

Gardner-Webb University

## Digital Commons @ Gardner-Webb University

---

The Etude Magazine: 1883-1957

John R. Dover Memorial Library

---

1-1-1888

### Volume 06, Number 01 (January 1888)

Theodore Presser

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.gardner-webb.edu/etude>



Part of the [Composition Commons](#), [Ethnomusicology Commons](#), [Fine Arts Commons](#), [History Commons](#), [Liturgy and Worship Commons](#), [Music Education Commons](#), [Musicology Commons](#), [Music Pedagogy Commons](#), [Music Performance Commons](#), [Music Practice Commons](#), and the [Music Theory Commons](#)

---

#### Recommended Citation

Presser, Theodore (ed.). The Etude. Vol. 06, No. 01. Philadelphia: Theodore Presser Company, January 1888. The Etude Magazine: 1883-1957. Compiled by Pamela R. Dennis. Digital Commons @ Gardner-Webb University, Boiling Springs, NC. <https://digitalcommons.gardner-webb.edu/etude/312>

This Book is brought to you for free and open access by the John R. Dover Memorial Library at Digital Commons @ Gardner-Webb University. It has been accepted for inclusion in The Etude Magazine: 1883-1957 by an authorized administrator of Digital Commons @ Gardner-Webb University. For more information, please contact [digitalcommons@gardner-webb.edu](mailto:digitalcommons@gardner-webb.edu).

# THE ETUDE.

VOL. VI.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., JANUARY, 1888.

NO. 1.

## THE ETUDE.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., JANUARY, 1888.

A Monthly Publication for Teachers and Students of the Piano-forte.

SUBSCRIPTION RATES, \$1.50 PER YEAR (payable in advance). Single Copy, 15 cents.

The courts have decided that all subscribers to newspapers are held responsible until arrears are paid and their papers are ordered to be discontinued.

THEODORE PRESSER,

4704 Chestnut Street, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

EDITORS.

W. B. MATTHEWS, JOHN S. VAN CLEVE,  
JOHN C. FILLMORE, JAMES HUNCKER,  
MR. HILLEN N. HARTLEY,  
Managing Editor, THEODORE PRESSER.

(Directed at Philadelphia Post Office as Second-class Matter)

### THE LIMITS OF PERSONAL RIGHTS IN PIANO-FORTE PERFORMANCE.

#### II.

A PIANO may be made of steel, but it must not be treated as an iron stool. It is rather an Ariel, imprisoned in a box, fastened in wood, but capable of much wonderful spiriting. The first thing which I should say no pianist has a right to alter is the actual text, written, except in cases where there is an obvious misprint (cases, alas, by no means rare in our day of cheap reprints), or, secondly, in such instances as we frequently find in the Beethoven sonatas, where the idea runs up abruptly against a genuine wall of mechanical limitation. In illustration of the first point—should I find, in some slovenly reprint, a Chopin passage whereal "E" was made flat in the right hand and natural in the left, unless the total connection indicated that he meant a diminished octave, I should, of course, reject it as a false and barbarous reading, a mere blunder of the ink machine.

Of the second point the illustrations are numerous in all Beethoven's piano-forte writings. In the "Tempest" sonata there is a phrase of music having a form which would require it to descend to the "D" or "C" sharp below the fourth space "F" in the bass staff. Now, it is perfectly obvious here that the reason why Beethoven did not write these "B's," "D's" and "C" sharps was that his piano stopped at "F" on the fourth ledger line below. In his mind he heard the extreme tones; to-day we have an instrument that can execute them. Therefore, in playing them in the low octave, where they are spiritually indicated, rather than in the high octave, where they are actually printed, we are not violating, but more perfectly obeying Beethoven's directions. His piano was tongue-tied. Shall we continue to lip after the impediment has been removed? In Balow's edition such filling out of the idea is very frequent, and, for one, make a uniform practice of playing the compositions with Balow's additional tones.

In the second place, every pianist should adhere with the fidelity of bigotry to the phrasing of the music. Occasional slips and inaccuracies in the printed phrase we may find, but wherever the idea is thus badly outlined, agglutinated to ideas distinct from it and segregated from those which are cognate, any musician with a rudimentary knowledge of form and formal development will be able to supply the correction. But, fundamentally as the ideas of legato and staccato are, thousands, tens of thousands, of students in this country have pecked and pounded and persistently perplexed their patient parents, vainly deluded into the thought that when they had hit nearly all the notes in tolerable rhythm the task of the executant was accomplished. There is a better state of things coming about in our country, but

still, pupils are not taught, from the first, to group and divide their tones into intelligible forms, as they are taught to punctuate the books they read.

Phrasing is musical punctuation, and Shakespeare has given us, in the prologue in the Pyramus and Thisbe episode in "A Midsummer Night's Dream," a broadly ludicrous illustration of the nonsense produced by overriding common sense. Such nonsense, alas, is not an absurd exception, but the rule, in the piano-forte playing we hear. It requires, no doubt, close and patient attention to fix the tones in the mind with strict reference to their grouping, but this is fully as important as correct fingering, and he would be a charlatan indeed, who never told his pupils anything about the choice of fingers or the underlying mechanical laws which should direct their selections.

A slavish adherence to the printed text may not be always required of a great virtuoso; indeed, there are passages in the works of all great masters where the intuitions of the artist would suggest changes from the printed text; changes, however, in the direction of clearer unfolding of the radical ideas. No intelligent concert-goer would unduly criticize such modifications if they were sufficiently distinct and consistent, showing a purpose, and if there was any underlying and discoverable reason for their being made. In certain details of phrasing, but more especially of timing and tempo, of accentuation, of touch, do we find the difference of great artists and their reading of great works. Thus, the Sixth Rhapsody of Liszt from the powerful and impulsive Carreno is a very different thing from the same work played by the exact and self-contained Rivé-King, but such details of difference are both logical and poetic, for it could not be said of either artist that he slights or alters the text materially. Those who justify slovenliness and absurd eccentricities on the ground of inspiration and original conception are, unfortunately, too numerous, and against them is the present philippic directed.

The name piano-forte is significant; soft-loud with the word *harp* understood, is the meaning of the term. It would not take great sentences on the part of a student to suspect, therefore, that variations of intensity are easily made by this instrument, and are inherent in its very nature, since from that one peculiarity its name is derived. It was said, with more wit than truth, that Mr. Raphael Joseffy was a *piano* player, but not a *piano-forte* player, because his pianissimo is so exquisite; the converse of this proposition would find more justification, for in all American cities are to be found pianists who regularly do up all the grand compositions of the piano-forte literature every season, and to use a metaphor of the prize ring, they literally "knock them out of time," and not seldom badly damage their shadings, their colorings, and the temperament of the instrument. (Who that ever heard Rubinstein deliver the Emperor concerto of Beethoven can be unaware of the beauty in pianissimo and of the marvellous delicacy residing in this divine instrument, so often and so unjustly taxed with coldness and lack of heart.) These gentlemen are *forte* players, not *piano-forte* players. You hear such "stalwarts" defend themselves for bethumping, betwacking, bethumping the key-board, on the ground that they dislike "tame" playing. Every tasteful connoisseur dislikes tame playing also, but tameness does not arise from pianissimo, but from indistinctness of technique, from overlapping with the pedal, and above all from the universal disregard of accents. Every musician knows that the first beat of a measure is called the *letus*, or down beat, and that it should have a certain degree of stress, yet how seldom do we hear a conscientious and intelligent performance without the accents all in place.

To recur once more to the illustration from the parallel art, elocution, how meaningless and forceless would be a reading of poetry, or any piece of resonant prose, where the accents were feeble.

In conclusion, then, let it be said that a pianist who does conscientiously the things prescribed for him, upon the dead page, cannot wander far from the domain of high, interpretive art. He has accomplished ninety-nine hundredths of his task, and that last grain of personality which he owes us, though it be precious as the mask which, mixed with the mortar, forever perfumes the air of the mosque in Constantinople, is nevertheless, but one per cent. of all that the player has to do.

JOHN S. VAN CLEVE.

### SOME PIANISTS IN AMERICA.

#### II.

Mr. E. B. Perry, of Boston, despite his blindness, plays the piano beautifully.

Barnet Perabo is a good Beethoven player; while John Preston and G. H. Tucker are both making rapid strides in their art.

Mr. George Nowell, a talented pupil of Leschetizski, made quite a hit in his native town, Boston, by his excellent rendering of Weber's Concertstück. He is a promising artist.

Mr. Milo Benedict is a player of the romantic school, and, while lacking a certain vigor, is, withal, a charming player, who, if he only persists in his studies, will be heard of sooner or later.

Mr. Alexander Lambert is a very popular pianist, who has toned down a somewhat exuberant style, so that everything that comes from his fingers is in a good style. He has repose, which, for so young a man, is commendable, and when he overcomes a certain angularity in his playing, will be greatly improved.

Mr. Frederic Boscovitz, a cousin of Joseffy's and a comet in the pianistic world, is a pianist of no mean calibre, although hardly up to the standard of a great classical player. His touch is hard and his phrasing is sharp and even harsh, but he has lots of color, and technique *galore*.

Mr. Angus Spanth is a muscular artist, who believes in music militant, and, like the famous John Patison, Oscar Newell, et al, goes for the keyboard. It should be called the Dynamic School.

John Orth and Otto Bendix are two players of respectable ability, the latter possessing a poetic style and a decided taste for Northern music.

Mr. W. C. Seebach, of Chicago, is one of those artists of whom one cannot predicate anything definite. He has a genuine gift of music both in composition and performance, but here, again, the uncertainty of his musical temperament comes to the foreground and renders his really fine talents almost null.

Dr. Gustav Satter, the "Mephistopheles of the Piano," is another glaring example of a great talent gone to seed for want of ballast. He had an enormous technique and simply one of the finest touches conceivable, but then his performances at times were simply outrageous, and, like his compositions, have drifted into oblivion.

Constantin Sternberg is not a great pianist. His touch is hard and his handling of the instrument clumsy, but he contrives to impress one with the idea of his thorough musicianship. His friend, Mr. F. W. Riesberg, a pupil of Liszt, has lots of dash and brilliancy at the piano, but is as yet a callow virtuoso.

Mr. Emil Liebling, of Chicago, not only plays well but writes excellently (his "Gavotte Moderne" is one of the best of its kind published). His repertory is

Question. Why should a child study music?  
Answer. To support the teacher.  
Q. What sort of a teacher deserves heat to be recommended?  
A. The one that charges less, talks loudest and abuses his fellow teachers most.  
Q. What is the music teacher's first duty?  
A. To teach the child how to play a tune?  
Q. How do teachers manage to get along so well with parents?  
A. They promise everything, pretend to know everything, while in reality they can do nothing well.  
Q. Why is the one has, of course.  
A. Why, the one has, of course. That saves her the expense of buying a new one.  
Q. To show the teacher how to teach.  
Q. How is the child to use its hands?  
A. Let her wave them gracefully; that pleases the people.  
Q. Which piano is the best?  
A. The one that costs the largest percentage for my recommendation.  
Q. What sort of questions should the teacher ask the pupils?  
A. Only such questions as can be answered by "yes" and "no."  
Q. What is the chief aim of a musical education?  
A. To flatter the parents and give the Miss a position in fashionable society.  
Q. What does the teacher do to the child dislikes scales and exercises?  
A. Why, he should not bother the child with them.  
Q. Should the teacher be a pianist?  
A. No! Never! There are restless sort of things, food for nothing! They never get a teacher alone and re-ways up to new-fangled notions.  
Q. Should the teacher read musical journals?  
A. Gracious, no! They are sure to want to play the music in them, and that prevents me from selling them.  
Q. Should pupils study classical music?  
A. By no means! That makes them appear stupid.  
Q. Which system of vocalization do you use?  
A. My own! The rest are all humbug.  
Q. Whose music do you like best, Bach's or Handel's?  
A. Yes.  
Q. How soon do you allow your pupils to play in public?  
A. In the second term always. A teacher who can't accomplish this is no teacher.  
Q. Whose instruction book do you recommend?  
A. The one I always used. It is an old book, to be sure, but that is like my big arm chair. It is easy for me.  
Q. Do you advocate cultivating a child's taste, or do you try to please parents?  
A. I try to please the old folks; they pay the bills. They ought to be pleased. Don't you think so?  
Q. Why do you teach?  
A. Because I can't do anything else.  
Q. Do you like your pupils?  
A. Yes, if they don't worry me, and if their bills are promptly paid.  
Q. You know Mr. A.? Is he a good teacher?  
A. No, sir; all teachers in this town are frauds.  
Q. Have you ever composed any music?  
A. Yes, I have written some Sunday-school music.  
Q. What is the best of the best?  
A. That's a never thought of that. Gassé I will write an oratorio, something like the "Messiah."  
Q. Who was the best?  
A. Myself.—*KARL REUT in Musical World.*



## A DISCUSSION ON PIANO-FORTE STUDY.

At the meeting of the Canadian Society of Musicians, a lively debate occurred which called forth some valuable thoughts from the members present. We append a few extracts:

—In these days the all-absorbing thought in connection with the study of the piano is technique, always technique. Of course it is a most important study; it is one of the indispensable attributes of good piano playing. Without good technical execution, the performer's feeling and fire will not avail him much. The style of his playing must, without good technique, be imperfect, just as a thought, be it ever so beautiful, if it is clothed in poor language, will not leave the impression it otherwise would have done. So, therefore, a good technique is, as I said before, indispensable to good piano playing. To suit the requirements of the present day, one must even possess enormous finger dexterity and everything pertaining to work that would call for great exertion. To suit the requirements of the present day, one must even possess enormous finger dexterity and everything pertaining to work that would call for great exertion. To suit the requirements of the present day, one must even possess enormous finger dexterity and everything pertaining to work that would call for great exertion.

