

Counterpoint, ‘Fuge’, and ‘Air’ in the Instrumental Music of Orlando Gibbons

Jonathan Oddie
Magdalen College
University of Oxford

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Abstract

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This thesis develops an analytical approach to the instrumental music of Orlando Gibbons (1583–1625) based on close readings of historical theory sources, primarily by Thomas Morley, John Coprario and Thomas Campion. Music of the early seventeenth century can be difficult to analyse, since it falls between the more extensively studied and theorised practices of classic vocal polyphony and common-practice tonality. Although English music theory of this period is recognised as strikingly modern in many respects, innovative aspects of English compositions from the same period receive little attention in standard accounts of the seventeenth century. I argue that concepts taken from this body of historical theory provide the basic terms of a technical vocabulary for analysis, which should be further refined through application to real compositions. Successive chapters deal with common counterpoint models or patterns, imitative invention and disposition, cadential progressions, and overall tonal structure. I argue that these analyses show Gibbons's music to be a contribution to new ways of conceiving of instrumental polyphony and tonal structure, which deserves re-evaluation in the context of broader seventeenth-century trends.

In particular, Gibbons's use of extended cadential expectations as an expressive element, fascination with sequential progressions, and sectional structuring by harmonic area have clear parallels with later practices. At the same time, early seventeenth century style allows the composer considerably more freedom of harmonic procedures and implications than the musical styles which immediately followed it. Analysis grounded in historical theory provides the best approach to understanding and appreciating this unique musical language.

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In the dedication to his *Plain and Easy Introduction to Practical Music*, Thomas Morley numbers, among those ‘whose benefits to us can never be requited’,

our masters [...] by whose directions the faculties of the reasonable soul be stirred up to enter into contemplation, and searching of more than earthly things.

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Abbreviations used in this thesis

MB 48 Orlando Gibbons, *Consort Music*, ed. John Harper, Musica Britannica 48 (London: Stainer and Bell, 1982).

MB 20 Orlando Gibbons, *Keyboard Music*, 2nd ed., ed. Gerald Hendrie, Musica Britannica 20 (London: Stainer and Bell, 2010).

References of the form ‘*MB* 48, no. 7’ refer to the piece that appears as no. 7 within *Musica Britannica* volume 48.

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Introduction

The excellence of the instrumental music of Orlando Gibbons has long been recognised. Ernst Hermann Meyer, in his pioneering 1946 study *English Chamber Music*, acclaimed Gibbons (1583–1625) as the ‘greatest master of the fantasia of the period’.¹ Willi Apel noted Gibbons’s profound understanding of ‘the intrinsic dynamics of a musical idea’, writing that ‘in the realm of keyboard music he certainly had no predecessor [...] and, for a long time, no successor.’² John Caldwell echoes Meyer, calling Gibbons ‘the great master of fugue’ in the period 1560–1625, and writing that in his compositions ‘the [fantasia] form reached the highest peak of its development’.³ Nor were Gibbons’s twentieth-century admirers the first to recognise something exceptional in his music. Peter Holman writes that Gibbons ‘was never forgotten in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries’, and John Harper notes that many of his fantasias for six viols and for consorts with double bass were copied in manuscripts through the second half of the seventeenth century, including at least one source that came into Henry Purcell’s hands.⁴ More recently, Candace Bailey has argued that Gibbons’s keyboard music was more widely distributed in later sources than that of many contemporaries, and that ‘it was Gibbons – not Byrd or Bull or Tomkins – whose keyboard music continued in practical

¹Ernst H. Meyer, *English Chamber Music: The History of a Great Art from the Middle Ages to Purcell* (London: Lawrence & Wishart, 1946), 153.

²Willi Apel, *The History of Keyboard Music to 1700*, trans. and rev. Hans Tischler, (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1972), 320.

³John Caldwell, *English Keyboard Music before the Nineteenth Century* (Oxford: Blackwell, 1973), 86.

⁴Peter Holman, ‘Senza fantasia’, review of John Harley, *Orlando Gibbons and the Gibbons family of musicians* (Ashgate: Aldershot, 1999), in *The Musical Times*, 141 (2000), 70–72; John Harper, introduction to *Musica Britannica* 48 (London: Stainer & Bell, 1982), xv.

use.⁵ Evidently, something exceptional about Gibbons's music attracted the attention of later musicians from the seventeenth century into the present.

Even Gibbons's greatest admirers, however, have sometimes found it difficult to say just what distinguishes his achievement. Meyer is exceptional in his unreserved admiration, describing Gibbons as a 'master of the art of contrast', and going so far as to claim that 'the way he mixes tragic and gay often reminds us of Shakespeare.'⁶ When it comes to assessing Gibbons's music in more detailed terms, however, difficulties soon arise. Holman, for example, writes that Gibbons's 'superb grasp of counterpoint', 'instinctive feeling for shapely structures', and 'profound knowledge of harmony' together add up to an '*indefinable* sense of "rightness"' (my emphasis), which is 'more powerful because it is expressed in a relatively conventional and moderate musical language'.⁷ However accurate this may be as an assessment of Gibbons's style in relation to his contemporaries, it is certainly not from its conventionality and conservatism that his music primarily derives its value. Several critics have found it easier to list the features Gibbons's music lacks than the virtues it possesses. Apel, for example, while emphasising Gibbons's 'refinement in taste', is also compelled to note the many significant absences in his music: 'the multiplicity and variety of ideas, so characteristic of Byrd and even of Farnaby, are completely lacking, and so are the dance-like, song-like, playful, and virtuosic features.'⁸ Caldwell, too, describes the style of Gibbons's fantasias principally by reference to what it is not, adding 'dry monothematicism' and 'scale-passages' to the list of the features in other composers' works which Gibbons eschews.⁹

The fantasia genre, to which Gibbons contributed much of his best instrumental music, also represents a problem for modern critics. Caldwell finds that

⁵Candace Bailey, 'Orlando Gibbons, Keyboard Music and the Beginnings of the Baroque: New Considerations of a Musical Style', *International Review of the Aesthetics and Sociology of Music* 37 (2006), 150.

⁶Meyer, *English Chamber Music*, 155.

⁷Holman, 'Senza fantasia', 72.

⁸Apel, *History of Keyboard Music*, 320.

