The melody is packed with ornaments, added in to make it sound more interesting (see p.83).
- 5) The <u>texture</u>'s often <u>contrapuntal</u> (polyphonic see p.39).

Most Baroque Music had a Basso Continuo

- A basso continuo is a continuous bass part. It's played throughout a piece, and the chords are based on it.
- It was often played on an organ or harpsichord (harpsichords were popular Baroque instruments). It could also be played by more than one instrument - e.g. cellos, double basses and bassoons.
- Other Baroque instruments are the flute, recorder, oboe, bassoon and orchestral strings (violins, violas, cellos and double basses).



Baroque Turned into Classical Music

Classical music grew out of Baroque, so it's similar but not the same.

- Classical tunes are very balanced. They tend to have equal four-bar phrases, split into a two-bar question and a two-bar answer.
- 2) Classical music uses fewer ornaments.
- Classical composers still wrote in binary, ternary, and rondo forms, but they also came up with a new structure called sonata form (p.91).
- 4) The dynamics are more subtle, using crescendos and diminuendos, not just changing suddenly.
- 5) New instruments and groups changed the sound:
 - The piano was invented in about 1700. It became much more popular than the harpsichord because you could vary the dynamics. Classical composers include the piano in a lot of their music.
 - The <u>clarinet</u> was invented around this time too.
 - Orchestras got bigger they had more woodwind, trumpets and horns, and larger string sections.

What was life like before the piano was invented...

In the listening exam they might ask who wrote the piece on the CD. If you're stuck, try one of these: Baroque — Bach, Handel, Vivaldi or Purcell; Classical — Mozart, Haydn or Beethoven.



Baroque Choral Music

Baroque composers wrote a lot of choral music — some of it's still performed today.

Choral Music is Sung by Choirs and Soloists

Choral music can be sacred (religious) or secular (non-religious).

SACRED MUSIC

MASS Part of the Catholic church service set to music.

REQUIEM Mass for the dead.

CHORALE A hymn.

ORATORIO Religious version of an opera, often telling Bible stories.

CANTATA Vocal pieces made up of two or three arias, separated

by recitatives (see below).

SECULAR MUSIC

OPERA A story set to music with singing and acting. Most operas

were divided up into three parts (or 'Acts').

The main types of Baroque opera were:

Opera Seria (serious, often mythological themes),

(lighter, more everyday themes) Opera Buffa Opéra Comique (like Opera Buffa, but with some spoken recitatives),

Operetta (not big enough to be a proper opera).

CANTATA You can get secular cantatas as well.

Operas, Oratorios and Cantatas Have 3 Main Types of Song

1) ARIA

An aria is a solo vocal piece (backed by the orchestra). It gives the main characters the chance to show what they're thinking and feeling. In England and France, they could be called 'airs' instead.

2) RECITATIVE

A recitative is a song which tells the story and moves it along. The rhythm of the words tends to imitate the rhythm of normal speech.

3) CHORUS

A chorus is sung by the chorus (a choir). Choruses are usually written for SATB choirs (Sopranos, Altos, Tenors and Basses). Most Baroque choirs were all male — the highest parts would be sung by boy sopranos (also called trebles, see p.76).

Oratorios are Religious Versions of Operas

- 1) Oratorios often tell <u>Bible stories</u>, or tales with a <u>religious</u> or <u>moral</u> theme.
- They're not usually acted out with scenery and costumes (like operas are).
- They normally have an instrumental accompaniment.
- They can be performed in concert halls as well as churches.

Anyone for a sing-song then...

Make sure you know the difference between sacred and secular music, and can give examples of each. Being able to describe the different types of songs in operas, oratorios and cantatas will be useful too.

The Classical Orchestra

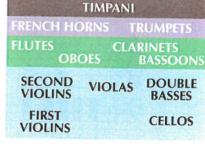
After Baroque came Classical music. You need to know what a Classical orchestra was like.