There are so many pupils whose ear has not been cultivated to a liking for good music, and who wish merely for something that has a little melody, and who, you all know what that means—music that has no meaning or poetry. In teaching I would, as far as possible, find out the weak points of the pupil, and strengthen them with studies peculiarly adapted to each case. The pieces I would select for a pupil would be those best adapted to their capacities, something tending to bring out his individuality, and which he could play with confidence. Young players, especially when they are going before the public, should be little troubled as to the difficulties; let them be as free as possible to express their own individuality. The standard to be set for a pupil in the selection of music is the personal and the artistic; the latter, as it should be, I think, my teachers make a mistake in teaching to the pupil ideas, instead of elevating the pupils to their own level. I never cease to be students ourselves. There are many ways in which we can study and improve. Hear all the great artists that can be heard, and as much good music as you possibly can; and, in order to get the greatest possible amount of good from performances of great artists, it is desirable to have a thorough acquaintance beforehand with the music they are to render. It is worth while to spend a few hours in studying the pieces that we expect to hear performed, especially in the branches we teach ourselves, that we may be the better prepared to teach them to our pupils. EDWARD FISHER.

The enormous difficulties attending the mastery of fingering, one must be able to produce a three-once stroke with each finger—that the fingers must be made so strong as to be capable of producing a three-once stroke. Bellow says, that at the present time, a person must be able to play the Sonatas of Beethoven in F sharp instead of F. I know it used to be considered improper to use the thumb on a black key. Now, in regard to practicing the works of Bach are invaluable. In Chopin I have seen that he used to play Bach before a concert. Beethoven is very particular to Chopin, and before a concert would be a student and practice. In regard to theory, as connected with piano-forte study, a deep insight into any instrument must be gained before a musician can possess the power to teach. To become a musician, and possess the inherent qualities of a musical nature, one requires to get deeper than the mere practical side. Taking up theory is invaluable to an understanding of the great works. In regard to what has been said about technique, from what I have heard and from my own experience, I have always thought that expression and technique went hand in hand, one with the other. We all possess individuality according to our talent; there is a musical feeling which must be promoted along with our mechanical work, or else it is dry and uninteresting; without this, there is no music, but only muscle in our work. We cannot get up an enthusiasm for anything, and especially art, unless there is something within which we can feel. I have seen that, always driving and pushing ahead. In regard to understanding piano, I think that is one of the most important qualifications of a first teacher, the understanding and the temperament of his pupils. If you called a physician into a sick room, I don't think—though I am not a medical expert—and administer a prescription to him, and then go on to think he would converse with him a little, and ascertain the nature of the malady from which he was suffering,

and where it was located; and then prescribe something to alleviate his distress. Liszt has said, "when a pupil comes to me, my first object is to understand him before proceeding with anything; after being in his company and conversing with him, I understand him, and know what to prescribe for him. Then, good judgment, in the selection of exercises for a pupil is one of the great requisites in a successful teacher; I think patience may be considered the first essential, and the selection of proper work for the pupil the second; and then, we cannot be too dogmatic in any course. I find that especially with the junior lessons; and in this country, ladies and gentlemen, we have to deal with a very primary course; we have none of us attained any great prominence yet as regards art, but have principally to do with the beginning of it."

A. M. READ.  
All the instruction in the world is of no avail if the pupil has not time to practice. I have found this in my own extended course of teaching to be a very great obstacle, and I think the foundation of it may be traced to the family system existing in our schools. I am aware that it is a very strong expression to make use of, but I do pronounce the system of instruction in our schools to be faulty in the extreme, particularly in the female education. You all know that to attain a degree of success in music, it is necessary not only to receive good instruction, but that the study should be begun at an early age. Now, take an early age; the time when a child begins to attend school. I do not think, in the first place, that a child should be sent to school until eight or nine years of age. At that age, a child is a child of mine to be before that age would be to have it the best runner and leaper among all its companions, because the brain knows that time is a mere ivory mass, and it is a shame to let it with anything requiring strength; the only call made should be on the physical powers of the child. We will assume, then, that a child of this age is beginning to attend school. At what hour has she to go? At nine o'clock. She must have her breakfast at eight o'clock. And then she has hard work to get there by nine o'clock. Then she is kept there until three o'clock in the afternoon, at the very earliest. When she gets home, that child already done a man's work. Then she brings home with her a long list of lessons which have to be learned. After she has taken her tea or dinner, as the case may be, she has to spend a couple of hours poring over these studies. Now, I would like to know what time that child has to practice. Could any parent have the heart to let that child to practice two or three hours on the piano? It is the very least she ought to practice every day if she is going to make a success. Now, if a child has to do a day's work that was to be done in six or eight hours, it is simply impossible, and that is the great difficulty. DR. STRATHE.

## MUSICAL ITEMS.

[All matter intended for this Department should be addressed to Miss Irene J. Tetter, Box 359, New York City.]

## HOME.

—MISS NEALLY STIVERS gave two piano recitals in Ohio.  
—A. VICTOR BERNHARD has been giving piano recitals, in Brooklyn.  
—THE BRONX ISLAND M. T. S. A. held its annual meeting at Providence, on Nov. 23.  
—ENANUEL MOOR PLAYED the Rabinstein D minor concerto at the Thomas concert, in Orange, N. J.  
—MAX W. H. STANFORD has been giving a number of admirable piano recitals in St. Louis, Mo.  
—THE NACX Choral Society gave Dudley Buck's "Light of Asia" Thursday evening, December 10th.  
—MR. HAYES BRONKHORST was the pianist at the Schumann concert given in Milwaukee, on Dec. 6th.  
—THE PHILHARMONIC SOCIETY, Des Moines, Iowa, performed Haydn's Creation under M. L. Bartlett's direction.  
—RAPHAEL JOSEPHY has played the E minor concerto, Chopin-Tausig, at Providence, Baltimore, Philadelphia, Springfield, Mass., and New York, thus far.  
—MR. CHARLES EBY, the organist, has been making an extended tour of the West, playing in California, and more recently in the cities of Ohio and Illinois.  
—A CONCERT WAS GIVEN at Claverack College Conservatory, Prof. Chas. W. London, director, the programme consisting wholly of American compositions.  
—THE CINCINNATI MUSICAL FESTIVAL ASSOCIATION has been held at Cincinnati, Ohio, under the direction of Mr. F. A. Zanetti, who has been making an extended tour of the West, playing in California, and more recently in the cities of Ohio and Illinois.  
—THE NEWLY-ORGANIZED CONSERVATORY OF MUSIC at Toronto gave its inaugural concert, at which Signor F. d'Alba conducted the orchestra, and Mme. d'Alba sang.

—CHICAGO CLAIMS TWO lady composers of comic opera, namely Mrs. Abby D. Morris and Mrs. M. J. McLaughlin, and their opera is entitled "Princess Solome, or the Khedive's Daughter."

—CHARLES FERRERIELLO, of Boston, has arranged five authentic piano concertos to be given in January. Mr. Louis C. Elson, the well-known critic, will preface each one with explanatory remarks.

—DR. F. L. BURNES, director of the musical department of Yale College, will deliver a number of lectures with musical illustrations during the winter. The first, on "The Origin of Musical Instruments," was given on Nov. 11th.

—THE FIRST QUARTETLY concert of the Cleveland School of Music, Alfred Arthur, musical director, was held on Nov. 28th. Rondo brillant for two pianos, by Mohr, and Hungarian Rhapsody, No. 13, Liszt, were among the selections.

—MR. KARL KLINOWORTH'S second Boston piano recital, on Dec. 12th, was devoted to Chopin, and the selections embraced the Sonata op. 35, Variations brillantes op. 12, op. 34, No. 1, Polonaise Impromptu op. 36, Nocturne op. 27, No. 2, and Valse op. 55, Scherzo op. 31, and others.

—W. L. BROWNCHIEFF, of Dayton, Ohio, with his pupils as assistant exponents, performed an American programme at Dayton, on Nov. 17th. Among the composers represented were Constantine Stancow, G. W. Chadwick, Ad. M. Forster, Joseph W. Mason, C. Merz and Ida Kleber.

—MR. TAZONIA SALMON gave a recital of American Composition, at College Hall, Pittsburgh, on Nov. 29th. Wilson G. Smith, W. L. Blumenschein, Otto Floerstein, Theo. Salmon, Ad. M. Forster, Carl Ratter, Dudley Buck and Otto Singer, were represented in vocal and instrumental pieces, and Arthur Foote in his Trio op. 5.

—MORE THAN 10,000 PERSONS listened to the Gilmore concert given at the New England Building, Kansas City, Mo., on Nov. 26th. A Christmas anthem, entitled "While Shepherds watched their Flocks," by F. A. Jones, director of the Music School in St. Louis, was performed by the orchestra and a chorus of fifty voices, on this occasion.

—ANTHONY POORE, the composer and organist of Boston, performed the following organ music on Dec. 1st: Sonata in D minor op. 42, Guinard; Toccata and Fugue in D minor; Bach; Allegro from Handel's second concerto, and Concerto in G major, by Schumann. Mr. Cleverly, E. Hay sang a Gounod song and a selection from Sullivan's "Prodigal Son."

—THE CINCINNATI COLLEGE possesses an orchestra under Mr. Henry Schmitt's direction, and announced six orchestral concerts during the winter; also a College String Quartet, that will give six chamber concerts; and a College Choir that will be assisted by the Apollo Club (forming a chorus of 150 voices) in giving three choral and oratorio concerts, under the leadership of Mr. B. W. Foley.

## FOREIGN.

—RUBINSTEIN has just completed his operatic oratorio, "Moses."

—PANOFKA, the composer, died at Florence recently, aged 79 years.

—SALZBURG is visiting Spain, and will spend some time in Granada.

—ABOUT \$5,000 has been collected for a List memorial at Braunschweig.

—MR. BARNYER is concertizing in Germany, Holland, Scandinavia and Switzerland.

—SILFOTI, the pianist, will conduct the Leipzig Tschakowsky concert, on Feb. 11th.

—FRANK was nearly one thousand pupils at the Vienna Conservatory during the past year.

—SARASATI is at present concertizing in Austria, and will proceed to Russia, during December.

—WERNER'S EARLY opera, "Die drei Finken," completed by Mahler, will be produced in Leipzig, in January.

—BERLIN is to have two new streets, to be named Meyerbeer and Mendelssohn, by the Emperor's order.

—MARCEL GARBIT, the famous singing instructor, has reached his eighty-third year. He was Jean Lind's instructor.

—COWEN, THE COMPOSER, has taken the place of Sir Arthur Sullivan as conductor of the London, England, Philharmonic chorus.

—MISS GERALDINE MORGAN, a New York violinist, and Jocelyn's pupil, has won the Mendelssohn prize in Berlin. She received the highest honor, and symmetry in passages greatly facilitates execution.

—THE NEW LEIPZIG Conservatory of Music, ranking in honor and Leipzig's monumental edifices in its beauty, was solemnly dedicated on Dec. 6th.

—TWO WORKS BY MOZART—Liszt's early manuscript have been found among his manuscripts, at which Signor F. d'Alba conducted the orchestra, and Mme. d'Alba sang.

## THE STUDY OF THE PIANO.

## STUDENT'S MANUAL.

## PRACTICAL COUNSELS.

By H. PARIENT.

(Translated from the French by M. A. Bierstadt.)

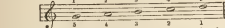
## THE NECESSITY OF COUNTING.

36. In what cases are the five fingers used without displacement of the hand?

The five fingers are used without displacement of the hand when the number of notes following one another in ascending or descending order does not exceed the number of fingers.

In this case, if the notes succeed one another in regular degrees the fingers do the same.

Example:—



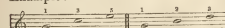
If the notes succeed one another in irregular degrees, as many fingers should be passed over as degrees.

Example:—



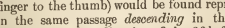
If the hand without being displaced has to reach over an interval exceeding a fifth, the rule for fingering by extension of the fingers must be followed (see No. 38).

Example:—



It is important to notice at the start a point concerning the formation of the hand: that the two thumbs, finding place within the various combinations of fingering, are found to be in the two hands; that is to say, a succession of fingers used in an ascending passage in the left hand (in the direction of the fifth finger to the thumb) would be found reproduced in the same passage descending in the right hand (in the same direction of the fifth finger to the thumb).

Example:—

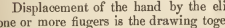


37. What is the displacement of the hand by drawing together the fingers, and in what cases is such fingering made use of?

Displacement of the hand by the elision of one or more fingers is the drawing together of the fingers in such a way that there are more free fingers than there are notes to be bridged over.

In this case one or more fingers are inactive.

Example:—



This fingering is employed in all symmetrical ascending or descending passages or forms in which there are neither digressions nor notes repeated and which comprise no more than five notes.

Note.—Whenever a certain form is reproduced regularly, it is better that the same fingering be used each time (if the disposition of the black and white keys will permit). Symmetry greatly facilitates execution.

The conjunction of fingers which is most in use and best is that of the thumb and any other finger of the hand.

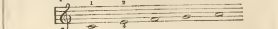
The fifth finger here is to be brought as near as possible to the thumb in going down the key

board with the right hand and up with the left, and the thumb as near the fifth finger as possible in contrary cases.

38. What is understood by displacement of the hand by extension of the fingers, and in what cases is this fingering employed?

To displace the hand by extension of the fingers, is to stretch the fingers apart in such a way as to bridge over more keys than one has fingers.

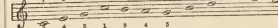
Example:—



This mode of fingering is used in ascending or descending forms or passages in which the notes succeed one another in irregular intervals, and in which the whole comprises more than the interval of a fifth.

Sometimes in the same form both extension and elision of the fingers have to be employed.

Example:—



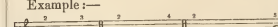
The natural separation of the thumb from the second finger allows of taking a fourth or fifth, but it is not necessary to go beyond this. The thumb and third finger should not reach beyond a sixth. The thumb and fourth finger must not reach beyond the seventh.

Example:—



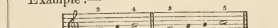
The second and third fingers must not take more than a third; the second and fourth more than a fourth; and the second and fifth more than a sixth.

Example:—



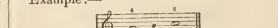
The third and fourth fingers must not take more than a third (even this stretch ought to be avoided if possible). The third and fifth should not take more than a fourth.