⁹Caldwell, *English Keyboard Music*, 63.

it can be defined only in the most general terms: noting that fantasias ‘could incorporate various styles: chordal, scalic and contrapuntal, separately or in combination’, and that ‘nomenclature and form do not always correspond’, he concludes that ‘almost any kind of piece based on newly-invented material [...] could be called a “fantasia”’.¹⁰ Apel likewise notes that the lack of appropriate terminology makes the adequate analysis of individual fantasias difficult. Alluding to Morley’s famous definition of the fantasia as a genre in which ‘a musician taketh a point at his pleasure, and wresteth and turneth it as he list’, he writes that ‘a description of the process or its result is much more difficult, because the ideas are frequently “wrested and turned” in a manner for which no adequate terminology exists.’¹¹ In the absence of such an adequate terminology, discussions of this music are necessarily limited to the kind of general stylistic comparisons quoted above. As useful as they may be for situating the music of different composers in relation to stylistic norms, however, such descriptions are too blunt an instrument to account for the continued artistic appeal of music by a composer like Gibbons, whose commitment to a thoroughly polyphonic and contrapuntal manner renders his music superficially more uniform and less stylistically differentiated than that of his contemporaries.

While an element of ‘indefinable rightness’ will surely always remain in any music of acknowledged excellence, I argue in this thesis that we can understand Gibbons’s musical achievements much better through the application of analysis grounded in historical concepts. The best means available for developing the ‘adequate terminology’ mentioned by Apel, I argue, is close reading of historical writings on music from the period, coupled with modern theorising that

¹⁰Ibid., 66–67.

¹¹Apel, *History of Keyboard Music*, 209; Thomas Morley, *A plaine and easie introduction to practick musicke set downe in forme of a dialogue* (London, 1597), 181; Thomas Morley, *A Plain and Easy Introduction to Practical Music*, ed. R. Alec Harman, reprint of the 1963 ed. (New York: Norton, 1973), 296. Unless a modern edition is specifically noted, all references to textual primary sources in this thesis are to the electronic facsimile available in *Early English Books Online*, <<http://eebo.chadwyck.com>>. For convenience, references to Morley’s *Introduction* are given both to the original 1597 print, and to the edition edited by R. Alec Harman which first appeared in 1952.

generalises and extends their categories. Laurence Dreyfus has aptly expressed the aims and method of this kind of investigation in his work on Bach:

In the simplest sense, historical propriety means avoiding explanations for a piece of music that one can assert to have been utterly inconceivable to the composer. Pragmatically, this means being suspicious of terms that collide with well-established concepts and assumptions current in Bach's day, while at the same time daring to theorize beyond what can be reconstructed from explicit statements of eighteenth-century music writings.¹²

Looking to historical theory as a source of interpretative and analytical concepts is not without controversy. The omissions and confusions evident in English musical writings from this time have sometimes been taken as grounds either for ignoring them, or for studying them strictly as texts, in relation to other theory texts. Roger Bray writes, for instance, that as a guide to composition 'Morley is at best uncommunicative and at worst silent; a limited course on species counterpoint, an introduction to the hexachord, and a complete list of the most abstruse proportions do not a composer make'.¹³ Morley was well aware, however, that only the imitation and assimilation of models would suffice to take the student of practical music beyond the grammatical foundations his text supplies. His favourite precept is that 'by working we become workmen', and he advises his student that 'if you would compose well the best patternes for that effect are the workes of excellent men'.¹⁴ It is undoubtedly prudent to maintain a separation between musical theory and practice, since historical writers on music – no less than modern authors – have their own preconceptions, agendas, and inherited concepts. Taking the claims of these historical voices seriously, however, requires measuring their ideas against the yardstick of actual composed music.

¹²Laurence Dreyfus, *Bach and the Patterns of Invention* (Cambridge; London: Harvard University Press, 1996), 27.

¹³Roger Bray, introduction to *The Blackwell History of Music in Britain: The Sixteenth Century* (Oxford: Blackwell, 1995), 5–6.

¹⁴Morley, 167; Morley, ed. Harman, 276.

The five chapters which follow pursue this aim with respect to several different aspects of musical language. Chapter 1 describes some of the counterpoint models or patterns on which Gibbons draws for basic musical material in his keyboard and consort fantasias. These ‘commonplaces’ or ‘topics of invention’ derive ultimately from the practice of *stretto fuga*, as described by John Milsom, and were used frequently by an earlier generation of English vocal composers, as Julian Grimshaw has shown.¹⁵ I argue that Gibbons’s use of these patterns is unusual in the intensity of its concentration on extracting the maximum amount of variation from minimal materials. The thematic use of these models also means that they can represent a unifying feature linking together separate sections of a longer piece, as I argue with respect to the keyboard ‘Fantazia of Foure Parts’ which Gibbons contributed to *Parthenia*. Furthermore, the same voice-leading patterns can be shown to underlie not only imitative passages but also apparently non-imitative passages of chords and divisions in Gibbons’s music: in this respect they form a point of contact between apparently disparate styles. Finally, I argue that Gibbons’s thematic usage of these simple patterns resembles their use in contemporary Italian music by composers including Monteverdi, as well as having resonances with later practice, including the *partimento* tradition of the eighteenth century.

Chapters 2 and 3 discuss imitation, the central technique of the fantasia genre. Chapter 2 focuses on Gibbons’s three-part consort fantasies, drawing on the analytical approach which Peter Schubert terms ‘modular analysis’, and reading them against the model provided by the fantasias and theoretical writings of Gibbons’s contemporary John Coprario. The model of imitative composition presented in Coprario’s manuscript *Rules how to Compose* is clearly based on the repetition of two-voice modules, suggesting that the

¹⁵ John Milsom, “‘*Imitatio*’, ‘Intertextuality’, and Early Music’, in *Citation and Authority in Medieval and Renaissance Musical Culture: Learning from the Learned*, ed. Suzannah Clark and Elizabeth Eva Leach (Woodbridge: Boydell Press, 2005), 141–51; Julian Grimshaw, ‘Sixteenth-century English *fuga*: sequential and peak-note subjects’, *The Musical Times* 1900 (Autumn, 2007), 61–78.

analysis of this music should start by identifying repeated contrapuntal combinations, rather than simply entrances of a subject. Examining Gibbons's and Coprario's use of repeated modules in their three-part consort fantasies reveals striking differences of approach. Moreover, in two particular cases where fantasies by the two composers share either musical material or a common constructive principle, Gibbons seems to have attempted to outdo Coprario in imitative artifice through increasing the amount of modular repetition and the sophistication of the operations by which it is varied. At the same time, I also argue that an exclusive focus on repeated modules may miss important details in other kinds of imitative writing, particularly in passages where a subject is devised to combine with itself in close stretto. In these cases, consideration of imitative invention is required in addition to the operations of disposition and elaboration on which modular analysis focuses.