Orchestral Music was Written for Wealthy Audiences

- 1) The Classical period began around <u>1750</u>. Then, composers worked for <u>royalty</u> and <u>aristocrats</u>. They were <u>paid</u> to write music for <u>official events</u>, <u>church services</u> and plain old <u>entertainment</u>. Composers had to write music that their <u>patrons</u> (employers) would <u>approve of</u>.
- 2) <u>Later</u> in the Classical period, society <u>changed</u>. Middle-class people had more <u>money</u> and wanted entertainment. <u>Public concert halls</u> were built, where people could go to listen to music.
- 3) Famous Classical composers like <u>Haydn</u> and <u>Mozart</u> worked for patrons, but they also put on concerts in the new concert halls.
- 4) By the <u>1800s</u>, composers could earn quite a bit of money from ticket sales at concert halls. This gave them more <u>freedom</u> they could write for the tastes of <u>concert-goers</u> instead of just pleasing their patrons.

Orchestras Grew During the Classical Period

- 1) At the start of the Classical period, composers wrote for <u>smallish</u> orchestras mainly <u>strings</u>, with <u>horns</u>, <u>flutes</u> and <u>oboes</u>. There'd be two horns and one or two woodwind.
- 2) Later on, the <u>woodwind</u> section <u>grew</u> <u>clarinets</u> were invented during the Classical period, and were included in the orchestra. <u>Mozart</u> was the first composer to use the clarinet in a symphony. <u>Bassoons</u> were introduced too.
- 3) <u>Trumpets</u> were added to the <u>brass</u> section, and <u>timpani</u> were included in the <u>percussion</u> section.
- 4) In some <u>early</u> Classical music, there'd be a <u>harpsichord</u> (see p.62), but after a while composers <u>stopped</u> using it. The harpsichord was there to fill in the <u>harmonies</u>, but it wasn't really needed once the extra woodwind had been added.
- 5) This is a fairly typical layout for a later Classical orchestra:



Classical Orchestras Mostly Used Stringed Instruments

- The most important section in a Classical orchestra is the <u>strings</u>. They're the dominant sound in most Classical music. The <u>violins</u> generally play most of the <u>tunes</u>.
- 2) The <u>wind</u> instruments play extra notes to fill out the <u>harmony</u>. When they do get the tune, they mostly <u>double</u> the string parts.
- 3) You do hear the occasional wind <u>solo</u>. Orchestral pieces called <u>concertos</u> (p.89-90) feature one or two <u>solo instruments</u> accompanied by an orchestra.
- 4) In later Classical music, the woodwind section started to have a more <u>independent role</u>. They'd sometimes play the tune <u>alone</u>, and there'd be more solos. The strings were still really important though.

You've got to know how it all fits together ...

Orchestras grew in size because composers in the Classical period began to include <u>more parts</u> for different instruments. This gave rise to a greater <u>variety</u> of music later in the Classical period.

The Classical Style

A whole page about the features of Classical music... enjoy.

Classical Melodies Have a Clear, Simple Structure

Classical music sounds <u>clearer</u> and <u>simpler</u> than music from other periods. This is partly because the tunes are structured in a very straightforward way, with <u>short</u>, <u>balanced</u> 2- or 4-bar phrases.

Here's an extract from Haydn's Clock Symphony:

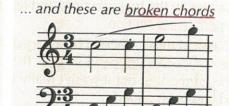


And here's a bit from Mozart's Symphony No. 40 in G minor, with the same balanced question and answer phrasing:



Classical Textures are Mainly Tune and Chords

- 1) Most Classical music has just one tune with accompanying chords. This makes the tune really stand out. It's called homosphonic texture (see page 39).
- 2) These accompanying chords can be played in different ways:



3) Polyphony — where several tunes weave in and out of each other — is used too, but not so often.

Classical Music Uses Major and Minor Keys

Classical music's always in either a major or minor key — the tonality is major or minor.

Bright, cheery bits are in major keys and gloomy, sad bits are in minor keys. And...

...Classical harmony is what's known as diatonic — nearly all the notes belong to the main key.

The Beat is Obvious and Easy to Follow

- 1) The metre in Classical music is very regular. You can happily tap your foot in time to the music.
- 2) The <u>tempo</u> stays <u>constant</u> the speed of the beat stays pretty much the same all the way through, without massively speeding up or slowing down.

Classical style — a wig, tailcoat and breeches...

Knowing these <u>key features</u> is useful if you're asked to describe music from the Classical period. Make a <u>list</u> of them all, then <u>learn</u> it. Keep going back over it to check you know them <u>off by heart</u>.