Example:—



The fourth and fifth fingers should not stretch more than a third.

Example:—



The extension of the thumb and best is that between the thumb and any other finger of the hand; others between the three middle fingers are not as good.

39. What is understood by the displacement of the hand by the passing of the thumb under the fingers, or the fingers over the thumb? and in what cases is this fingering used?

To displace the hand by the crossing of the thumb is to supply the deficiency in the number of fingers, by passing the thumb under the fingers in going up, or in the right hand and in descending in the left, or the fingers over the thumb in descending with the right hand and ascending with the left.

The thumb should be regarded as a point of support, around which the other fingers act, and for this reason it is preferable to pass it under after the third or fourth finger, or cross the latter over the thumb. By this combination the hand gains its equilibrium.

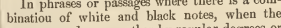
The hand is displaced by the crossing of the thumb in every passage or phrase containing more than five consecutive notes. In symmetrical forms of regular movement, the fingering should be so arranged that the thumb has to cross only as many times as is necessary for the number of notes given, especially when the passage is composed entirely of white notes.

Example:—



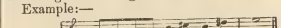
In phrases or passages where there is a combination of white and black notes, when the notes succeed one another by regular degrees or by irregular degrees, the rule is the same: the thumb must be put under after a black note in ascending with the right hand.

Example:—



And in descending with the left hand.

Example:—



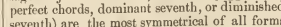
This rule has for a basis the formation of the hand in its relation to the notes on the keyboard. The thumb being shorter than the other fingers, and the black keys more elevated than the white, the thumb glides along more easily when the finger under which it passes is placed on a black key; it has less distance to go.

The diatonic scales, which begin and end on the tonic, are the most symmetrical of all passages in joint movement, and the arpeggios (the perfect chords, dominant seventh, or diminished seventh) are the most symmetrical of all forms in irregular movement; the student would do well, then, to analyze the fingering in these, having in special view the passage of the thumb. This fingering is, save a few exceptions, founded on the preceding rules.

40. What is meant by the displacement of the hand by change of finger on the same note repeated twice, and in what cases is such fingering made use of?

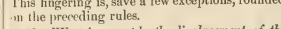
Displacing the hand by change of finger on the same note is using successively two different fingers on this note for the purpose of placing the hand in a favorable position for what follows.

Example:—



In passages called repeated notes, the choice of finger placed on the second note must be governed by the number of notes given.

Example:—



If the repeated notes are slow and belong to a melodic passage, they can be struck with the same finger; for then the tones obtained will be more of like quality.

The leading features of the Youth's Companion Announcement for 1883, just published, are its six Illustrated Serial Stories, by Trowbridge, Seribius, and others, its Two Hundred Short Stories and Tales of Adventure, its articles by Eminent Writers, including the Right Hon. Wm. W. Gladstone, Professor Tyndal, Gen. Lord Wolseley, Louis M. Alcott, Gen. George Crook, and one hundred other popular authors. The Companion has Two Million Readers a week. Every family should take it.

## PERSONALITY IN MUSIC.

BY FRIEDRICH RITTER VON HENTZ.

[Translated for THE ETUDE by HENRI D. TREBAILL.]

THROUGH a personal medium alone, truth and beauty may arrive at that materialization, recognized as a revelation of the divine in art.

Even in the sciences, eternal truths attain to their freedom of conviction only through their reflection from those intellectual personalities who do not permit these truths to lie dormant in their own minds, like some accepted and self-understood gift, but who recreate them from out of themselves into a new existence.

There are great general truths that are the common property of all cultivated nations, and that are even found in embryo among primitive races. This fact has called forth the assertion that there is nothing new in the domain of ideas. How new, though, these various ideas appear as they are reflected in every racial mind!

In art, where, at the same time, there arises a consideration of an artistic form in which to clothe the intellectual contents, personality exerts its full significance: the style emanating from this personality gives an artwork its authenticity; through its medium the spirit receives life, and the cold, abstract thought becomes a warm, life-breathing picture.

When this personality is a genuinely genial one, one's first surprise is soon followed by a perfect delight in this new world of old wonders. Creative minds, however, are rare, and thus, when the golden age of art has gone by, we gladly greet any worthy successors.

We are not content to hold in our certain possession the old master-works of art. Our desire is in a state of constant development, and what is acquired day by day from out of the treasures of Nature strives to mirror itself and become glorified in an artistic interpretation. And here the real importance of personality is seen in its fullest light. If an art work, emanating from an age of disciples or imitations, is to attract, it must be interpreted, or re-created, with a personality that governs the interpretation; or, if it is to stir us, it must necessarily be inspired.

In executive art, as well, the personality of an artist becomes the decisive element of his most noble accomplishments. If the work that is executed possesses inner worth, his performance will certainly be the more precious, worthy, the more a reverential appropriation of its inherent spirit on his part leads the listener into its intentions. With all the self-indulgence and the artistic interpretation of such works demands, it is yet only the union of the personality of the execcutant penetrating into the work with that personality that governs the interpretation, carries us away, and that cannot be compensated for by the most brilliant splendor of a finished, although cold, technique.

When a virtuoso lays before us works of his own, or of foreign composition, that are merely calculated to give expression to inner moods, or, perhaps, to exhibit the charms of virtuosity, then, again, personality appears in its full force: for all these dainty, sentimental or playful, storming or rustling nothings of the virtuoso's art, often owe all their brilliant successes to the devoted collaboration of an energetic, inspired personality.

This collaboration alone is capable of adding what we call expression, while the technical cultivation furnishes a basis for a fine execution.

Let this latter be never so finished, however, and provided with all the refinements of the best schools, the impression produced will never reach beyond a purely æsthetic pleasure and an evaluation of artistic dexterity, unless it is inspired by the influence of a genial personality; while, on the other hand, where expression and execution are united, the hearer's enthusiasm will go out to meet that of the execcutant.

Whoever remembers the impression he received from Liszt's piano playing, or from the violin performance of Teresa Milanollo, will easily determine the difference between the former and the scarcely less great virtuosity even greater Vieuxtemps.

Yet it is not alone the abundance of a personal personality, but also its peculiarity, that decides the effect of an artwork. For, even among cultivated minds, there are but few who do not permit the force of sympathy to exert an influence upon their judgment, or who are not convinced by the coincidence between the intellectual stamp of a poem and their own inner condition.

Our daily experience teaches us how rare a thing is an unprejudiced art judgment, and how not only the relations held by the mood of a work to the mood of the listener, but also the coincidence of both these with the spirit of the times, exert a vast influence upon his responsiveness, and how even those who do not exactly sympathize with the intellectual tendency of the age are yet unable to withhold its influence a dead.

But few possess that general harmonious culture that is competent to grasp beauty in its lofty independence; only the minority seek in art its highest aim, and, by their controlling passions, and not merely a reflection of their own inner being and their momentary wants. In transition periods—during which the separation of

untimely views has already taken place, while the new world of thought has, however, not yet dawned in its full form—there is the greatest danger that minds held by the excitement of the unsettled state of affairs may come to regard the expression of conflict as the highest utterance, and devote their whole affections to the chaotic production of a dithyrambic fancy that denies all form. We live in a similar period, and the above conditions appear in their most distinct form in musical art. Although the hand of those who have renounced the past and who, in disdainful over-estimation of self, regard the production of the new school as their sole mission, and thus, the most energetic attack, upon the existing state of affairs emerges from their side, and they employ words as cutting tools of destruction.

For greater is the number of those who blindly follow in the step of the passionate combatants of the novel, deceiving themselves in respect to their own wants, and permitting themselves to be led to seek gratification where only over-irritation or relaxation is to be found.

The most lamentable results of this state of affairs are met with in musical criticism; the passionate, wildly-advancing generation of the day, that finds delight solely in the overthrowing of what exists, without being guided by a sure aim toward a new and worthy end, and that, reveling in laxity, is inimical to all rules, regarding them as the confining bonds of free will; this generation seeks in an art work simply a copy of its own passionate emotions, and prefers exaggeration to refinement of expression.

Where the truly genial masters are principally concerned, a sympathetic influence may well be privileged to color judgment, provided a prepossession in favor of one does not bring about an injustice toward another; however, intellectual intentions are considered superior to musical creation and accomplishment; when the sacred realm of tones is converted into the scene of combat for the passions and moods cherished by the age, then there arises a sufficient reason to deplore existing conditions, and to condemn professional criticism that acts as spokesman for these sentiments and leads away the taste of listeners.

Another thought arises at this point. Our age, that seems the more strongly to emphasize moral purity in art the more its riotous life departs from morality, frequently judges musical art by the same standards since Beethoven's remark that he could not possibly have set to music texts like "Don Juan" and "Figaro." It was notably these masterpieces that were subjected to attack, partly on account of the immorality of their texts and in part from their predominating sensuousness of expression.

Even in Mozart's purely instrumental music many have discovered (like the well-known critic, Rehbach) too voluptuous a sensuousness, and held it up in contrast to the purity of Beethoven's expression.

Since music is, at the outset, merely able to arouse emotions, and, by means of these, it is true, to awaken thoughts, the latter are apt to acquire tendency and character from the impressions produced upon the soul of the hearer by the tone work. Thus, the instrumental music that is not accompanied by a verbal description of its contents, there can simply be a question of the kind of spiritual mood it awakens, and in how far its representation of intellectual contents or moral qualities.

We may be stirred by a tone poem to a high degree either of vigorous or refined sensual delight, to a lower or higher grade of spiritual joy; to gentle melancholy or penetrating anguish; to enthusiasm either for the dance or for battle; to earthly or divine love; we may be lulled to sweet repose or aroused to wild agitation; all spiritual moods are justifiable in art that are representative of life, and none are the mark of a synthetic immorality; they all belong to the category of spiritual experience, and therefore also to art.

We may then assume the credence or vulgarity of musical ideas in a tone poem, but never find an immoral element in its melody, intrinsically. Fresh, varying sensuousness is an indispensable adjunct to art beauty, and the more or less sensuous charm it contains in contradistinction to the intellectual contents may be taken into account in judging the standard of a work; a predominance of intellect designed to further eternal aims will, however, always detract from the reality of a work made to bend to the world. Here the question is as to whether the choice of an immoral text is permissible.

Let us consider the question of dramatic texts at which Beethoven's moral feeling took offense.

The greater the charm that Mozart's art in "Don Juan" contained upon the sensitive forces in life, the more crushing is the effect of the idea of that rebuke that first responds as a cry of warning, and, finally, becomes a deed.

Mozart's music is not affected by the actions and circumstances through which Don Juan's love affairs become more and more complicated, and his seductive force becomes more and more irresistible, but it is held accountable for their abuse under improper circumstances, for this is finally judged with equal vigor.

And the case of "Figaro" is similar to this. It cannot be demanded of the comic opera, as of the drama, that it should serve as a guide through the errors and perversions of social life into sensible, orderly conditions and moral freedom, but simply that it represent the conditions and emotions acting and reacting upon each other during the progress of a lively action by means of ennobled expression and in the reinment of a beautiful form. Thus in "Figaro," the most tender instincts, and the selfish charm of the new school are perfectly reconciled, and the music is merely calculated to awaken the longing for the development of all that is noble in humanity and all that is morally pure in love.

Tone art ever employs its resources, when it possesses genuine beauty, toward an ennobling and beneficent effect. It recognizes only æsthetic aims, not moral aims. It represents no decided ideas, nor has its expression a pronounced tendency for good or evil.

## PUBLISHER'S NOTES.

THERE is one work that has never been written. In our own teaching we felt the need of such a work, and to doubt most of our readers have. We refer to a work on Harmony, adapted to piano students. It remained for Dr. F. L. Ritter, of Vassar College, to write such a work. He has called it "Practical Harmony—For the Use of Piano Students." It can be studied with any system of harmony, and can be taken up before or after the study of harmony, but it is far better to have it in hand with it, as it clinches the work done by writing out the lesson. We have always been of the opinion that harmony students did not apply what was learned by harmony. The study seldom goes further than writing out exercises. In this work there is no writing; it is all practice. It begins with the simple cadences, major and minor, which are to be transposed into all keys, after which a simple scale with upper part is given; the middle parts are to be played, and to be transposed into all keys. The material of the work is carefully divided into sections; and progresses from rule to rule, as usually given in our harmony works. It is the thoroughness of Dr. Ritter, who has pursued with the students of Vassar College, and when published, will be the only work of the kind extant.

It is now in the engraver's hands, and will be ready some time in February. In order to offer our readers some indication to examine the work, we will send it to all who will send us fifty cents in advance of publication, or before the February issue of THE ETUDE reaches the readers. The price of the work is not yet determined, but this offer is lower than the book will ever be sold to teachers.

We have laid in a complete stock of good musical literature. Complete catalogue on application.

SUBSCRIBERS TO THE ETUDE, purchasing music, will find it greatly to their advantage by sending to us for our full line of catalogues and rates.

THE Musical Art Publishing Company, under the management of Robert Goldbeck, has just paid a dividend of 10 per cent. per annum on its capital stock.

Now is the time to send for a selection of music "on sale" for the coming season. We are prepared to fill all orders for same with classical and popular music, and will give our most careful attention to selecting it according to the needs of the individual, at a very liberal discount. Send for further particulars in regard to rates, etc.

The many orders we are receiving daily for the new musical piece, "Allegretto," speaks highly for the future success of this interesting and instructive little work. It should be in the hands of all young musicians, and it will be found very valuable in learning and making Price, fifty cents, postage paid.

We have a very few of those elegant "Art Souvenirs" spoken of in our last issue, which have assisted in clearing up the mysteries of musical notation to the youthful student. When these "souvenirs" are sold, they will be taken up very quickly, and we have no doubt they will be taken up very quickly. Refer to the December ETUDE, when ordering.

Attention is called to the advertisement of a musical game, Allegretto, which will greatly assist in clearing up the mysteries of musical notation to the youthful student. When these "souvenirs" are sold, they will be taken up very quickly, and we have no doubt they will be taken up very quickly. Refer to the December ETUDE, when ordering.