Chapter 3 continues the investigation of imitation through an extended analysis of Gibbons's most ambitious keyboard fantasy, the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt'. Identifying the repeated modules in this piece shows that the apparently straightforward opening point of imitation is in fact highly structured as a process which progressively reconstructs a previously-composed cadential progression. Furthermore, it shows that Gibbons has structured the fantasy on a larger scale by inserting recollections of the opening material into later sections, and suggests that later subjects may be derived from the same material as the opening through extracting different fragments from the same polyphonic complex. I also consider the possibility of a connection to the first fantasia from Girolamo Frescobaldi's 1608 *Primo Libro delle Fantasie*, which opens with a similar subject but makes use of it in very different ways. Finally, I show how Gibbons exploits a variety of imitative techniques to construct a larger overall form. Both this chapter and the previous one consider the wide variety of musical ends to which Gibbons puts imitation, as a technique for exploring the possibilities of musical ideas and for structuring the progression of harmony.

Chapters 4 and 5 address the more harmonic issues of cadences and key areas. Chapter 4 deals with cadential progressions, or ‘closes’, and their transformation from a simple structuring device into a central component of harmonic style in Gibbons’s music. Drawing on sources including Morley and Charles Butler, I argue that the complete polyphonic texture, not only a distinguished pair of structural voices, must be considered in determining the finality of a close. This procedure allows for a wide range of different evaded cadences – or ‘false’ and ‘passing’ closes in the historical terminology – which Gibbons uses to create sustained passages of harmonic expectation and tension, particularly in his larger consort fantasias. I also examine the use of ‘middle’ and ‘half closes’, a topic only briefly discussed by contemporary theorists, and show how Gibbons uses them for different structural purposes in his pavans and *In nomines*. In several of the latter pieces, Gibbons can be seen to depart from the predetermined structural framework of the cantus firmus precisely where doing so is required in order to create a strong final close.

Chapter 5 takes up the larger-scale issue of keys and tonality. Building on work by Jessie Ann Owens and by David Crook, among others, I suggest a reading of the distinction between ‘key’ and ‘air’ in English music of this time. Owens has proposed that English music is governed by a system of ‘tones’ which are distinct both from major and minor keys and from the more familiar ‘modes’ of Renaissance and earlier theory. Using the analytical tools of cadential degrees and Crook’s ‘tonal compass’, I consider how the choice of ‘tone’ affects the musical content of Gibbons’s compositions, concluding that Butler’s tones can be only partly reconciled with Gibbons’s harmonic practice. Finally, I consider what it means for a composition from this period to change from one ‘air’ or ‘key’ to another.

A secondary theme throughout this investigation is the ambiguous position of English music from this period in relation to the imagined ‘mainstream’ of seventeenth-century music history and the dominant historical paradigm of

‘emerging tonality’. Some features of Gibbons’s music can indeed be understood as ‘modern’ or ‘tonal’ in their implications, including his use of cadential or imitative sequences, and other kinds of passages in which the manipulation of cadential procedure extends the expectation of final harmonic closure over a longer period of time. Other no less valuable features, however, are poorly explained by this narrative, which sees the history of harmony as one of consistently increasing sophistication. Nor are they easily reconciled with the alternative narrative which sees the early seventeenth century as a confused and transitional period between the different kinds of musical perfection of the sixteenth and eighteenth centuries. Ultimately, I believe that the greatest insight into this music is obtained by attempting to understand how it was made and heard against the background of its own extremely rich musical culture. I hope that the attempt to do so will in addition raise questions about whether the English music of Gibbons’s period merits a less marginal position within the history of seventeenth century music as a whole.

Chapter 1

Counterpoint patterns

1.1 Introduction

Under the name of ‘counterpoint’, ‘polyphony’, or ‘descant’ (as Thomas Morley terms it), the interplay between melodic integrity and harmonic combination is fundamental to much Western music. In many otherwise very different styles, certainly including the fantasias and *In Nomines* of Gibbons’s generation, compositions are valued in part for their success in balancing the conflicting demands of these two dimensions. The relative importance placed on melodic and harmonic factors, however, is commonly agreed to vary across historical periods. According to one common view, pre-common-practice polyphony is dominated by purely melodic or linear considerations, in contrast with common-practice tonality, where harmonic or vertical factors assume primary importance. On this interpretation, any succession of harmonies or sonorities in pre-common-practice music is arguably as good as any other, provided that melodic coherence and contrapuntal propriety are maintained. Bonnie Blackburn quotes one clear expression of this view, from Leeman L. Perkins:

in the musical conception of the 18th century, harmony was held to govern musical structures on all levels, while in that of the 15th and 16th centuries, the possibilities for vertical combination were, on the contrary, subordinate to the character and direction of the melodic motion [...] the basic principles of structural order were *melodic* rather than *harmonic*.¹

¹Leeman L. Perkins, ‘Mode and Structure in the Masses of Josquin’, *JAMS* 26 (1973),

This claim, however, is no longer as easily accepted as it once was. Peter Schubert points out that some Renaissance authors appear to have held almost the opposite view: far from stating that good counterpoint consists of a combination of melodies, they claim that good melodies are generated by counterpoint:

Counterpoint study since Jeppesen has focused on the idea of combining beautiful melodies within elaborate polyphonic textures. But Renaissance treatises offer little guidance on how to compose a good melody. For some theorists, it seems that it was counterpoint itself that created beautiful melody. Juan Bermudo went so far as to declare counterpoint the ‘father of melody.’²

Even if one accepts the simplistic opposition between primarily melodic or horizontal 15th- and 16th-century music and primarily harmonic or vertical 18th- and 19th-century music, problems remain: how did one approach develop from the other, and how was music conceptualised during this putative transition? Furthermore, a theory focused strictly on the combination of melodies offers little insight into compositions in instrumental genres such as preludes or dances, in which melodic principles such as imitation play less of a role and harmonic or chordal concepts are correspondingly more prominent.