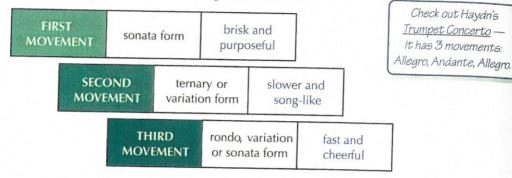
Classical Structures

Almost done with concertos — then it's on to symphonies and sonatas.

Classical Concertos Have a Standard Structure

All concertos follow the same basic plan.

The three movements traditionally have the following characteristics:



Check out Haydn's

Trumpet Concerto -

it has 3 movements.

A Symphony is Played by a Full Orchestra

- 1) A symphony is a massive piece. They can last more than an hour and have real impact because they use the full orchestra.
- Symphonies usually have four movements (but some have three, and they can have more than four). The contrast between the movements is important.
- At least one of the movements is in sonata form (see next page) usually the <u>first</u>, and sometimes the <u>last</u>.
- 4) Haydn, Mozart and Beethoven all wrote symphonies.

Sonatas are for One or Two Instruments

- Sonatas are mostly written for one instrument, but there are some sonatas for two instruments and a few for two types of instrument, each type playing different parts.
- 2) A sonata usually has three or four movements, with breaks in between them.
- 3) A sonata has a similar <u>structure</u> to a <u>symphony</u> it has one or more movements in <u>sonata form</u>.

Classical Composers Wrote Overtures and Suites Too

- An overture is a one-movement piece for orchestra.
- 2) Overtures are written as introductions to larger works like operas and ballets.
- 3) They use ideas, moods and musical themes from the main work to prepare the audience.
- 4) Classical orchestral <u>suites</u> are another offshoot of ballets and operas.
- A suite is an orchestral arrangement of the music used to accompany the action on stage, put together as a separate piece of music and played at concerts.

Classical composers churned out a lot of music...

Classical composers were real masters of form and structure. They liked their music to be carefully constructed and beautifully balanced, with helpful hints to what was coming next. How kind of them.

Classical Structures

<u>Sonata form</u> is a really important structure in Classical music — most <u>sonatas</u> and <u>symphonies</u> had at <u>least one movement</u> in sonata form.

A Piece in Sonata Form has Three Main Sections

Exposition Development Recapitulation

Themes are "exposed"

— heard for the first time.

Themes go through a number of interesting twists and turns.

Themes are "recapped"
— played again.

- 1) The <u>exposition</u> has two <u>contrasting themes</u>. It ends in a <u>different</u> (but related) key to the one it started in.
- 2) The <u>development</u> keeps the piece <u>interesting</u> the themes are taken through lots of <u>variations</u>.
- 3) The <u>recapitulation</u> pulls it all <u>together</u> again the themes from the exposition are <u>repeated</u>. They're usually <u>changed</u> a bit the composer might add <u>ornaments</u> (see p.83) or <u>shorten</u> them.
- 4) Composers sometimes use <u>bridge sections</u> between the themes and <u>links</u> between the main sections. They usually add a <u>coda</u> to finish off the piece <u>neatly</u> as well.

Musical Signposts Tell You What's Coming Next

The most obvious clue that a new section is starting in Classical music is a <u>change of key</u>. Classical composers were also keen on dropping <u>advance hints</u> that a new section was about to start. These hints are called <u>musical signposts</u>. They're not all that easy to spot at first, but with a bit of practice you should get the hang of it:

- 1) Bridge passages lead smoothly into the new theme and also help prepare the new key.
- 2) <u>Cadences</u> (p.36-37) clearly mark the end of a phrase or section, and they come at the end of a piece too. When they do, the chords used in the cadence are repeated several times, to let the audience know it's all over.

There are Standard Forms for 4-Movement Compositions

Sonatas and symphonies all follow the same basic plan. These are the traditional forms used by composers for each of the movements.

MOVEMENT	consta torm	
SECOND	ternary or	slower and
MOVEMENT	variation form	songlike
THIRD	minuet	fairly fast and
MOVEMENT	or scherzo	dance-like
FOURTH	rondo, variation	fast and
MOVEMENT	or sonata form	cheerful

This one's <u>left out</u> of <u>sonatas</u> <u>in three movements</u>.