## WHYS AND WHEREFORES OF MUSIC.

H. S. VINKING.

### TABLE OF SCALES.

There is one form of Major Scale, one of Chromatic, and three of Minor thus:—

MAJOR SCALE.

HARMONIC MINOR.

MELODIC MINOR.

MIXED FORM OF MINOR.

CHROMATIC SCALE IN C.

CHROMATIC SCALE IN C MINOR.

MAJOR AND MINOR SCALES IN TWENTY-FOUR KEYS.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

MAJOR SCALES—PARALLEL MINOR SCALES.

70. Why the term *travis* is used.

The word means held. When the abbreviation *tes.* is placed over a note thus: *tes.* it shows that the tone is to be sustained, that is continued its full length.

71. Why the slur and tie are used.

Because these signs, thus: *—* have the effect of blending or binding the tones. A slur is a curved line placed over notes of different pitch and shows that the notes or groups of notes are to be blended, that is, smoothenly and connectedly played, thus: *—*

A tie or bind is a curved line placed over two or more notes of the same pitch, and shows that the first note only is played and that its sound is prolonged through the time value of the note or notes connected by the curved line, thus: *—* is played as if written

and either form respectively can be used

except when it is necessary to hold the time of a note beyond the measure, in which case two notes with a tie

are necessary, thus: *—* or *—*

In olden times a measure often contained a note of longer time value than the count for the measure and the time for such note was held through the next measure or measures as its time required. To avoid the confusion that was caused the tie was used to indicate that a tone was to be held beyond the measure, thus:

Once allowable is now written thus:

72. Why grace notes are so called?

Because they are notes added to give grace and embellishment. They are also ornaments of melody. In olden times the tones produced by the keyed instruments in use ceased almost instantly; then, grace notes were more frequently used, as they served to continue the sound and thus connect the tones. The notes for threaded tones are seldom written but are indicated by signs. Thus *tr* over a note shows that it is to be trilled, that is, that the note is to be repeated with the note next above it ending with a turn, by playing the note below and lastly the

first measure is omitted in the second playing.

By the words *Da Segno* and *Da Capo* are used. *Da Segno* means to the mark or sign thus, *D. S.* placed over the double bar shows that the passage is to be repeated from this sign—*D. S.* which indicates where the repetition begins.

*Da Capo* means from the beginning *D. C.* placed over the double bar means repeat from the beginning.

73. Why the word *Fine* is used.

The word is Italian and means the end. It is placed over the last measure of a repeated passage which ends the piece although not the last passage of the printed music.

74. Why the signs *tr* or *tr* are used.

Because they give space. When in a measure or passage several groups are repeated it is only necessary to write one group, indicating the rest by these signs which signify continuation, thus:

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

is played

or

(For the Etude.)

## SOMETHING ABOUT BEGINNERS.

Mr. Bowman remarked in Indianapolis, that 95 per cent of the elementary piano study, that is being carried on in this country, was worse than useless.

The reason for this is not hard to find. Every time we meet a visitor in the place where we live, the first thing he will speak about is the musicians living in his place of residence. The conversation is nearly always the same. He says: "We have some very fine musicians at home; there is Mr. A., Mrs. B. and Miss C. Mr. A. is a very fine performer, but he is not so well liked as a teacher, somehow he don't seem to be able to impart his knowledge to his pupils. Mrs. B. will take only advanced pupils, etc. The fact is, simply that teaching beginners is, with the exception of a few particularly gifted children, a very tedious and trying occupation; and as patience is a very rare thing among musicians, they avoid it whenever they can. The consequence is, that those that could do it, won't do it, and those that would do it, can't do it.

I have been compelled by circumstances to teach beginners for the last seventeen years, but although I have made my work ten times easier than it was ten years ago, I would discontinue it to-day if I could, and would rather teach pupils who have had even poor instruction for two or three years than beginners; this is much easier work, and not nearly so trying.

Of all good musicians, 20 per cent. only will accept beginners of average ability, and of this 20 per cent. only 25 per cent. will really take the time to study them, and adapt the material for instruction to their wants; the rest do the work only because they are obliged to make a living, and take some instruction book to go from page to page, never troubling themselves whether it suits the pupil or not. Thus 95 per cent. of the teaching done is worthless.

To teach a beginner, and to teach a pupil that has been taught for some time already, are two entirely different things, and it takes a great deal more experience and judgment to teach young beginners than to teach more advanced pupils, no matter how poorly they may have been taught. Our different systems for beginners are nearly all written by fine musicians, living in large cities, who teach, almost exclusively, advanced pupils. Constantly they receive pupils from all over the country, who are more or less deficiently taught, and it is very natural that some of them conceive the idea of writing a course, that might help the teachers of lower grades to turn out better work.

In order to read well and readily, it is necessary to have a practical knowledge of harmony. I mean by this, a thorough knowledge of the construction of the scales, chords, connection of the keys and their location on the clavier. This can, as far as beginners are concerned, never be done by memorizing or writing exercises, in short, by studying theory. On the contrary, in order to be able to study theory successfully, it is necessary to have a practical and positive knowledge of the material used for the study of theory. The only effective and at the same time the easiest way to acquire such a knowledge, is daily exercises. Transposition, by a key modulation does not answer the purpose. This presupposes already some knowledge of harmony, and is soon remembered and done mechanically. It must be done from the key of directly into any other by the corresponding numbers of the different intervals of the scales.

The exercises for beginners thus far published, are too long in form, and not compact enough compiled to form a course by which the pupil can practice all the different movements of the fingers wrists and arms daily, and at the same time have the entire family of keys constantly under observation.

The average beginner cannot be expected to practice more than a half hour a day. If you force him to do more, he will only learn to hate his music and just "sit off" his time with the same feeling as a convict, not to speak of the numberless difficulties and unpleasant occurrences that will arise from ill feeling created between the teacher and pupil, even when the parents co-operate with the former. Of the half-hour, fifteen minutes are to be given to exercises, and fifteen minutes to pieces. Later, the time for exercise can be reduced to ten and that for pieces increased to twenty minutes. From ten to fifteen minutes for exercises is sufficient for from two to three years, but the time for pieces must be increased, as soon as the pupil has on hand ample material to prevent a frequent repetition of the same pieces. With the exception of the first few months, there is no need of purely mechanical exercises. From that time the mechanical exercises can be done more effectively away from the piano, than at the piano, either by lighter gymnastic exercises. But for beginners it is hardly necessary, because while they acquire sufficient independence of the hands, and practical knowledge of the clavier and reading they have time enough to cultivate the necessary technique in an easy and natural way. While a beginner has a collection of daily exercises, comprising all the different technical difficulties, and compiled in such a way that he can play them in a different key every day, within from ten to fifteen minutes, according to the difficulty of the different keys, there is no need of any such wordy and musically meaningless so called studies as those by Lebert, Köhler & Co. There are, as many pieces and studies, that contain just good

exercises in a good musical form, and there is no necessity at all, to use anything that does not represent adequate musical value, and cannot be used practically for performances in social life.

There is however one point that must not be forgotten, and this is the difference between mechanical work and brain work. Some medical authority has stated that two hours of concentrated brain work, is equal to a day's work of hard labor. One can set at the piano for many hours playing mechanical exercises and studies by Cörny, Köhler, etc., but let him transpose these same studies into different keys, or play music at sight; that requires close mental attention, and he will find very soon how his powers will wear out under the mental strain put upon them. Therefore, when we feed a pupil with work that requires constant mental attention, we have to limit the practice time accordingly.

CARL E. CRAMER.

## PIANO POUNDING.

BY OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.

I don't like your chopped music, any way!

That woman—she had more sense in her little finger, than forty musical societies—Florence Nightingale, says that the music you pour out is good for sick folks, but the music you pound out isn't.

Not that, exactly, but something like it.

I have been to hear some music pounding.

It was a young woman, with as many white muslin flounces round her as the planet Saturn has rings, that did it.

She gave the music-tool a twist or two, and shuffled down on it like a whirl of soap-suds in a hand-basin.

Then she pulled up her cuffs as if she was going to fight for the champion's belt.

Then she worked her wrists and her hands—to limber 'em, I suppose, and spread out her fingers till they looked as though they would pretty much cover the keys, from the growling end to the squeaky one.

Then these two hands of her's made a jump at the keys as if they were a couple of tigers coming down on a flock of black and white sheep, and the piano gave a great howl as if its tail had been trod on.

Dead stop—so still you could hear your hair growing.

Then another jump and another howl, as if the piano had two tails and you had trod on both of them at once, and then a grand scramble, and string of jumps, up and down, back and forward, one hand over the other, like a stampede of rats and mice more than like anything I call music.

I like to hear a woman sing, and I like to hear a fiddle sing, but these noises they hammer out of their wood and ivory anvils—don't talk to me.

I know the difference between a bullfrog and a thrush.

## "PIANO-FORTE MUSIO."

PREFACE TO THIRD EDITION.

When the author of this book first sent it into the world, about four years ago, he felt the anxiety natural to every one who publishing his first book, awaits the judgment of those whose opinion he respects, and whose decisions must make or mar the fortunes of his work. But these apprehensions were speedily dispelled by the extremely favorable reception accorded to the work by musicians and critics. The errors pointed out were few and slight, the labor and care expended on it were so fully acknowledged, and so generally approved, that it would be exceedingly ungrateful on the part of the author not to take the present opportunity to express his sense of the courtesy and appreciation given him by the musical public, and especially by that portion of it which represents its highest intelligence. Such appreciation is to me a profound source of gratification and an incitement to renewed striving after excellence.

The present edition, demanded by the requirements of the market, has received no revision, partly because in the main parts of the book the author believes he has done his best, and partly because the time has not come for revising the chapter on "Modern Composers and Virtuosi of the Present," although such a chapter must necessarily be incomplete.

With gratitude for the past, and with hope for the future, this third edition is offered to the public.

MILWAUKEE, Wis., Nov. 21st, 1887.

J. C. F.

## SCHOPENHAUER'S MUSICAL PHILOSOPHY.

READ BEFORE MUSIC TEACHERS' NATIONAL ASSOCIATION BY KARL MIEZ.

Having reviewed in the last lecture the musical theories of Herbert Spencer, Prof. Helmholtz, Mazzini and others, I will now lay before you the substance of Schopenhauer's Philosophy of Music.

Germany is pre-eminently the land of music, and in a like sense it is also the land of metaphysics. Strange to say, among the many philosophers that Germany has produced, only few have dealt successfully with the subject of music. Even Kant, the founder of an arithmetical philosophy, regarded music merely as a pleasant play of the emotions; but says Hand, "He failed to make out whether a mere sensuous impression or the effect of a discernment of form prevailed in that play." Kant denied what every student of art now acknowledges, namely, that music is a language of the emotions, and a means of awakening æsthetic ideas. According to Richard Wagner, only one philosopher has fully understood and correctly set forth the high position of this art. In his little book entitled "Beethoven," he says: "Schopenhauer was the first to recognize and designate with philosophical clearness the position of music with reference to the other fine arts, in that he awards to it a nature entirely different from that of the plastic or poetic arts." This decided testimony in favor of Schopenhauer's musical philosophy is all the stronger in view of the fact that Schopenhauer was by no means a follower of Wagner. Yet, at first sight, it would seem as if the two men were musical antipodes; for Schopenhauer speaks favorably of Rossini's music, which in his character, its construction and tendency, is as far from Wagner's ideas of musical art as the east is from the west.

Music cannot be made the medium of a special theology or of a code of ethics; we as musical students, have therefore nothing directly to do with Schopenhauer's peculiar theories. Still as his philosophy of music is closely connected with his theory of the will, we must make you acquainted with it.

When reviewing this philosopher's theories, we must judge of him in the light of his own times and conditions. The convulsion of society produced by the French Revolution, and the bitter Napoleonism which followed, could not fail to make its impression upon such a mind as that of Schopenhauer. Religious skepticism prevailed everywhere among the learned as well as among the masses. True religion was scarcely found anywhere. After the years of warfare had at last ended, the masses gave themselves over to pleasure seeking. The various governments of Europe did all they could to turn the people's attention from the affairs of state and public morality. Every conceivable amusement was provided for the masses, and it was at that time that Rossini, with his sensuous organs, prevailed everywhere, overshadowing even a man so great as Beethoven, and that in the very city of Vienna, where Beethoven dwelled almost as an exile. It was at this time that Strauss and Lanner, the dance-kings, appeared on the arena, furnishing their charming new dances for ball-rooms.

While thus the people were made drunk with pleasures the affairs of state being in the hands of reactionists of the worst kind, all thinking men cherished secret sorrow at the existing state of things. But what they cherished as their own grief, was the common grief of the best men of the nation everywhere. It was produced by that political and moral mildew which was setting upon the minds of the people, and this grief is called in German, the Weltschmerz, or the grief of the world.

Beethoven gives expression to the "Weltschmerz" in many of his masterless works, but Schopenhauer is the true representative of this idea, and he carried his state of dissatisfaction to such a degree that he became a pessimist of the very first water. There runs throughout his writings a vein of despair that shocks one, and the reader is often chilled, and even frightened, at the terrible outlook which he destroys and dispels all those fond illusions and pictures of fancy to which the human mind often resorts and clings as a relief. As Schopenhauer took a deep interest in sacred Hindu literature, one meets quite frequently in his writings a peculiar Oriental cast, a sort of Buddhist spirit, which here and there lends a peculiar coloring to his essays. Then the attentive reader cannot fail to discover, also, Schopenhauer's peculiar views about women, which causes one almost to believe, that Schopenhauer lived a few centuries ago. But enough of these preliminary remarks.