Two English texts from the early seventeenth century suggest a very different concept of counterpoint and harmony, one perhaps more suited to the analysis of non-imitative music, and apparently more closely allied to contemporary and later developments including basso continuo and the fundamental bass. Foreshadowed in Thomas Morley’s *A Plain and Easy Introduction to Practical Music* of 1597, this simplified chordal approach is described more fully in two later texts of c. 1612–1614: John Coprario’s manuscript *Rules how to Compose* and Thomas Campion’s published book, *A New Way of Making Fowre Parts in Counterpoint*.³ Although these texts differ considerably in

190–196, quoted in Blackburn, ‘On Compositional Process in the Fifteenth Century’, 221–222.

²Peter Schubert, ‘Counterpoint Pedagogy in the Renaissance’, in *The Cambridge History of Western Music Theory*, ed. Thomas Christensen (Cambridge University Press, 2002), 528.

³Campion’s and Coprario’s texts are available together in a one-volume modern critical edition: ‘*A new way of making fowre parts in counterpoint*’ by Thomas Campion, and ‘*Rules*

range of topics and manner of presentation, several similarities of detail suggest a close connection between them, such that it makes sense to discuss them together. In contrast with Morley's largely Zarlilian method of instruction, which focuses initially on two-voice technique, Campion and Coprario begin by describing how to write in consonant four-part texture, described in terms of the addition of three consonant upper parts to a given bass. Where the older tradition of counterpoint instruction described consonant three- and four-part sonorities using extensive tables or score examples listing all possible permutations of consonances, Coprario and Campion reduce these to concise and general rules. Although neither author uses a term equivalent to 'chord' in modern theory, their methods leave little doubt that they consider four-voice sonorities with a third, a fifth or sixth, and an octave above the bass to be basic musical elements.

The focus on the bass voice as the determinant of harmony and key in Coprario's and Campion's texts invites analogy with contemporary *basso continuo* sources. Their rules for the placement of sixth chords and cadences are almost identical to those listed in Francesco Bianciardi's short continuo treatise of 1607: bass motion by rising fourth or falling fifth implies a close or cadence, while 'sharp' notes in the bass require a 6/3 sonority in place of the default 5/3 chord.⁴ In two respects, Campion's text actually goes further than most continuo sources of the time. First, it implies a concept of chord inversion or fundamental bass, describing 6/3 harmonies as a rearrangement of the 5/3 chord built on the 'true Base' a third below the sounding bass:

where a sixth is to be taken, either in F. sharpe, or in E-sharpe, or

how to compose' by Giovanni Coprario, ed. Christopher Wilson (Aldershot: Ashgate, 2003). Future references to 'Campion, *A New Way of Making Foure Parts in Counterpoint*, ed. Wilson' and 'Coprario, *Rules how to compose*, ed. Wilson' refer to the first and second half of this single volume.

⁴For a summary of Bianciardi's rules, see F. T. Arnold, *The Art of Accompaniment from a Thorough-Bass as Practised in the XVIIth & XVIIIth Centuries* (New York: Dover Publications, 1965), reprint of 1st ed. (Oxford University Press, 1931), v. 1, 75. See also Thomas Christensen, 'The Spanish Baroque Guitar and Seventeenth-Century Triadic Theory', *Journal of Music Theory*, 36 (1992), 28–9.

in B. or in A. the true Base is a third lower, F. sharpe in D. E. in C. B. in G. A. in F.⁵

Second, Campion alludes to a principle similar to the later ‘rule of the octave’, according to which the harmonisation of a given bass note depends not only on its immediate intervallic context, but also on its relationship to the key in force. Campion notes that if the key is ‘in Gamut’, a 6/3 chord is required above the notes of B, E, or A:

Know that whensoever a *sixt* is requisite, as in B. or in E. or A. the key being in Gamut, you may take the sixt in stead of the fift⁶
[my emphasis]

If generalised to other keys – a step Campion does not take – this principle implies 6/3 harmonies above scale degrees 2, 3 and 6 in the bass, and 5/3 chords above scale degrees 1, 4, and 5. For comparison, the *règle de l’octave* – first described in print in 1730 by an apparently unrelated Campion, the French guitarist and lutenist François Campion – places 5/3 harmonies on scale degrees 1 and 5, and various kinds of sixth chord (6/3, 6/5/3, 6/4/3, etc.) on the other scale degrees, depending on whether the bass ascends or descends.⁷ Although Thomas Campion’s harmonic vocabulary is smaller and he does not explicitly state a general rule of this form, his remark strongly suggests a similar concept of key defined by the harmonies proper to it, in contrast to the melodic key concepts of earlier modal theory.⁸

Campion’s and Coprario’s texts are valuable in that they indicate that concepts such as key area and invertible harmonies are not entirely the anachronisms that might be supposed in music of this period. On closer examination,

⁵Campion, *A New Way of Making Fowre Parts in Counterpoint*, ed. Wilson, 52.

⁶Ibid., 51.

⁷Christensen, ‘Spanish Baroque Guitar and Seventeenth-Century Triadic Theory’, 33–5.

⁸Thomas Christensen makes a similar claim about the use of ‘scale triads’ by guitar players in the early seventeenth century, which ‘reflect the beginnings of a subtle, but ultimately decisive, shift in music theory away from a melodic conception of mode based upon the ordering and articulation of particular intervals and toward a tonal conception of key based upon the context and function of its indigenous harmonies’. Christensen, ‘Spanish Baroque Guitar and Seventeenth-Century Triadic Theory’, 29.

however, their approaches raise even more problematic questions than a strictly horizontal, linear concept of counterpoint. The central problem is the use of a ‘chordal’ approach in the absence of an explicit notion of chord progression. Although these texts suggest a musical conception in which the succession of harmonic sonorities has considerable importance, they provide almost no guidance on how this dimension can be shaped effectively. As Christopher Wilson notes, Campion implies that

the harmony is derived from the bass, even though the bass line is not a ‘given’ in most of the music of his own day, least of all his own, and we are not told how to generate a bass from a melody⁹

Campion and Coprario presumably considered that the composition of an effective bass part or chord succession was one of many aspects of composition which had to be learnt by intuition and example rather than by rule. From an analytical perspective, however, the ability to classify sonorities in terms of their ‘true bass’ and relationship to the key has only limited utility in the absence of any norms of chord succession.