It's complicated, but that's no excuse for not knowing it ...

Sonata form is <u>very sophisticated</u>. Don't get muddled up between <u>sonata form</u> and <u>sonatas</u>. Sonatas <u>use</u> sonata form for the first movement, and sometimes the last one too, but not the second.

Mozart — 1st Movement from Symphony No. 40 in G minor

Make sure you're <u>familiar</u> with the first movement of Mozart's <u>Symphony No. 40</u> — <u>listen</u> to it <u>over and over again</u> until you can <u>whistle</u> it in your <u>sleep</u>.

Mozart was an Austrian Composer



- 1) Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart was born in Salzburg, Austria in 1756. He died in Vienna in 1791.
- 2) He was taught <u>performance</u> and <u>composition</u> by his father, <u>Leopold Mozart</u>, who was also a composer.
- 3) Wolfgang showed his <u>musical talent</u> at a very <u>young</u> age he composed his first piece of music when he was just <u>5 years old</u>. By the time he was <u>10</u> he had <u>toured Europe</u>, performed for <u>kings</u> and <u>queens</u> and written his first <u>opera</u>.
- 4) He went on to write over <u>600</u> pieces of music, including <u>operas</u>, <u>masses</u>, <u>symphonies</u> and <u>concertos</u>. He also wrote smaller works, like <u>chamber music</u> and <u>string quartets</u>.
- 5) He's still considered to be one of the greatest composers that ever lived.

He Wrote Lots of Symphonies

- 1) Mozart wrote over <u>40</u> symphonies in his short life.
- 2) He wrote most of his symphonies before he was <u>25</u>, then took a <u>break</u> from them he could make <u>more money</u> from composing <u>concertos</u>, and get a <u>better reputation</u> from writing <u>operas</u>.
- 3) He <u>returned</u> to symphonies later on <u>Symphony No. 40</u> was written in <u>1788</u>. It's one of only two of his symphonies in a <u>minor key</u> (*Symphony No. 25* and *Symphony No. 40*, both in <u>G minor</u>).
- 4) He wrote Symphony No. 40 and two others in just 6 weeks.

Symphony No. 40 was Written for a Small Orchestra

- 1) This symphony is written for a <u>fairly small orchestra</u> there's <u>no percussion</u> at all, and the only brass instruments are the <u>French horns</u> (there are no <u>trumpets</u>).
- 2) The original version didn't have <u>clarinets</u> because they'd only just been invented. Mozart wrote <u>another</u>, <u>later version</u> that included them.

It has Four Movements

Like most symphonies, *Symphony No. 40 in G minor* has <u>four movements</u>. What's <u>unusual</u> is that Mozart uses <u>sonata form</u> (see p.91) for <u>three</u> movements, instead of just one or two. The <u>names</u> of the movements are just the <u>tempos</u>.

FIRST MOVEMENT Molto Allegro (very fast) — sonata form.

SECOND MOVEMENT Andante (walking pace) — sonata form.

THIRD MOVEMENT Allegretto (in between andante and allegro) — minuet and trio form (see p.80).

FOURTH MOVEMENT Allegro assai (very, very fast) — sonata form.

Mozart wrote operas, masses, symphonies, concertos...

If you're reading this book, it's a safe bet that you will have heard of this Mozart chap. If not, then this is the page for you. Read it, learn it, and then cover it up and try to write a mini-essay on it...

Mozart — 1st Movement from Symphony No. 40 in G minor

This movement is in sonata form. Make sure you know the three different sections of this form (see p.91).

Bars 1-100 are the Exposition

FIRST SUBJECT (BARS 1-28)

- 1) The <u>first idea</u> lasts from bar 1 to bar 9 (there's <u>no introduction</u>), then the <u>second idea</u> is heard in bars 9-14.
- Bars 1-5 are shown on p.88. Both ideas are played by the <u>violins</u> (the two parts are playing in <u>octaves</u>).

 The first three notes of the first idea are <u>repeated</u> throughout the first subject the second idea <u>starts</u> with these notes but a <u>6th higher</u>.
- 3) This movement is marked <u>p</u> (piano) at the start, which is very <u>unusual</u> for a Classical symphony they normally have a <u>loud</u> opening.
- 4) It's in <u>G minor</u>, but it <u>modulates</u> (changes key) to <u>B</u> major when the subject is <u>repeated</u> in bars 20-28.