Schopenhauer was born in Dantzig, Germany, in the year 1788. His father was a rich merchant; his mother was the well-known authoress of the novels, Johanna Schopenhauer. A literary vein seems to have run in the larger portion of the Schopenhauer family, for the daughter, Schopenhauer's only sister Adele also was a novelist. When Dantzig was ceded to Prussia in 1793, the family being anti-Prussian in political sentiment, moved, at considerable loss of property, to Hamburg. The elder Schopenhauer was a very intelligent man. He was fond of reading, but still more so of traveling, and he made frequent and prolonged visits to England and France. These visits to foreign countries made young Schopenhauer a good linguist, for he spoke and wrote both English and French, quite fluently. He was also well versed in the ancient languages, both Latin and Greek, and wrote dissertations in the former language. While the father had many excellent points of character,

he had also some great weaknesses, and these the son not only inherited, but they became intensified in him. One of these failings was a decided morbidness of temperament, which sometimes seemed to overwhelm him. His mother evidently had no special affection for her husband, and sought pleasure in society and travel, which separated her much from her family. Young Schopenhauer, being the only son, was designated by his father for the counting-house; but do what his father could, his son rebelled against all mercantile employment. Mild forms of correction were employed, but these were of no avail, and at last the choice was left him between a regular college education and a visit through Europe. Although young Schopenhauer was eager to learn, he chose the latter, and in 1803 the family started for England and Scotland, where they remained for a considerable time. During this period our young philosopher was put into a boarding-school at Wimbledon, near London, and it was here that he acquired a thorough knowledge of English which he often displays in his writing. But what is far worse and much to be deplored, is the fact that in this boarding-house he took a cordial dislike to English formality, and especially to the English clergy and English ideas of religion. He is most unparaphrasing when the opportunity offers itself to speak of the clergy of the Church of England, and he himself says that a great deal of that bitterness which he feels toward religion in general and the ministry in particular is chargeable to the clergyman, who presided over the Wimbledon school.

After leaving England, the family visited Switzerland and then returned home. But scarcely had they been settled again in the old home, when the father died. Prompted by a sense of reverence for his parent's wishes, the son now entered the counting-house; but the desire for higher knowledge at last became irresistible, and prompted by his thirst for learning, he finally entered the University of Göttingen, where he studied history and natural sciences, two studies, he says, which in his latter work proved very helpful to him. Here he became acquainted with Schultz, who aided him with his sound advice. When referring to his metaphysical studies, Schultz counseled Schopenhauer to read Kant and Plato first, and cautioned him under no circumstances to read any other metaphysics, especially not Aristotle and Spinoza, until he had thoroughly digested the first two named authors. In 1811 he went to Berlin, drawn thither by Fichte, but after hearing a few lectures from this philosopher, he felt disappointed and turned from him. In 1813 he endeavored to secure the Doctor's degree at the University in Berlin, but the war with France being then at its height he was prevented from making the attempt. He remained, however, took the degree at Jena, and then turned towards Weimar, the literary Mecca of Germany, where he was favored with Goethe's friendship. It was here, also, that he met the oriental scholar Meyer, who caused Schopenhauer to interest himself in the holy writings of East India, which, as has already been stated, gives some of his essays such a strange cast. During the period from 1814-18 he lived quietly in Dresden, and while there he wrote his famous treatise on "Light and Colors." About this time he also wrote his most famous work, "The World as the Will and its Representation." In 1818 he visited Rome, and then returned to Berlin, where he connected himself with the University as a lecturer. But he was soon drawn a second time to Italy, where he remained until 1825. He again settled in the Prussian capital, but the approach of the cholera drove him a second time from that city, and this caused him to finally settle in Frankfurt on the Main, where he spent his life. He was fortunately situated, for his father had left him ample means. He was therefore not compelled to labor for his support; he had command of his own time, was independent of the powers that ruled, and could afford to say exactly what he thought and felt. He was never slow to express his opinion, and did so regardless of people or place.

He now gave himself exclusively to metaphysical studies, and wrote diligently. His first work, "The World as the Will and Representation," failed to be recognized, and was left totally unnoticed, and this was to him a source of great mortification. Not until 1836, when he published a little pamphlet, entitled *The Will in Nature*, in which he set forth his philosophy in the most concise form, did his writings attract any attention whatsoever. In 1839 one of his theses was crowned by the Norwegian Academy of Science. In 1861 he wrote his best work entitled "Parerga and Paralipomena," a series of short essays on metaphysical subjects, which are very fine specimens of writing.

Schopenhauer lived for thirty years in Frankfurt, and was known there as the Misanthropic Sage. On lonely walks he was always accompanied by his poodles, to which he was much attached. In fact, it is said of him that he spent more time in the company of his dog than in that of man. It is the opinion of those who lived nearest to our philosopher, that his sad experiences in his dealings with men, and his antipathy to his mother, made him the pessimist he was, but that at heart he was kind, especially so towards the suffering. He felt much sympathy for those who had to battle with the adversities of life, and in his philosophy he advises us not to become angry at the means of men, but rather to pity them on this account, and to regard them as fellow-sufferers. Says he: "When you meet a human being, try not at once to settle his mental and moral wrongs, but endeavor to fix in his mind a degree of dignity, neither attempt to fathom his mind or to settle the absurdities of many of his views. The first would lead to hatred, the second to

contempt; but rather regard your neighbor from the standpoint of suffering; see him in his perplexing anxieties, in his vain strivings, in his unsuccessful endeavors to secure peace and quiet, in his needs and wants, in his siliings of body and mind, and you will be forced to regard him as your kinsman. Instead of indulging in hatred and feelings of contempt, you will then assume sympathy, that sympathy which is love, and (says this pessimistic Schopenhauer, who is regarded as totally devoid of all regard for religion,) it is this love which the Gospel teaches." But as then this basis is concerned he stands on religious ground. Let us follow him a few steps farther. Says he, "If you have cast a glance at the meanness of man, and are ready to become exasperated over it, endeavor to awaken sentiments of sympathy by looking at the sufferings you see everywhere among the children of men. And if this again alarms you, turn your eye upon the corruption of human nature, and thus will you establish a healthy equilibrium in your mind. Then will you learn that there is eternal justice and that this world is judgment." Schopenhauer is a firm believer in the doctrine of total depravity in man, even in infants. He recognizes the need of a change of heart. But in the use of means we differ with him, as we shall presently see.

Schopenhauer turned away from all society, from all those active participations in those aspirations which agitate the human heart, but for all he was a diligent reader of the European press; he, often took its statements to illustrate and prove his teachings. That he and his mother could not agree is a sad fact, yet there were good causes for it. She saw the world only from the standpoint of enjoyment, while he was a deep thinker, a philosopher, who saw the world only in the light of suffering. He believed in Aristotle's idea, that the avoidance of trouble, which he calls a negative sort of happiness, is far more desirable than all the pleasures which society offers. He was a profound scholar, a misanthrope, a pessimist, while his mother was one of the most optimists. In one of her letters she said to him, "your lamentations over this stupid world and the misery of mankind give me but little and evil dreams." Another reason why Schopenhauer felt so bitterly towards his mother was her neglect of his father's memory. There was a great gift, so to speak, between the two, and so mother and son went their own ways. They had apparently nothing in common but their names. If I should be forced to take sides between the two, I would stand with Schopenhauer, for his ideas of the human family in all its corruptness, his ideas of the evil propensities of human nature, correspond most nearly with my experience.

In order to drop the curtain upon this sad picture. I merely raised it in but to show you that the strongest man find it often impossible, by their own strength, to swim against the current of circumstances. Philosophy always has had a clear perception of the disturbed condition in the human heart, but philosophy never found the true remedy. This the Gospel alone supplies. Schopenhauer was well read in ancient as well as in modern literature. His best ideas, he says, came from Kant, Plato and the sacred writings of East India. He always was serious; he could not bear to see anything abused, neither man nor beast, literature nor art, religion nor philosophy. He hated all cliques, all unmanly means to oppose those that think differently; he despised the socialistic ideas of modern times, as these developed themselves during the revolutionary days of '48 and '49; in short, he was completely at odds with his own times, and with many of the men that held the wheels of government or that fashioned public thought. Despite his exclusiveness, many great men came to Frankfurt to make his acquaintance, and not a few remained with him in order to study his philosophy or to listen to his interesting conversations. This made the last years of his life more pleasant and himself more social. By nature he was an ascetic; in his teaching and conversation he was an ascetic. He denounced many of those who taught philosophy in the Universities of Germany as mere *Spitzhals*, and, upon the whole, he called them a most sorrowful crew. Hegel he regarded as the arch-bumbler. Even Kant he accused of veiling his ignorance at times by using language that is difficult to understand. Yet he said that he held Kant in the very highest esteem, and he often pronounced him the clearest thinker of modern times. Schopenhauer despised obscurity in anything, so he was also a despoiler of all duplicity in the use of language. When he speaks, he always stands at a point; he never sets off mere fire-crackers or Roman candles. He always uses hard shot that hits, though from a Christian standpoint he often shoots a wrong target. If he uses the knife he cuts to the bone, and what he says he means regardless of the opinions of others. He displays the utmost faith in the correctness of his own theories, and predicts that in the future, when men shall judge with more freedom, this philosophy will be accepted as the only correct one. What if such a man had been a Christian, a teacher of sound theology. His writings are sometimes difficult to understand, partly because he uses technical terms with special meanings attached to them that he must be taught by much close reading of his theories. Moreover, he often writes in lengthy and intricate sentences, but after studying these, his ideas always stand out clearly. No matter how we may dislike many of these ideas, and no matter how much we may deplore the fact that they were not turned into the right channel, we must give him credit for fearlessness, for candor, and for freedom from all school-craft. The fundamental ideas of his philosophy are these:—The Will of man is the real thing in it, the world, all else is mere representation. This Will, of which Schopenhauer

speaks, is not what in common language is meant by the absolute free power of action, but implies, in the philosopher's mind, the essence of all things, the all-pervading power manifesting itself everywhere. This Will stands separate from the faculty of reasoning; it is the thing in itself which the created world and the Creator meet. From this standpoint man becomes the act, the true manifestation of the Will. The Will, which lies at the foundation of all representations and appearances, develops into a succession of ideas. From the animal downward, the Will is void of cognition and ideas; it is a mere animal life, until in man it manifests itself through the nerve power and the brain, thereby reaching its highest state of self-consciousness. The Will comes first; it is the greatest factor, and the Intellect stands second to it. According to Schopenhauer's theories, the Intellect is a tool in the hands of the Will; it may be permitted to use this expression. The Will always manifests itself by instinct it seeks food and shelter. Among the common people, that factory-woman of society, as Schopenhauer calls them, the Will has no higher aims and wants than self-gratification. With them the Will is the master and the brain the servant, but when man becomes educated, when he reads a high state of culture, the brain begins to rule and gradually subdues the Will. In this state of culture, which is the highest type of sensibility and intellectuality, the mind becomes the supreme ruler. The Intellect is so completely absorbed and so intensely interested in the clear perception of things, that the Will is, as it were, put into chains; the mind emancipates itself from the Will and its uselessness and productivity, but simply for their own sakes. This is the pleasurable aesthetic contemplation of which Schopenhauer speaks so much, and of which I will say more at another place. This aesthetic contemplation affords us, however, only temporary relief; it suppresses the Will power only for a brief period of time, for the renewed activity of the Will forces upon us bitterly towards his mother was her neglect of his father's memory. There was a great gift, so to speak, between the two, and so mother and son went their own ways. They had apparently nothing in common but their names. If I should be forced to take sides between the two, I would stand with Schopenhauer, for his ideas of the human family in all its corruptness, his ideas of the evil propensities of human nature, correspond most nearly with my experience.

In order to drop the curtain upon this sad picture. I merely raised it in but to show you that the strongest man find it often impossible, by their own strength, to swim against the current of circumstances. Philosophy always has had a clear perception of the disturbed condition in the human heart, but philosophy never found the true remedy. This the Gospel alone supplies. Schopenhauer was well read in ancient as well as in modern literature. His best ideas, he says, came from Kant, Plato and the sacred writings of East India. He always was serious; he could not bear to see anything abused, neither man nor beast, literature nor art, religion nor philosophy. He hated all cliques, all unmanly means to oppose those that think differently; he despised the socialistic ideas of modern times, as these developed themselves during the revolutionary days of '48 and '49; in short, he was completely at odds with his own times, and with many of the men that held the wheels of government or that fashioned public thought. Despite his exclusiveness, many great men came to Frankfurt to make his acquaintance, and not a few remained with him in order to study his philosophy or to listen to his interesting conversations. This made the last years of his life more pleasant and himself more social. By nature he was an ascetic; in his teaching and conversation he was an ascetic. He denounced many of those who taught philosophy in the Universities of Germany as mere *Spitzhals*, and, upon the whole, he called them a most sorrowful crew. Hegel he regarded as the arch-bumbler. Even Kant he accused of veiling his ignorance at times by using language that is difficult to understand. Yet he said that he held Kant in the very highest esteem, and he often pronounced him the clearest thinker of modern times. Schopenhauer despised obscurity in anything, so he was also a despoiler of all duplicity in the use of language. When he speaks, he always stands at a point; he never sets off mere fire-crackers or Roman candles. He always uses hard shot that hits, though from a Christian standpoint he often shoots a wrong target. If he uses the knife he cuts to the bone, and what he says he means regardless of the opinions of others. He displays the utmost faith in the correctness of his own theories, and predicts that in the future, when men shall judge with more freedom, this philosophy will be accepted as the only correct one. What if such a man had been a Christian, a teacher of sound theology. His writings are sometimes difficult to understand, partly because he uses technical terms with special meanings attached to them that he must be taught by much close reading of his theories. Moreover, he often writes in lengthy and intricate sentences, but after studying these, his ideas always stand out clearly. No matter how we may dislike many of these ideas, and no matter how much we may deplore the fact that they were not turned into the right channel, we must give him credit for fearlessness, for candor, and for freedom from all school-craft. The fundamental ideas of his philosophy are these:—The Will of man is the real thing in it, the world, all else is mere representation. This Will, of which Schopenhauer

speaks, is not what in common language is meant by the absolute free power of action, but implies, in the philosopher's mind, the essence of all things, the all-pervading power manifesting itself everywhere. This Will stands separate from the faculty of reasoning; it is the thing in itself which the created world and the Creator meet. From this standpoint man becomes the act, the true manifestation of the Will. The Will, which lies at the foundation of all representations and appearances, develops into a succession of ideas. From the animal downward, the Will is void of cognition and ideas; it is a mere animal life, until in man it manifests itself through the nerve power and the brain, thereby reaching its highest state of self-consciousness. The Will comes first; it is the greatest factor, and the Intellect stands second to it. According to Schopenhauer's theories, the Intellect is a tool in the hands of the Will; it may be permitted to use this expression. The Will always manifests itself by instinct it seeks food and shelter. Among the common people, that factory-woman of society, as Schopenhauer calls them, the Will has no higher aims and wants than self-gratification. With them the Will is the master and the brain the servant, but when man becomes educated, when he reads a high state of culture, the brain begins to rule and gradually subdues the Will. In this state of culture, which is the highest type of sensibility and intellectuality, the mind becomes the supreme ruler. The Intellect is so completely absorbed and so intensely interested in the clear perception of things, that the Will is, as it were, put into chains; the mind emancipates itself from the Will and its uselessness and productivity, but simply for their own sakes. This is the pleasurable aesthetic contemplation of which Schopenhauer speaks so much, and of which I will say more at another place. This aesthetic contemplation affords us, however, only temporary relief; it suppresses the Will power only for a brief period of time, for the renewed activity of the Will forces upon us bitterly towards his mother was her neglect of his father's memory. There was a great gift, so to speak, between the two, and so mother and son went their own ways. They had apparently nothing in common but their names. If I should be forced to take sides between the two, I would stand with Schopenhauer, for his ideas of the human family in all its corruptness, his ideas of the evil propensities of human nature, correspond most nearly with my experience.