This chapter explores one aspect of Gibbons’s instrumental music in which harmonic and melodic factors are more easily reconciled: the use of sequential counterpoint patterns or models defined by the use of a strictly limited set of melodic intervals. Gibbons draws on these counterpoint patterns as a fund of basic ideas for elaboration throughout his instrumental music for both consort and keyboard. What is remarkable is not only the prevalence of these simple patterns, but the variety of different forms that they take in finished compositions. Counterpoint patterns can form the main subject of an imitative section, a transitional passage, or the framework for a chordal sequence with divisions. In the latter context, they come close to a seventeenth-century analogue of the chord progressions of later tonal practice, and an analysis that recognises them can reveal a clear logic in passages which might seem arbitrary or wayward

⁹Wilson, introduction in *A New Way of Making Fowre Parts in Counterpoint*, 3.

from the point of view of common-practice harmony. Even passages not directly founded on a sequential pattern may nevertheless show its influence in less literal forms. In this respect, counterpoint patterns constitute a musical ‘topic of invention’. They represent not only a useful category of analysis, but also a point of contact between apparently disparate aspects of seventeenth-century style, and between the counterpoint of the sixteenth century and the increasingly goal-directed harmony of the seventeenth.

1.2 A rule for composing canons

The counterpoint models discussed in this chapter originate in the teaching of basic counterpoint, specifically the practice of composing or improvising first-species stretto canons. On the level of plain counterpoint, disregarding ornamental notes or ‘divisions’, canons of this type consist entirely of consonances, with the leading and following parts separated by a single note value (minim or semibreve). As a consequence, each vertical interval between the parts is determined solely by the preceding melodic interval in the leading part, and the requirements of acceptable counterpoint can be reduced to a short list of melodic intervals and progressions to avoid. The singing of the simple stretto canons produced by these rules was a fundamental element in the training of a composer, and Morley indicates that they provide the technical foundation on which more complex skills are built:

those plaine waies of Canon [...] will (as it were) lead you by the hand to a further knowledge [...] and when you can at the first sight sing two partes in one in those kindes vppon a plainesong, then may you practise other hard waies.¹⁰

In particular, these rules may be extended to the concept John Milsom terms an ‘interval stock’: by limiting the melodic intervals used in a subject according to these principles, a composer might easily write a subject of any length which

¹⁰Morley, 114; Morley, ed. Harman, 201.

is guaranteed to produce consonant counterpoint in imitation at the distance of one note.¹¹ In many cases, however, composers – including Gibbons – did not exploit the full generality of this principle, but instead based their counterpoint on a special case which arises as a consequence, in which the use of only one or two interval sizes creates a sequential pattern guaranteed to combine in a simple but strict two-, three- or four-part stretto.

Morley summarises the requirements of stretto canon in a cryptic but essentially complete three-part rule, first explicated in full by Julian Grimshaw in a 2006 article on which the following summary is largely based.¹² The first part of this rule concerns the use of melodic thirds and fourths in canon at the upper fourth. In effect, it informs the student which melodic intervals must be avoided because they would result in harmonic dissonances:

[...] in the making of two parts in one in the fourth, if you would haue your following part in the waie of counterpoint to follow within one note after the other, you must not ascend two, nor descend three. But if you descend two, and ascend three, it wil be well.¹³

Morley's terminology for melodic intervals in this passage is potentially misleading. As Grimshaw points out, a term such as 'ascend two' cannot refer to the interval of a second, but must describe an interval which ascends two steps of the scale: that is, an ascending third.¹⁴ In other words, this rule states

¹¹John Milsom, 'Josquin des Prez and the Combinative Impulse', in *The motet around 1500: On the relationship of imitation and text treatment?*, ed. Thomas Schmidt-Beste (Turnhout, Belgium: Brepols, 2012), 221.

¹²Julian Grimshaw, 'Morley's rule for first-species canon', *Early Music* 34 (2006), 661–666. At least two other scholars have also discussed this passage. A footnote in Alec Harman's edition of the *Introduction* (p. 180, n. 1) explains the rule for melodic thirds and fourths and its basis in the avoidance of dissonance. Denis Collins, in his article 'Thomas Tomkins's Canonic Additions to Thomas Morley's "A Plaine and Easie Introduction"', explains the same portion of the rule, and notes that Tomkins appears to have experimented with Morley's principles in the marginal canons which he added to his copy of the *Introduction*; see Denis Collins, 'Thomas Tomkins's Canonic Additions to Thomas Morley's "A Plaine and Easie Introduction"', *Music & Letters* 76 (1995), 345–355. Grimshaw's reading improves upon these earlier interpretations in providing a coherent meaning for the latter portions of the rule, which Harman and Collins find incoherent (Morley, ed. Harman, 181, n. 1; Collins, 347–9).

¹³Morley, 98; Morley, ed. Harman, 180.

¹⁴Grimshaw, 'Morley's rule for first-species canon', 662–663.

that a part to be sung or played in canon at the fourth above must avoid rising thirds and falling fourths, but can use falling thirds and rising fourths freely. As the top staff of Example 1.1 shows, rising thirds and falling fourths in a close canon at the upper fourth result in dissonant seconds or sevenths, while all other melodic intervals create consonances (or fourths, which could be treated as consonant if supported by a lower part). Since inversion at the octave does not alter the consonant or dissonant character of an interval, the same rule applies when the parts are exchanged to create a canon at the lower fifth, as shown on the second staff of the example.

The second part of Morley's rule for stretto canons concerns the use of scalar figures which rise or fall by successive steps. Where the first part of the rule described canons at the fourth, this rule pertains to canons at the fifth, stating that their subjects may include falling scale figures but not rising ones:

in two partes in one in the fift, you may go as manie downe together
as you will, but not vp¹⁵

The unstated reason for this rule turns out to be the avoidance of forbidden consecutive intervals, as illustrated on the top staff of Example 1.2. In canon at the fifth above or fourth below, descending scales produce good counterpoint in parallel thirds or sixths, while rising scales create questionable or erroneous parallel fourths or fifths. Although parallel fourths might be rendered acceptable by a supporting lower part creating parallel 6/3 sonorities, Morley seemingly preferred to give rules which would produce canons allowing inversion of the parts. For this purpose, avoiding parallel fourths which would become parallel fifths when inverted is compulsory.¹⁶

The third and final part of Morley's rule generalises the two preceding statements by stating that complementary rules apply to canons at the fourth

¹⁵Morley, 99; Morley, ed. Harman, 180–181.