TRANSITION or BRIDGE PASSAGE (BARS 28-43)

- 1) This section is \underline{f} (forte) all the way through, with lots of \underline{sfz} (sforzandos) from bar 34.
- 2) This section begins in B major, but extra chromatic notes (notes that don't fit in the key) add tension.
- 3) The violins play a <u>descending sequence</u> from bars 30-33, over a lower string <u>tremolo</u> with <u>sustained notes</u> from the upper woodwind.

SECOND SUBJECT (BARS 44-72)

- 1) The second subject's in B major, though Mozart uses a lot of chromatic notes in this bit.
- 2) The strings play the theme first, then the woodwind repeat it at bar 52.
- 3) Mozart uses <u>ornaments</u> (see p.83) for the first time here the woodwind play <u>trills</u> in bar 65.

CODETTA (BARS 72-100)

- 1) A <u>codetta</u> is like a <u>mini coda</u> it's used to <u>finish</u> off the exposition section.
- 2) There's lots of <u>imitation</u> (see p.82) between the <u>clarinet</u> and the <u>bassoon</u>.
- 3) The key changes back from \underline{B} major to \underline{G} minor at the end of this bit.
- 4) The whole of the exposition is <u>repeated</u>.

The Development Section is Bars 101-164

- 1) The <u>harmonies</u> are more <u>chromatic</u> in this bit.
- 2) The development section begins in <u>F# minor</u>, but it <u>explores</u> many <u>different keys</u> e.g. bars 118-128.
- 3) From bar 140, Mozart uses lots of <u>pedal points</u> (see p.86).

Bars 164-299 are the Recapitulation

- 1) The <u>first subject</u> (bars 164-184) is <u>exactly the same</u> as in the <u>exposition</u>.
- 2) The <u>bridge passage</u> is much <u>longer</u> this time it lasts from bar 184 to bar 227. It passes through quite a few keys including <u>b major</u>, <u>F minor</u> and <u>D major</u>. It's <u>polyphonic</u> in bars 202-210, there's a <u>sequence</u> being played in <u>canon</u> between <u>Violin I</u> and the <u>lower strings</u>.
- 3) The <u>second subject</u> (bars 227-260) is <u>shared</u> between the <u>woodwind</u> and the <u>strings</u>. Now it's in <u>G minor</u>, and there are some <u>ascending chromatic</u> notes in the <u>bass</u> parts from bar 245.
- 4) The <u>coda</u> (bars 260-299) is an <u>extended</u> version of the <u>codetta</u>. It finishes with <u>four G minor chords</u> it's really <u>obvious</u> that the movement's finished.

A codetta is a baby coda...

Make yourself really familiar with this movement — pay attention to the different features of each bit.

SECTION FIVE — WESTERN CLASSICAL MUSIC

All the music in the <u>development</u> section is based on the <u>first idea</u>

from the exposition.

Opera and Oratorio

Opera and oratorio are forms you'll need to know for <u>listening</u>. If you write a whole oratorio for your composition, the examiners will be so impressed they'll probably fall down in a <u>faint</u>. Very undignified.

operas are Like Plays Set to Music

- 1) The main characters are played by solo singers.
- 2) The main characters are supported by a <u>chorus</u> and an <u>orchestra</u>.
- The story is <u>acted out</u> usually with <u>lavish sets</u>, <u>costumes</u> and <u>special effects</u>.
- 4) In some operas <u>every single word</u> is sung in others there's a bit of <u>talking</u> from time to time.
- 5) Some operas have really serious, <u>tragic</u> themes.
 Others are more light-hearted and <u>comic</u>. These are the names for the main types.
- 6) The words of an opera are called the '<u>libretto</u>'.

 This is often written by a 'librettist' working alongside the composer.

Grand opera	serious, set entirely to music	
Opéra comique	some spoken dialogue	
Opera buffa	comic opera	
Opera seria	formal, serious opera	

In Opera There are Three Types of Singing

ARIA

- 1) An <u>aria</u> is a <u>solo</u> vocal piece, backed by the orchestra.
- 2) Arias are used to go into the emotions of the main characters.
- The arias have the memorable, exciting tunes. They're challenging for the performers and let them show their vocal tone and agility.