At one time Schopenhauer's philosophical theories seemed to reach the masses of Germany, but they have lost much of this popularity. In the land of Locke and Bacon he became known in 1858 through an article in the *Westminster Review*, and it is claimed that the attention which was bestowed upon him by the English press tended largely to make him known among his own countrymen.

Schopenhauer died in Frankfurt on the 21st of September, 1860, at the age of 72. His house-keeper found him one morning, after breakfast, lifeless in his chair. He left a portion of his estate to the Invalides of the Prussian army who fought against the Socialists and Liberals in the revolution of '48 and '49. He allowed nothing to be put upon his tombstone but the bare name, *Arthur Schopenhauer*.

Perhaps some may think that, inasmuch as we are only concerned in Schopenhauer's musical theories, I have paid too much attention to his life and philosophy; but you will presently see that, in order to understand this latter, the facts given you are as a basis. His life-story might have been omitted, but I knew that there are many among you who are not content with the clear independent of the appearance, independent of time, space and causality. This Kant calls the "thing in itself," and as we cannot grasp it, this thing in itself is called the X of the universe. Schopenhauer steps in and says, that the Will is that which represents this X, and he claims that, by this solution, he has given positiveness and consciousness to the metaphysical world. The Will pervades all things, hence we become identified with all things, and

(To be continued.)

## SOME OLD PIANISTS.

BY A. VIANI-LOUIS.

### CZERNY.

CZERNY was born in Vienna, 21st of February, 1791. His father, Weniasius Czerny, was born in Bohemia, and had been settled at Vienna as professor of the piano since 1789. Too poor to be able to give his son an instruction, he himself set the boy to work at the composition of Samuel Bach, of Mozart, Clementi, and Beethoven, who soon became the special object of the young artist's devotion. He learnt writing in the dialectic style of Kirnberger, Albrechtsberger, and other theoreticians. Being intended from his childhood to teach the piano, he began to give lessons at the age of fourteen, and continued this career ever after. He was so much the vogue at Vienna, that he gave up twelve hours a day to playing and teaching. In this way he was unable to develop his own powers of execution, which would, otherwise, have been very remarkable. But the number of his written works is truly incredible. He did not publish his earliest compositions, and it was not till 1820, when he was aged twenty-nine, that his works appeared. But from that time until 1850 he published the most fabulous number of 850 productions, great and small, for the piano, while this figure does not include the arrangements of a vast quantity of symphonies, oratorios, opera overtures, and his German translation of the voluminous work of Reicha, upon harmony, nor his great "Méthode du Piano," nor his treatise on composition, nor twenty-four masses with orchestra, nor four requiems, three hundred gradua, motets, concertos symphonies, quatuors, quintets, and more than four hundred works, which remain in manuscript. It is evident that, for such labor as this, he must have given up living to the world, although he was a pleasing and amiable person. He was a small man, of delicate constitution and perfectly simple manners. He died at Vienna, aged sixty-six, 19th July, 1857.

### THEODORE DOHLER.

He was born, April 20th, 1814, at Naples, where his father was bandmaster in a regiment. Dohler was seven years old when he began the piano, but his talent was such that in six months he surpassed his father in his performance, though he had played for several years. When Benedict was reading in Naples, Dohler became his pupil—then he followed his family first to Palermo, where his father was engaged in the service of the Prince, and then to Vienna, where he became the pupil of Czerny. He had performed in public since he was thirteen years old, and although at seventeen he became virtuoso and private musician to the Prince de Laques, and had the honor of accompanying him in traveling, yet he obtained leave of absence, which enabled him to perform in all parts of Europe, and to give a vast number of concerts, first at Berlin and Leipzig, then in Italy, in France, in England, in Holland, all over Germany, in Sweden, and I know not where else, and at length in Russia, where he remained nearly two years. These travels had lasted from 1836 to 1848. At St. Petersburg he had found a powerful protectress in Princess Tschermakoff. Dohler was a person of handsome appearance and of charming manners. Thus it was that the interest entertained for the pianist by the Princess changed to a more tender sentiment, and although she was a widow, great difficulties in the way, and his art, yet by perseverance and making some sacrifices, she succeeded in marrying him. He settled in Berlin, and the artist was transformed into the amateur. Unfortunately, at the moment when all seemed to promise for him the most delightful existence, his health broke down, and in spite of the most tender care, he languished and died at Rome, February 21st, 1856, at the early age of forty-two. Dohler's execution was delightful, and relatively the same charm is noticeable in his works also. He wrote many arrangements of airs from Italian operas. But his "Nocturnes" are his original works, and I prefer them to the former, as they better reveal to us his individual talent, of a graceful dreaminess.

### HENRY HERZ.

We now come to the "king of variation," Henry Herz. Born at Vienna, 6th January, 1803, he began his studies at Coblenz, under the direction of his father and by the aid of some elementary books. At eight years old he performed at a public concert the "Variations" by Hummel, Op. 8. But the weakness of his left hand in comparison with the right, rendered it an invincible obstacle to the development of his art, when his father thought of correcting this defect by the study of the violin, this idea was abandoned, and he was successful. He had scarcely received three months' instruction in composition from the organist Hunten, when Herz wrote a number of sonatas, and, in 1818, he, foreseeing the musical future that awaited him, traveled

place him in the most favorable conditions for the development of his powers. He took him to Paris, and obtained his admission to the Conservatoire, 10th April, 1816. Prudher was his master, became attached to him, and immediately looked upon Herz as the hope of the approaching competition of pianos, when, at the last moment, his studies were interrupted by an attack of smallpox. However, four days before the contest took place, the invalid left his bed, and, trembling with weakness, set himself down to his piano. Four days afterward he had carried off from his mind all that he had learned at the Conservatoire. From this moment his talent soared aloft, his reputation was made, his name became popular. Herz was the pupil of Prudher for harmony, sound of feeling, and he wrote his first works, *L'air Tyrolaise* with variations, and the *Rondo alla Cosca*, when he was hardly sixteen years old, and his productions were most favorably received.

The arrival of Moscheles at Paris, and the concerts he gave there, greatly influenced the style of Henry Herz—his playing gained in elegance, lightness and brilliancy. It is remarkable that while Herz now appropriated a little of the manner of Moscheles, this last altered his somewhat, for it was after his performing at Paris that his playing took a larger character and a more elevated style.

In 1831 Herz and the celebrated violinist Lafont made their first brilliant journey through Germany. In 1834, Herz visited England, Scotland and Ireland, and was everywhere enthusiastically received. In 1838 and 1839, Herz and Lafont traveled together in Holland and Southern France, but their course of successes was interrupted by the death of Lafont, who was killed by an accident to a diligence.

About this time Henry Herz became concerned in the manufacture of pianos, the first with which he had to deal alone. But, occupied as he was with composition, teaching and performing, he neglected his own interests, and suffered considerably.

He then determined, in order to keep up his manufactory, to pay a visit to America, where he was already greatly celebrated by his compositions, and he set out in 1845. Three times he traversed the United States (giving over 400 concerts), from New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Charleston, and New Orleans, to Jamaica. Then he passed to Havana and Vera Cruz, then to Mexico, always giving a number of concerts. At the request of General Herrera, then President of the Mexican Republic, he composed a symphony, a poem which had been put up for competition, and which has since become the national hymn of that country.

He traveled through Mexico, crossed the Cordilleras on the track of a mule, visited Chili and Peru, traversing the countries from end to end, and then went to California, where, in spite of the yellow fever, his concerts were well attended.

The story of the first of these, an evening concert, is typical enough. All was ready, the audience assembled in the hall, and Herz appeared to begin his performance, when the discovery was made that one thing was wanting—the piano! nobody had thought of that! and there was not a single piano in the whole of the theatre in the city of Sacramento. What was to be done? "Sing a French romance," cried several voices, and Herz began to sing without accompaniment. While this was going on, some of the audience had hurried away, determined to go off some few miles distant, and fetch an old discarded harpsichord which they presently brought in, carrying it on their shoulders. One octave only was all in order, and it was on this octave that Herz made his performance. One can imagine what the kind of music that must have been! But every one, even the pianist as well, had lighted their cigars, and the evening passed to the satisfaction with all, and without the request for a second concert, for which they sent to Valparaiso for a piano. Herz then returned to Valparaiso, to Lima, and to Santiago, and then he came back to Vienna, and at length came back to Paris, after an absence of five years, that had home abundant fruit.

At this time, 1851, Henry Herz gave himself up to the development of his manufacture of pianos, and raised it to the highest standard. Satisfied and happy on this point, he still did not neglect the source of his former successes, and again started on his travels, making numerous and always fruitful expeditions, first to Spain, then in Belgium, in Holland, the Rhine Provinces, Russia, Poland, etc., etc.

The quality of the music by Herz for the piano was so admirable, it excelled that of all other music of the same kind during about fifteen years; and his success was such that great editors paid three or four times as much for his manuscripts than they would for those of better composers. These were pianos of the first class, and 200 in number. His style is especially brilliant in execution—and Herz composed a vast quantity of variations on operative airs, while at the same time he was certain with the orchestra, which have a certain value and originality, but these are the least known of his works. As for foreign romances, and sonatas, and the piano, piano, piano, and violoncello. All the rest are more or

less "Variations" on subjects such as "The Violet," "La Petit Tambour," "La Sonnambulu," etc., and he may be called the inventor of the "genre" "Heminiscences," in which the several airs of one or two composers are bound together for the purpose of all, by transition passages of great brilliancy.

It is a drawing-room music in the true meaning of the word. It attracts attention to the performer, it amuses the company, and it does not prevent earnest music, true music, learned or literary persons, from thinking of something else. Henry Herz's manufactory had of a magnificent manufactory of pianos, has a charming and affectionate wife, and completes, in tranquil ease, a career which has been the most enjoyable and most fortunate among musicians.

(Concluded next Number.)

## THE VARIETY OF PIANO PLAYING.

If the great Solomon had lived in these latter days, he would probably have made his famous utterance, "Vanitas, vanitas rerum est vanitas," much stronger; for surely this piano-banging age, with its plethora of piano music, is enough to provoke the spleen of the inspired Hebrew Psalmist himself.

For some time past there have been paragraphs going the rounds of the musical papers to the effect that an early concert of Liszt's at Vienna, had been too much to light among his effects, and that Bernard Stavenhagen, his favorite pupil, was preparing it for public performance. This was a very curious statement, as Liszt's "Malediction," for this posthumous re-erecting of works is a malediction, and, with the exception of Bach and Schubert, is a pretty congenial title, said to be in F major, has been unearthed, and the question arises, where is this thing going to end? We all know how unwise it was to publish, after Mendelssohn and Schumann's death, so many of their unimportant and even poor compositions. But how much worse in Liszt's case, particularly as we are told these compositions belong to his early or virtuosic period.

There ought to be a society formed for the prevention of cruelty to artists, and the publication of posthumous works strictly prohibited. The world has seldom profited from them, and certainly the reputation of the artist, in nine cases out of ten, suffers. The late Liszt, a great pianist was only too prolific during his lifetime with his pen, and one shudders at the bare possibility of a string of posthumous publications. The musical world, the musical novels have increased even more rapidly since his death than during his lifetime. With a constant influx of pianists and piano music, the musical world, the musical world to become palatial. How abominable all this is to the principles of true musical art need not be pointed out. So serious is the situation that Gounod and several other eminent musicians have taken up the cudgels against the legion of protean pianist prestidigitators, who, like the Huns of old, threaten to bury our modern musical Rome in a storm of cacophony and cannibalism.

In some cities the local authorities have even stepped in to abate the piano nuisance, and if they could only interfere and prevent their too frequent appearance in the concert room, a long-suffering public would rise up and chant a hosanna of gratitude. It has simply become unbearable, this constant inartistic piano drumming, and now, since "technic made easy" has become a household word, we are violently assailed by young persons of both sexes—generally the former—by their noisy and inartistic playing. It is a pity that the musical world, in its idea that digital dexterity means music, and who, since that Columbus of the Piano, Liszt, showed them how easy it was to stand the technical egg on its long end, have been outwitting their master ever since by trying to stand one egg on another one. In a word, prodigious technical feats, and not musical, are the order of the day. In some cities the local authorities have even stepped in to abate the piano nuisance, and if they could only interfere and prevent their too frequent appearance in the concert room, a long-suffering public would rise up and chant a hosanna of gratitude. It has simply become unbearable, this constant inartistic piano drumming, and now, since "technic made easy" has become a household word, we are violently assailed by young persons of both sexes—generally the former—by their noisy and inartistic playing. It is a pity that the musical world, in its idea that digital dexterity means music, and who, since that Columbus of the Piano, Liszt, showed them how easy it was to stand the technical egg on its long end, have been outwitting their master ever since by trying to stand one egg on another one. In a word, prodigious technical feats, and not musical, are the order of the day.