¹⁶Other theorists were sceptical of the *faburden*-like texture of parallel 6/3 chords, in any case. Thomas Campion provides a voice-leading rule for outer parts moving in parallel tenths, but declines to give one for parallel sixths on the grounds that they create too many parallel fourths in the inner parts (Campion, ed. Wilson, 55).

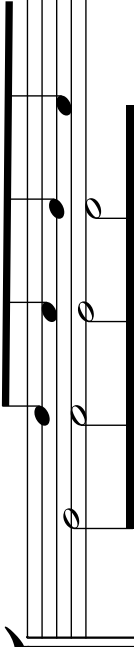
The image displays four systems of musical notation, each illustrating a different counterpoint pattern. Each system consists of a 'Hold' section followed by a melodic section with intervals 2nd, 3rd, 4th, and 2nd.

- 4th above:** The 'Hold' section shows a whole note chord with notes 4 and 3. The melodic section shows intervals 2nd (3 to 4), 3rd (4 to 6), 4th (6 to 7), and 2nd (7 to 5).
- 5th below:** The 'Hold' section shows a whole note chord with notes 5 and 4. The melodic section shows intervals 2nd (4 to 5), 3rd (5 to 3), 4th (3 to 2), and 2nd (2 to 4).
- 5th above:** The 'Hold' section shows a whole note chord with notes 5 and 4. The melodic section shows intervals 2nd (4 to 5), 3rd (5 to 3), 4th (3 to 2), and 2nd (2 to 4).
- 4th below:** The 'Hold' section shows a whole note chord with notes 4 and 3. The melodic section shows intervals 2nd (3 to 4), 3rd (4 to 6), 4th (6 to 7), and 2nd (7 to 5).

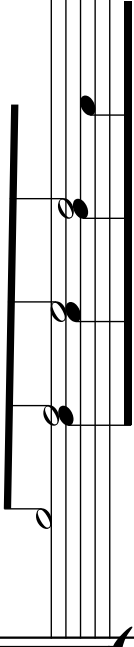
Each system is labeled with its interval: '4th above', '5th below', '5th above', and '4th below'. The 'Hold' section is marked with a 'Hold' symbol. The melodic section is marked with interval symbols: 2nd, 3rd, 4th, and 2nd. The notes are numbered 1 through 7, and the intervals are numbered 1 through 7.

Example 1.1: The relationship between melodic and harmonic intervals in stretto canon at the fourth or fifth

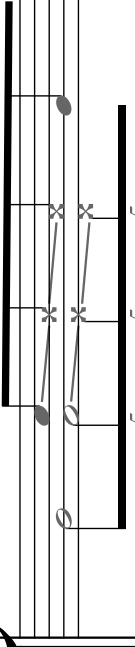
5th above



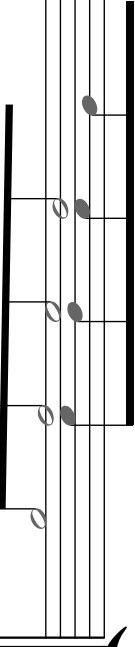
4th below



4th above



5th below



Example 1.2: Rising and falling scales in imitation at the fourth and at the fifth

and at the fifth:

generallie or most commonlie that which was true in two parts in
one in the fourth, the contrarie will bee true in two partes in one in
the fift¹⁷

By ‘contrary’, Morley seems to mean that progressions which are forbidden in one type of canon are allowable in the other, and vice versa. For instance, the first part of the rule stated that canons at the fourth should use rising fourths and falling thirds, avoiding rising thirds and falling fourths; the ‘contrary’ statement is that canons at the fifth should use rising thirds and falling fourths – intervals avoided in canon at the fourth – and avoid rising fourths and falling thirds, which were good intervals in canon at the fourth. Experiment quickly demonstrates the accuracy of this statement, as shown on the lower two staves of Example 1.1: rising fourths and falling thirds, which produced consonances in canon at the fourth, create dissonances in canon at the fifth; while falling fourths and rising thirds, which were problematic in canon at the fourth, are acceptable in canon at the fifth. A similar complementary principle holds for the second part of the rule, which stated that canons at the fifth may employ ascending but not descending scales. The ‘contrary’ statement is that canons at the fourth should use ascending but not descending scales, and simple experiment again bears this out, as shown on the lower two staves of Example 1.2.¹⁸ In both cases, the melodic motions to be avoided in one type of canon are the melodic inversion of those which must be avoided in the other type, so the requirements of canon at the fourth and fifth are ‘contrary’ in more than

¹⁷Morley, 99; Morley, ed. Harman, 181.

¹⁸Collins notes that the canon at the fourth above which Tomkins added to his copy of Morley’s *Introduction* features ‘rather feebly concealed’ parallel fifths between the canonic voices, which are revealed when it is reduced to note-against-note counterpoint on the level of the semibreve (Collins, ‘Thomas Tomkins’s Canonic Additions’, 347). These parallel fifths result from the use of consecutive descending seconds – precisely the practice which the later portions of Morley’s rule are intended to warn against, according to Grimshaw’s reading. This suggests that Morley’s near-contemporaries found the latter parts of his rule no less obscure than his later commentators. The ‘fuga in hypodiapente’ produced by Philomathes in Morley’s *Introduction* also breaks this rule, resulting in parallel fourths between the canonic voices (Morley, 99; Morley, ed. Harman, 181).

one sense. A canon at either interval may also make use of ‘holds’, in which the subject remains on the same note.¹⁹ In this case the vertical interval produced with the following part is simply the interval of imitation (fourth or fifth). Since fourths are normally dissonant when they appear between the lowest two voices, holds can be used freely only when the canon is at the upper or lower fifth, or when the presence of a free lower voice renders the fourth between the canonic voices consonant.