RECITATIVE

- Recitative is a half-spoken, half-singing style used for some <u>conversations</u>.
- Recitativo secco is recitative that's unaccompanied or backed by simple chords.
- Recitativo stromentato or accompagnato is recitative with orchestral backing.
 The accompaniment's used to increase the <u>dramatic tension</u> of the words.

CHORUS — A bit where the whole chorus sings together.

Oratorio is the Religious Version of Opera

- 1) An oratorio has arias, recitatives and choruses just like an opera.
- 2) Oratorios usually have a <u>religious theme</u>. They're based on <u>traditional stories</u>, sometimes from the Bible.
- 3) Oratorios don't usually have scenery, costumes or action they're not acted out.
- 4) Oratorios were written mainly for <u>concert</u> or <u>church</u> performance.

COMPOSER	LIVED	FAMOUS ORATORIO
Carissimi	1605-1674	Jephte
Handel	1685-1759	Messiah
Hadyn ·	1732-1809	The Creation
Berlioz	1803-1869	L'Enfance du Christ
Mendelssohn	1809-1847	Elijah
Elgar	1857-1934	The Dream of Gerontius
Walton	1902-1983	Belshazzar's Feast

Smaller Vocal Pieces

These songs are shorter than operas, but you still need to know their forms.

Lots of Music Was Written to be Sung in Church

CANTATA

Some things in a <u>cantata</u> are similar to <u>oratorio</u>. The performers are <u>solo singers</u>, a <u>chorus</u> and an <u>orchestra</u>. There's <u>no scenery</u> and <u>no acting</u> and they were written to be performed in a <u>church</u> or <u>concert hall</u>.

The <u>difference</u> is that the <u>words</u> are taken from books or poems — they're not specially written. Most cantatas have a religious theme — but <u>not all</u> of them.

CHORALE

<u>Chorales</u> are hymns. They have <u>simple language</u> and a melody that's <u>easy to sing</u>. <u>I.S. Bach</u> wrote lots of them. Here's a bit from a chorale he put in *St. Matthew's Passion*.



MOTET & ANTHEM

A <u>motet</u>'s a short piece written to be performed by the <u>choir</u> in church. They're written for <u>Roman Catholic</u> churches and the words are often in <u>Latin</u>. Motets are <u>polyphonic</u> — see p.39.

An <u>anthem</u> is very similar to a motet except they're written for <u>Protestant</u> churches, so the words aren't in Latin.

MASS

The <u>mass</u> is the name of a Roman Catholic church service — these parts of the mass are sung by the choir, or the choir and soloists:

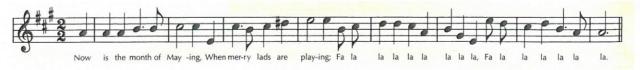
Musical settings of the Mass were originally written to be <u>used in church</u>, but nowadays they're played in concerts, too. The text is usually in <u>Latin</u>.

- Kyrie Lord have mercy...
- Gloria Glory be to God on high...
- Credo I believe in one God…
- Sanctus Holy, holy, holy...
 - Benedictus Blessed is He...
- Agnus Dei O Lamb of God...

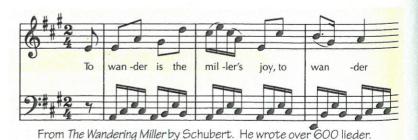
(Some of them are quite long, so I've only given you the starting bits.)

Madrigals and Lieder are Non-Religious

Most madrigals were written in the <u>1500s</u> and <u>1600s</u>. They're about love or the countryside — or both. Most have <u>no accompaniment</u> and each person sings a <u>different part</u>. Madrigals often use <u>imitation</u> (see p.82).



A <u>lied</u>'s a <u>song</u> for <u>one singer</u> and a <u>piano</u>. Both parts are equally important. The words really matter too — they're usually based on <u>poems</u>. Lieder were massively popular in the <u>German Romantic</u> period (late 18th to early 19th century) — there's more about them on p.100.



They don't seem to have mentioned karaoke...

Several more types of music to learn about here, but then that's it for this section. Cover the page and see if you can remember them all — if not, back to the top of the page and read 'em again..