Twist's, continually asks for "more." It is not for the intrinsic musical quality of this little boy's playing that one-half the audiences can stand, but for the mere display of a child of his tender years manipulating the keyboard as he does; and a wonder it is, isn't only excites the public mind in a wrongful direction. One-armed pianists, one-legged pianists (pedestals, they call themselves, we believe), pianists without arms (we were almost tempted to say pianists without brains, but we have such an enormous multitude of that class that the fact is overstocked), will soon occupy the musical arena, to the exclusion of everything artistic. This unhealthy craving for the sensational, however, is not the worst. The worst of all is that the public is being taught not to speak of the infinite harm it does to the lad himself, who will, like the famous little Hungarian, Flistsch, Chopin's pupil, was almost ruined by it. In a word, it is time to cry halt to all this sort of thing, and also to attempt to stem the rising torrent of pianism from the theatre, and to have the pianist play on the piano as an instrument as far as it goes, but it is responsible for an immense amount of unpleasantness—besides, there is a way to do much of it in a single hour.

Yours in Diapason,  
OLD FOOT.

[FOR THE ETUDE.]

## PIANO PLAYING AND GENERAL MUSICAL INSTRUCTION FROM THE BEGINNING TO THE END.

BY CARLITE PETERSLER.

Before entering minutely into the technicalities of piano playing and general musical instruction, I desire to call attention to the following article which appeared in a recent issue of the *Transcript*. There are so many conflicting opinions in regard to class instruction in music that it is important, for the advancement of Art, that the subject should be thoroughly studied by some of our advanced musical educators. Pupils who are anxious to make the most rapid advancement ought to take class and private instruction of the same teacher.

## CLASS INSTRUCTION AND MUSICAL EDUCATION.

Any effort to demonstrate the advantages of class instruction as a whole is entirely called for, in view of the indorsement it receives at the hands of all intelligent educators; but the mistaken and widely-dissipated idea, that music does not belong to the catalogue of studies best pursued by this method, deserves attention and refutation. The existence of such an idea may be easily accounted for, in view of the fact that, until a comparatively recent date, the study of music has been considered of too little importance to secure for it any attention at the hands of our public school boards or the facilities of academies and collegiate institutions in this country; and, further, the not altogether unselfish prejudice of very private teachers has certainly influenced public opinion, so far as it may have been untrained, and, consequently, unintelligent, upon the subject.

The proposition, that music does come under the same category, in this regard, with all those topics comprised in a curriculum of collegiate or professional study, is manifestly erroneous, if it may be shown that the advantages accrue in the one case as in the other; and we are confident that the mere enumeration of these advantages will be sufficient to convince every candid judgment that the discrimination which has been made against class instruction in music is entirely unjustified and illogical. We may notice—1, That the system is less expensive, so that the best instruction is possible within the reach of all; 2, That the student is awakened, which spurs to persistent effort; 3, Self-possession and confidence are acquired as a result of the security of recitation before the class; 4, The student is preserved from one-sidedness and excessive self-esteem; 5, Comparison with others affords opportunity for judging intelligently as to one's own advancement, thus interdicting that spirit of contentment so easily imposed upon by indifferent or unscrupulous teachers; 6, The questions asked by different members of the class (the answers to which may be equally profitable to all) must call into requisition more thorough preparation upon the part of the teacher, and at the same time necessarily increase the sum total of instruction imparted; 7, Mental quickening and inspiration are realized as the result of the association of differently constituted minds; 8, The critical faculties are cultivated the more, since each student comes to sustain the relation of judge, the faults of others being seen, and suggestions respecting them being heard under circumstances which tend to impress them most indelibly upon the mind. The gain in these respects will readily be granted; but further, although class teaching necessitates the devotion of less time to the individual student, this need not involve any disadvantage in view of a truth which is coming to be recognized by all thoughtful teachers, viz.: that the student needs guidance, suggestion and criticism, rather than routine drill and accompaniment; and that the teacher's best service is done in simply superintending and directing the pupil, leaving him to work out his own development under the impulse of personal interest and enthusiasm. Originally is thus stimulated, individually preserved, and the best results achieved. For such criticism and superintendence the class system gives abundant time. Now that all these advantages attach to class work in any line of study will surely meet with no denial; there are additional facts to be mentioned, moreover, which render this system especially suited to the wants of those who are seeking a musical education. And first this—while the members of a given class are doing the same grade of work, their studies may not be identical, and so it is possible for each to profit by the instruction, explanation and criticism attaching to a much wider range of music than they could possibly command alone. Again, the quiet self-reliance and ability to do one's best in the presence of others is an essential to any satisfactory interpretation of music, and all study must prove valueless if the individual is controlled by the eye of criticism; it is that which embarrasses and confuses them first in the nervous system; and self-command must be acquired, and apparent that nothing is so conducive to this end as constant association with others and performance in their presence.

It should be remembered, too, that in this system each student is required to enter upon a regular course of technical study, which course cannot be given up out of love for "pieces," nor yet in deference to the wishes of parents, who are in haste to have some "showing," if he ever so superficial, for their investment, but must be pursued uninterruptedly through all the grades of study, since graduation and final graduation upon substantial acquisitions in this line.

The number of students who, having spent years in study, found upon examination, to have wasted the bulk of their time either in playing trashy music or in presumptuous undertakings for which they were wholly unprepared, is so surprising that the importance of this point can scarcely be over-estimated. It is true that this advantage could be secured in private study; but the number of private students who are thus required to take up and make a regular course of technical training is comparatively small, and they do not affect the discussion.

More important than all these, however, is the consideration, that while in private study pupils are likely to become acquainted with all their own faults, and the best way of handling them, it is entirely possible that, having reached proficiency themselves, they may meet with a difficulty in their first pupil of which they have no knowledge whatever, and which will necessarily have to be treated experimentally until, after many trials and much blundering, they acquire the skill which alone insures success. Now, though the classes be limited to three or four, the changes which are constantly being made in them as the result of regraduation, etc., make it possible for the student to observe the weakness and abilities of a large number of individuals, and to familiarize himself with the best means (exercises, studies, etc.) used in overcoming the same. In a word, the superior intelligence necessarily possessed by a teacher who is able to meet the demands of every variety of temperament, and to overcome every variety of mental obstacle, is placed at the disposition of every student; and it is fair to presume that those especially who are studying with the expectation of becoming teachers, will be anxious and ready to profit to the utmost by such an opportunity, since they can but remember that the near future will surely demand of them the ability to meet and handle all these difficulties. That there may be those so constituted that they cannot utilize these advantages to the full, and that there are teachers giving instruction in classes who fail to appreciate or even understand the full significance of class instruction, is a possibility; but, consequently, that their pupils will fully advantage, may be true; but objects to the system of class instruction must either demonstrate to fill the place of class instruction, or to fall into mediocrity as he advances in years, there is no doubt that at the present moment he presents a singularly interesting example of juvenile precocity. And that not alone as a musical genius.

## JOSEF HOFMANN.

Whether Josef Hofmann, the ten-year-old child who has lately excited such a commotion in the musical world, be destined, says London *Times*, to grow into a second Mozart, or to fill the place of Liszt, or to fade into mediocrity as he advances in years, there is no doubt that at the present moment he presents a singularly interesting example of juvenile precocity. And that not alone as a musical genius.

Young Josef was born at Cracow on June 30, 1877, and at the early age of seven he attracted the notice of Anton Rubinstein, who is responsible for the bold prophecy that he is a prodigy and that he will be remembered.

He is a sturdy lad, though small for his age, and the mere grasp of his hand betokens no small physical strength. He has not yet possessed of so little endurance to play ten or a dozen long and difficult pieces at a concert, and then to rush off eagerly to join in a game of ball-tennis. Yet this is what he did not long ago, and when a friend expressed a fear that he would tire himself, he answered: "It is easy to play just once, but to have the pleasure, I must go and learn!" He is, in fact, a thorough boy, with all a boy's enjoyment of fun and mischief.

At the Crystal Palace, when, his performance was over, he was eager to escape from the applause of the crowd in order to sample the different species of pea-shooters he had purchased there. The adoration he receives from the softer sex is at present a great bore to Josef.

Not long since, a gentleman who had heard that he was going to perform at Hull, asked him to stay at his home, holding out, among other inducements, the society of little Josef. He refused to do so, and to refuse point-blank, but he climbed on to the knee of his friend, Mr. Lindlar, and whispered in his ear: "I don't want to go. The ladies will be all over my hair, and they take the ribbons off my clothes, and make me sign my name all day—and they are always kissing me, and I don't like it at all!" He does not practice very much, about an hour and a half a day being deemed sufficient for the present. He cares very little for the tremendous applause with which he is greeted, but is keenly sensitive to criticism or blame. The avowed object of his present tour is to collect funds for his musical education, and as the end of 1888 he has secured a space, not to reappear until he has attained maturity years.

## OLD-TIME FRAUDS.

There was a time, not so long ago, when the profession of music, at least that part of it which has to do with teaching, was almost wholly in the hands of a set of men

whose knowledge of the art was narrow, and acquaintance with other subjects still more so. Men of this class were readily distinguishable by their long hair, hard-bounding names and dirty gait; the latter may have been absent in some cases, but the former, never. Teachers with common every-day names were passed by in favor of Herr Fountainebleau, Herr Teichschornsky, Signor Squallini, or Monsieur Des-Carapachestrings, and whose ability was usually in inverse ratio to the length of their name. So prevalent was the fashion of entreating the musical education to such men that our own countrymen adopting the profession from choice found it necessary to carry a honest patronage list, and the name-breaking assumed name, and dissemble their nationality by a pitiless murder of their mother tongue. Mr. Brown, the merchant, had no use for plain Joe Green, the music teacher, who probably sat on the same bench at school with him in their youthful days; but had unlimited confidence in the ability of Giovanni Verdi, of whose antecedents he knew nothing. He may have been the deepest-dyed expatriated rascal under the sun; but no inquiry was made; he was introduced to the home as a foreigner, and, synonymously, a musician—because he claimed to be such in halting English.

Yet, paradoxically, this tribe of tramp musicians, whose authority in music was considered final, were at the same time considered as little better than simpletons and fools in other matters. Speaking in this way, we are not individualizing; we speak of a class, and under the consciousness that there did exist many notable and honorable exceptions, many of whom were not so much the degradation of a position which brought upon them treatment similar to that meted out to court jesters in days of old—applauded and petted one moment, to be buffed and derided the next.

No wonder, that with such things before their eyes, the youth of that day, armed as they may have loved music for itself, turned with repugnance from the idea of adopting it as a profession, seeing only reproach in so doing. This feeling, common to many of the best of our young men, is sufficiently strong to add bitterness to the crop of annoyances incidental to the profession of music, and which teachers are bound to encounter. But, withal, the time seems to be close at hand when music as a profession will be esteemed as worthy and honorable as any in the cycle of science or art.—*The Metronome*.

The localization of function in the brain is now definitely established. One part of it is devoted to impressions of one kind; another to those of another, and so on. This fact has been established through the observed effect of lesions in certain parts of the brain, and the losses of mental power accompanying them. From one part of the brain to another there are minute fibres, called commissural fibres, which run like telephone wires, by thousands, here and there in every direction. The supposed design of these fibres is that of conveying from one part to another intelligence of its having been affected by a sense impression. Of course, we really know nothing of the actual mechanism by which sense impressions are compared with each other, and conclusions arrived at concerning them. There is reason to think, however, that nothing like a conclusion is arrived at until after a sense impression has been reflected back and forth between several of these departments of cells, or between the different localities of a single department. Whatever the subject of knowledge, whether musical effect, information, or what not, it comes into the brain only as a report of a particular kind of impression upon a nerve or senses of sense. It is by transactions within the brain that the individual concludes concerning any impression that it is pleasurable, or that it gives him information in any way. When the impressions reported are those of articulate speech, they must be classified into their consonant and vowel elements, these grouped into words, and these again into sentences, before the mind is able to conclude anything concerning them. Sentences, again, must be remembered, and comparisons continued through several minutes, it may be, before the individual is able to reach the conclusions to which the speaker would lead him. This which thus demonstrably takes place in speech, takes place still more in music.

The elements of a music piece are: (1) rhythm, (2) determinately selected pitches, (3) certain gradations of tone color, (4) rates of movement or pulsation, (5) variations of intensity, and (6) an articulate organization of form. Each one of these departments involves the registry of a large number of sense impressions, and their comparison with each other, before anything intelligible can be concluded concerning the piece to which they belong. In rhythm, for example, there is a comparison of the succeeding impressions with the registered record of the former, as to their frequency; these comparisons are so accurate as to enable the hearer to perceive that certain impressions are multiples of others, as to their rate of frequency. The persistence of impressions of

## CONCERNING THE PSYCHOLOGICAL RELATION OF MUSIC.

By W. S. R. MATTHEWS.

The various operations of cognizing music may be reduced to three categories: perceiving, comparing, and concluding. For example, certain sounds fall upon the ear, where they make impressions of number and intensity. The investigations of Helmholtz have shown the mechanism by which the ear takes cognizance of impressions of pitch and power. We may suppose that this part of the work is done automatically, just as in the harmonic telephone the receiving forks answer to their own rate of vibrations, only. So the little filaments spread out in the cochlea of the ear probably answer to specific rates of vibration, or nearly so. Upon whatever filament a series of vibrations falls, the report of it is immediately sent upward to the brain, to what is called the cortex, or outer coating of it, and to the particular part of this having to do with musical sounds, or, more properly, impressions of pitch. Now the cortex of the brain is one of the most curious structures known to Anatomy. It is of considerable thickness, nearly that of sole leather, and if spread out would make an irregular circle nearly-two feet in diameter. This coating consists of what is known as the gray matter, in which all thinking is done. It is composed of cells, myriads upon myriads of them, microscopic in size, by far the most of them merely germs of what some day may become cells, but which at present are merely material for future use.