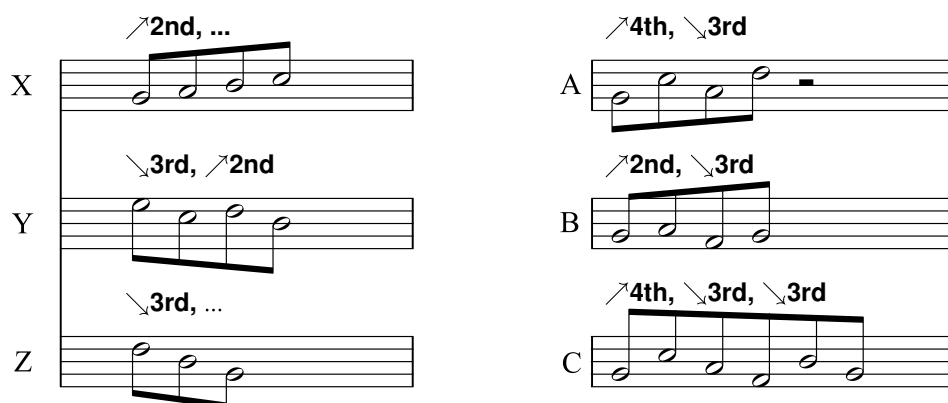
The form of stretto canon or *fuga* which Morley describes imposes such narrow restrictions that two passages composed independently in accordance with its rules are almost certain to share certain details of intervallic outline. John Milsom has identified these presumably fortuitous and unintended similarities as a source of ‘intertextuality’ in contrapuntal music.²⁰ Milsom’s comparison of two *stretto fuga* passages from Du Fay and Josquin identifies three particular short segments which represent such an intertextual relationship (Example 1.3). Segment *x* is a four-note rising scale figure, segment *y* a four-note figure in which falling thirds and rising seconds alternate, and segment *z* a three-note figure consisting of two falling thirds.²¹ All three segments involve only one or two melodic interval sizes, creating a sequential pattern which could in principle be repeated to form sequences of arbitrary length. Simple, sequential patterns of this form are referred to here as *counterpoint patterns* or *counterpoint models*. The simplest such patterns, like Milsom’s segment *x*, consist simply of ascending or descending scales, producing parallel thirds or sixths in imitative combination. Closely related to these are patterns consisting entirely of ascending or descending thirds, such as Milsom’s segment *z*. A more varied class of patterns consist of a rising and a falling interval of different sizes in

¹⁹‘Hold’ is John Milsom’s term, defined in “‘*Imitatio*’, ‘Intertextuality’, and Early Music’, 147–148.

²⁰Milsom, “‘*Imitatio*’, ‘Intertextuality’, and Early Music’, 146–147 and throughout.

²¹Milsom, “‘*Imitatio*’, ‘Intertextuality’, and Early Music’, 149. One segment is apparently mislabelled in the examples from this article: the second *x* segment in the Du Fay excerpt in Milsom’s Example 11.2 should be labelled *y*.

alternation, forming a characteristic sequential ‘zigzag’. Typically, the two intervals involved in this third type of pattern are either seconds and thirds, as in Milsom’s segment *y*; thirds and fourths, a very common pattern in Gibbons’s music; or, more rarely, fourths and fifths. In imitation, such subjects combine to produce a characteristic alternation of perfect and imperfect consonances.



Example 1.3: Patterned segments identified in Milsom’s ‘Intertextuality’ (left) and Grimshaw’s ‘Sixteenth-Century English Fuga’ (right).

The simple intervallic structure of sequential patterns permits them to combine in strict imitation in a number of ways without the need for alteration or ‘flexing’ of intervals.²² To take one example used frequently by Gibbons, subjects consisting of alternating rising fourths and falling thirds allow stretto imitation not only at the upper fourth, but also at the unison, octave, and upper sixth, as well as the related intervals of third and fifth below produced by exchanging the parts at the octave (Example 1.4). As implied by Morley’s remark about the ‘contrary’ rules that apply to different types of canon, the inverted melodic pattern of rising thirds and falling fourths permits imitation at a different set of intervals: third or fifth above, or fourth or sixth below, as well as octave and unison. Each of these imitative relationships produces a characteristic alternation of different consonances. Clefs have intentionally

²²‘Flexing’ is Milsom’s term, defined as ‘modification of a subject’s interval-content as it passes from voice to voice.’ See John Milsom, ‘Crecquillon, Clemens and Four-Voice Fuga’, in *Beyond Contemporary Fame: Reassessing the Art of Clemens non Papa and Thomas Crecquillon*, ed. Eric Jas (Brepols, 2006), 298, n. 20.

been omitted from Example 1.4 in order to emphasise the symmetry of the idealised structure. In actual compositional situations, the need to avoid diminished and augmented intervals in the melodic line means that such stretto sequences tend to ‘modulate’ via the loss of sharp inflections and the addition of flat inflections. This tendency may either present a compositional problem to be solved, as Grimshaw points out, or it may be used deliberately as a way of effecting sequential harmonic motion, as in some of the examples from Gibbons discussed below.²³

The simple structure of sequential subjects also allows them to combine into a three- or four-part stretto in which each entrance follows its predecessor at the distance of one note. Three idealised examples of such four-part textures are shown in Example 1.5, all based on subjects in strictly alternating thirds and fourths. In four parts, such strettos have a characteristic voice-leading structure consisting of two pairs of voices: the voices of each pair move together in parallel tenths, and in contrary motion to the voices of the other pair. In Example 1.5, soprano and tenor parts form one pair, alto and bass the other. (Again, the inflections which would normally be required to avoid problematic melodic intervals have been omitted from this example for simplicity).

The examples so far have illustrated only the simplest kind of subject, in which thirds and fourths alternate strictly. This simple pattern can be expanded and varied by introducing ‘holds’, or by using one of the melodic intervals twice or more in succession: for example, following a falling fourth with by a chain of two or more rising thirds, in place of the strict alternation of intervals shown in Example 1.4. In some cases, these extensions to the basic pattern assist in slowing or avoiding the ‘modulatory’ tendency of such sequential patterns. In actual compositions, these subjects are also normally ornamented with figures of division. (Although ‘division’ in the sense of added, unwritten ornamentation is normally thought of as a performance phenomenon, Morley’s

²³See Grimshaw, ‘Sixteenth-century English *fuga*: sequential and peak-note subjects’, *The Musical Times* 1900 (Autumn, 2007), 65.