The abundance of this material is such, that the most profound thinker never use half their possibility of brain development. The wonderful thing about the brain is that these cells are developed into maturity under the desire or the effort to use them. A few of them are half developed at birth. Such are those having to do with the instinctive and functional acts of infant life. No sooner does the child feel the pressure of the air than it begins to breathe, and no sooner does it feel a pressure upon its lips than it attempts to suck. Just in the same manner the young duck begins to swim as soon as it feels the water.

The localization of function in the brain is now definitely established. One part of it is devoted to impressions of one kind; another to those of another, and so on. This fact has been established through the observed effect of lesions in certain parts of the brain, and the losses of mental power accompanying them. From one part of the brain to another there are minute fibres, called commissural fibres, which run like telephone wires, by thousands, here and there in every direction. The supposed design of these fibres is that of conveying from one part to another intelligence of its having been affected by a sense impression. Of course, we really know nothing of the actual mechanism by which sense impressions are compared with each other, and conclusions arrived at concerning them. There is reason to think, however, that nothing like a conclusion is arrived at until after a sense impression has been reflected back and forth between several of these departments of cells, or between the different localities of a single department. Whatever the subject of knowledge, whether musical effect, information, or what not, it comes into the brain only as a report of a particular kind of impression upon a nerve or senses of sense. It is by transactions within the brain that the individual concludes concerning any impression that it is pleasurable, or that it gives him information in any way. When the impressions reported are those of articulate speech, they must be classified into their consonant and vowel elements, these grouped into words, and these again into sentences, before the mind is able to conclude anything concerning them. Sentences, again, must be remembered, and comparisons continued through several minutes, it may be, before the individual is able to reach the conclusions to which the speaker would lead him. This which thus demonstrably takes place in speech, takes place still more in music.

The elements of a music piece are: (1) rhythm, (2) determinately selected pitches, (3) certain gradations of tone color, (4) rates of movement or pulsation, (5) variations of intensity, and (6) an articulate organization of form. Each one of these departments involves the registry of a large number of sense impressions, and their comparison with each other, before anything intelligible can be concluded concerning the piece to which they belong. In rhythm, for example, there is a comparison of the succeeding impressions with the registered record of the former, as to their frequency; these comparisons are so accurate as to enable the hearer to perceive that certain impressions are multiples of others, as to their rate of frequency. The persistence of impressions of

this class is perhaps greater than that of any other. This is shown in the fact that a motive of decided rhythm, having been several times heard already in the course of a music piece, is immediately recalled to the memory when only its rhythm is repeated, although the transformation of the melodic intervals may be so complete as to amount to an inversion. It is also seen in the fact that one not unfrequently marks time to music heard at a distance while he is engaged in something near at hand, as in conversation, for instance. It is also known that a person engaged in writing or study, occupying apparently the whole attention, can be made to whistle a familiar air, if the air be sounded very softly in his hearing. If it be sounded loudly, his attention will be consciously drawn to it, but if softly, he will not know that he has heard it, but will unconsciously whistle it or hum it, according to his habit of giving expression to the music that happens to engage his fancy. In fact the impression of time is so strong in music that the pulsation of the rhythm is the one and single element of unity between the different movements of sonatas, symphonies, etc., where there is no repetition of key, no repetition of motives out of the other parts of the work, and nothing apparently upon which an impression of unity can base itself. It was formerly supposed that the different movements of a sonata, that the unity, which all good observers felt, and which all aesthetic laws required to subsist between them, was only what they called "an ideal unity;" as if there could be an ideal unity, or any kind of unity, in our present state of existence, at least, without some physical basis through which it could impress itself upon the attending consciousness. In this case that element is the pulsation of the time. If there be another, it will come out later in the present discussion.

The most elaborate comparisons undertaken by the brain, in respect to music, are those having pitch for their subject matter. The object of all comparisons between one sense impression and another, is that of finding between them a principle of unity. It is for this purpose that the mind seeks to group vowel elements and consonant elements into words, and words into sentences, and sentences into discourse. Now in music the comparisons in respect to pitch are of the most elaborate description. We can hardly hope to take account of more than a small part of them; and in doing this we are very likely to regard comparisons as simple which in reality are highly complex. What is a melody, as we conceive it? It is, first, a succession of pitches, having an agreement of what we call tonality, as well as a definitely organized movement and motivation in time. The perception of the principle of tonal unity, involves the conception of all the tones in the key; or of so many of them as are necessary to render the key certain. We do not know how many subconscious comparisons it may need to produce this impression; but be they many or few, they must all be made before we can be certain that a particular succession of pitches is part of the same key. This latent impression of the key as a whole is present and enters into all our enjoyment of a melody; or, at least, into such an enjoyment of it as would enable a musical person to repeat it. This involves the perception or recognition of all the points of repose, as to their place in key, and of the place of every tone between them, because in this the meaning of the melody rests.

It is easy to demonstrate that what we call the mental effect of tones in key rests upon a perception of the key as a whole. For instance, there is a melody called Dennis, well known to American singers. This melody is of a gentle expression; its quality is due, apparently, to the fact that out of thirteen accents five fall on "do," the tone of repose, and three on "mi," the steady or calm tone, to use the naming of the Tonic Sol-Fa. The vigorous tone Warwick, on the contrary, has seven accents on "do," one on "re," four on "mi," one on "fa," nine on "sol," four on "la," and two on "ti." The strength and dignity of this melody, therefore, reside in the preponderance of sixteen accents upon those two extreme points of the major scale, "do," the tone of repose, and "sol," the strong tone. The same influence will be found to pervade all the slow movements of the great masters, one and all; in so far as they possess an expression residing in the key relationship of the tones themselves, it will be found to correspond with the preponderance of accent upon particular tones of the scales. It is important to observe that the coloring of tones in key belongs to them merely as tones in key. As soon as these tones are put in some other key their characteristic expression changes, as any reader can easily convince himself, by a few well-man-

JOHN REHMANN.

## PIANO TEACHING.

BY  
F. LE COUPPEY.

## III.

FIRST LESSONS.—SHOULD A MUSICAL EDUCATION  
BE BEGUN BY THE STUDY OF SOLFEGGIO?

It is believed, and it is a prejudice unfortunately too widely diffused, that in laying the foundation of a musical education, an inferior teacher and a poor instrument will answer all purposes. I cannot too strongly express my disapproval of an opinion so opposed to the rules of common sense. Far from being of no consequence, the first lessons, on the contrary, exercise a very direct action on the pupil's future, and their influence is long felt. Often, several years hardly suffice to correct faults contracted during a few months, and more than one talent has gone to ruin from having been badly directed at the outset. Even if it does not lead to any such serious consequences, the use of a poor instrument causes other troubles that should be considered. If the piano is old, worn out, or out of order, there is danger that the pupil will soon be disgusted. Who would not object to playing on an instrument whose shrill and cracked tones continually grate on the ear! A good piano, then, is indispensable. The resistance of the keys, yielding more or less easily to the touch, ought to be in proportion to the strength of the fingers. The piano, moreover, should be frequently tuned, for a false instrument injures the ear and destroys the feeling of intonation. It is no doubt an advantage to unite the talent of a virtuoso to the merit of a teacher, but it is by no means indispensable for a teacher to be a skillful performer. In order to conduct a child's musical education successfully, it is sufficient to have studied under the direction of an experienced master, and, above all, to possess that is understood by these words, a *good method*. Let me quote here a few lines from the preface to one of my books:\*

\*A. B. C. du piano. Méthode pour les commençants.

"During the first few months, the study of music, properly so called, and the study of the instrument should be entirely separated from one another. They may be carried on at the same time and in some degree parallelly; but if they are combined in one and the same study, a complication of difficulties will inevitably arise; the pupil is wearied and the teacher discouraged. When a child's musical education drags along slowly and tediously, the reason of it must be sought for way back in the beginning. Consider, indeed, all that is expected of a pupil from the very first lessons, think of the multitude of things claiming a share of his attention, the names of the notes on the two different clefs, their value and that of the rests, the different combinations of measure and rhythm, the meaning of the accidental signs, the sharps, the flats, etc., the position of the hands on the keyboard, the flexibility of the arms, the holding of the body, the regular movement of the fingers, the manner of striking the key, and, in a word, all that constitutes the theory, reading, and execution. You are led to wonder that a young mind ever succeeds in wrestling successfully with so many difficulties all at one and the same time, and you cannot but question if there are ever met with natures so gifted as to succeed even despite drawback of a faulty method. Instead of combining so many incongruous things, so many things that have no bond of union, it would be simpler and more logical to group together the elements of the same nature; on

the one hand, to exercise the pupil in what is commonly understood by the study of the solfeggio, and on the other, to make execution a special object. The professor, of course, will always be judge of the time when it will be practicable to unite these two parts of the art."

The first lessons given to a child should be frequent, and not very long; later, they may be lengthened, though it is not to be forgotten that they must never be otherwise than agreeable. He should be led, above all things, to love the study; it should be transformed into a pleasure; in short, his attention should always be held in an interesting way. In beginning, pupils are inspired with ardor and good will, and if the teacher can keep them in this happy mood, if he knows how to make his lessons attractive to them, the hour of his coming, far from being dreaded as a time of weariness, will even be awaited with eager impatience. I repeat, that the child's first lessons should be short and frequent; it is also advisable that his regular practice be watched over, either by his mother, or by the one intrusted with the responsibility of his education, and this person should carry out the teacher's directions in every point, without questioning the means he employs. Unfortunately, many parents will not admit that their child is capable of understanding anything not clear to themselves, and often by their awkward objections they interfere in a lesson, and not only annoy the teacher, but do harm to the pupil. This tendency to meddle with the privileges of the teacher cannot be too strongly condemned. Parents should assist him, second him, always, however, giving the example of the deference that the pupil owes to the master.

## IV.

THE KIND OF MUSIC THAT SHOULD FORM THE  
BASE OF A GOOD EDUCATION IS CLASSICAL TO  
BE PREFERRED TO BRILLIANT MUSIC?

In the preceding chapter I have insisted upon the utility of keeping up the study of the solfeggio along with that of technique, all of which has been advocated by others before me. It is often said that *right will prevail in the end*, yet much time is often required for truth to succeed in replacing error. If famous masters have vainly insisted on reforms, if the authority of their words has been unheeded, if they have not been able to make their voices heard, I can scarcely hope that my opinions will meet with more attention.

Let us suppose that the pupil has overcome the first difficulties of the elementary study; at this point the question arises, what kind of music will be most favorable to his progress? I approach this question with some hope of being listened to, for my words will be found in harmony with the new tendencies which have appeared within a few years.

I lay it down as a principle, that piano instruction ought to be grounded on the study of classical music, which offers, if I may be allowed to express it, the healthiest food for students. The style of this music, always elevated, simple and natural, preserves them from a certain tendency to affectation and to exaggeration, toward which they too often allow themselves to be led. Moreover, classical music presents a neatness of form, a richness of style, which help in developing in pupils the feeling of time, of rhythm and of accentuation. In its relation to execution, it seems as if it had been expressly written for the purpose of giving flexibility, equality of strength and perfect independence to the fingers. Leav-

ing, now, the didactic side of the question to examine it from an artistic point of view, there will be still less reason to doubt. What modern productions, indeed, should we dare to compare to the masterpieces of the old school, to the sublime inspirations of Mozart, of Bach, of Beethoven? The most brilliant talents of our day are the first to bow before the illustrious names of these great artists of the past. I am well aware that the few adversaries of classical music will say that the works of the great masters present a difficulty of interpretation which renders the study of them impossible to young pupils. I will agree on this point so far as concerns Bach, Weber and Beethoven, though the latter has written some easy music. This objection will entirely disappear, however, if the repertory of the other composers of the last century be examined attentively. In Haydn there are some very easy things, all of exquisite elegance and beauty, and Mozart's works also comprise easy compositions, every page of which reveals the refined passion so characteristic of this divine master.

In a less elevated order, Clementi, Dussek, Steibelt, Cramer, Hummel and Field have likewise written a host of pieces, such as sonatas, rondos, and airs with variations, which are all excellent for the study of the piano, without presenting any serious difficulties. Indeed, the resources are as abundant as varied. Any method which confines one to a single style, becomes an enemy to progress; and in expressing my preferences for classical music as a basis of piano study, I do not wish to reject modern music absolutely. I advise, on the contrary, that it be studied in a small proportion, for it gives a certain variety in the practice which will often serve to awaken a pupil's taste and judgment.

Besides, it is well to be familiar with all kinds, with all styles, and it would be absurd to reject any particular music for the sole reason that it does not bear a great master's name. To-day everybody writes for the piano, and from this mania for composing there results a surplus of mediocre music, and the teacher often has a long and difficult task in making a judicious choice for his pupil. In this situation he will act prudently in giving the preference to works signed by artists of unquestionable talent; at the same time he ought to have enough originality, enough independence of judgment to accept such productions as may seem to him good and useful, even if the author be obscure and completely unknown.

To resume: whatever be a teacher's preference for a particular kind or for a certain school, he ought to put only good music into his pupils' hands. This point is essential. In the same way that a strong and healthy literary education excludes all frivolous reading, so, in a musical education, that which is mediocre should be rejected; and it should be early sought to form the pupil's taste, to elevate his thoughts, to introduce him to the masterpieces of the art.

I do not wish to appear exclusive; I admire the true and the beautiful wherever it is met, whatever be the school to which it belongs; and in thus setting forth my principles for a basis of a good musical education, I do not pretend to depreciate the merits of artists of the present day. I am glad, on the contrary, to pay them every honor, and in the foremost rank I recognize that Thalberg, Liszt, H. Herz, Stephen Heller, and many others will leave in the history of the art imperishable memories and justly honored names.