The image displays eight staves of musical notation, labeled from top to bottom as 8ve, 7th, 6th, 5th, 4th, 3rd, 2nd, and Unis. Each staff contains a sequence of notes (half notes and quarter notes) with fingerings indicated by numbers 1-5. The patterns are organized into groups, with some groups enclosed in brackets. The following table summarizes the fingerings and intervallic relationships (indicated by 'x' marks) for each voice part:

Voice	Notes (Fingerings)	Intervallic Relationships (x marks)
8ve	C4 (1), D4 (2), E4 (3), F4 (4), G4 (5), A4 (6), B4 (6), C5 (10), D5 (5), E5 (10), F5 (6), G5 (4), A5 (6), B5 (6), C6 (10)	None
7th	C4 (x), D4 (x), E4 (x), F4 (x), G4 (x), A4 (x), B4 (x), C5 (x), D5 (x), E5 (x), F5 (x), G5 (x), A5 (x), B5 (x), C6 (x)	None
6th	C4 (x), D4 (x), E4 (x), F4 (x), G4 (x), A4 (x), B4 (x), C5 (x), D5 (x), E5 (x), F5 (x), G5 (x), A5 (x), B5 (x), C6 (x)	None
5th	C4 (x), D4 (x), E4 (x), F4 (x), G4 (x), A4 (x), B4 (x), C5 (x), D5 (x), E5 (x), F5 (x), G5 (x), A5 (x), B5 (x), C6 (x)	None
4th	C4 (x), D4 (x), E4 (x), F4 (x), G4 (x), A4 (x), B4 (x), C5 (x), D5 (x), E5 (x), F5 (x), G5 (x), A5 (x), B5 (x), C6 (x)	None
3rd	C4 (x), D4 (x), E4 (x), F4 (x), G4 (x), A4 (x), B4 (x), C5 (x), D5 (x), E5 (x), F5 (x), G5 (x), A5 (x), B5 (x), C6 (x)	None
2nd	C4 (x), D4 (x), E4 (x), F4 (x), G4 (x), A4 (x), B4 (x), C5 (x), D5 (x), E5 (x), F5 (x), G5 (x), A5 (x), B5 (x), C6 (x)	None
Unis	C4 (x), D4 (x), E4 (x), F4 (x), G4 (x), A4 (x), B4 (x), C5 (x), D5 (x), E5 (x), F5 (x), G5 (x), A5 (x), B5 (x), C6 (x)	None

Example 1.4: Imitative interlocks permitted by patterns of alternating thirds and fourths

Introduction and Coprario's *Rules how to Compose* imply that division is also an element of composition: Morley encourages his students to compose their canons first in note-against-note counterpoint and then ornament them to produce the finished version.²⁴) These more complex possibilities are demonstrated in the analyses of actual compositions below.

The image displays three musical staves, each representing a four-part setting. Each staff consists of a treble and a bass clef. The first two staves are labeled with an upward arrow and '3rd' and a downward arrow and '4th', indicating intervals of a third and a fourth. The third staff is labeled with an upward arrow and '4th' and a downward arrow and '3rd', indicating intervals of a fourth and a third. The notes are arranged in a way that demonstrates the sequential patterns of these intervals across the four parts.

Example 1.5: Three idealised or prototypical four-part strettos produced by patterns of alternating thirds and fourths

As Milsom's reference to 'intertextuality' suggests, sequential patterns of this form are a true universal of counterpoint. Early descriptions of them appear in fifteenth-century treatises by Ugolino of Orvieto and John Hothby, and

²⁴See Morley's discussion of 'plain' and 'divided' canons, and of 'breaking' a plainsong in 'division': Thomas Morley, 'A plaine and easie introduction to practick musicke set downe in forme of a dialogue' (London, 1597), 96–99; Morley, *A Plain & Easy Introduction to Practical Music*, ed. Alec Harman (New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 1963); and Coprario's section 'of Division' in the *Rules how to Compose*: Coprario, *Rules how to compose*, ed. Wilson, 91–95.

later in sixteenth-century texts by Lusitano, Vicentino, and Sancta Maria.²⁵ They were also certainly known to English composers of the earlier sixteenth century. Grimshaw has shown that the three subjects illustrated on the right of Example 1.3 appear frequently in vocal music by White, Tye, Parsley, Tallis, and others.²⁶ Grimshaw's 'Subject B', a zigzag of falling thirds and rising seconds, is identical in outline to segment *y* from Milsom's analysis of Du Fay and Josquin. The other two subjects involve falling thirds and rising fourths, differing in the length of the repeated interval pattern and, consequently, its overall direction of motion: 'Subject A' is a simple alternating zigzag, 'Subject C' a three-note pattern consisting of a rising fourth and two falling thirds. All three patterns, and others closely related to them, occur throughout Gibbons's music.

1.3 Patterns in Gibbons's two-treble fantasies

Given the connection between counterpoint patterns and canonic technique, it is not surprising that they appear frequently in Gibbons's six fantasias for two trebles, whose parts are often in strict canon. What is notable, however, is the length to which Gibbons extends these patterns, and the simplicity with which he sometimes presents the almost-unadorned scaffolding of the model in the finished composition. In the passages of *stretto fuga* which Milsom cites from Du Fay and Josquin, brief patterned segments appear within the context of a longer and more flexible melodic line; in Gibbons's two-treble fantasies, by contrast, similar patterns are extended to much greater length, often providing the bulk of the subject matter in the latter half of the piece.

Gibbons's first fantasia for two trebles (*MB* 48, no. 1) provides a good example of his pervasive use of sequential patterns. Its first clearly patterned passage appears in bb. 24–26: a brief, lightly ornamented sequence of rising thirds and falling fourths (Example 1.6). Patterned writing is largely absent

²⁵Fröbe, 'Satzmodelle', 16–20.

²⁶Grimshaw, 'Sixteenth-century English *fuga*', 66–67.

from the following ten bars (omitted from the example), but returns with the descending scale figures of bb. 38–43, and dominates much of the fantasy from then on. Bars 38–43 and 56–69 ornament ascending and descending scales. Bars 44–49 present a variation on the pattern of rising chains of thirds, intermingling them with falling sixths. As frequently happens with sequences of thirds in Gibbons's music, both parts make a complete 'circle' through diatonic pitch space in these bars, beginning and ending on F, and touching on the six intermediate steps of A, C, E, G, B $\flat$, and D in sequence. Bars 71–73 are based on alternating seconds and thirds. Finally, bb. 75–79 present a longer sequence of thirds and fourths, the same interval stock used in the first patterned passage in bb. 24–26.

Counterpoint patterns such as these are not only abstract structures, but also idioms which become recognisable with familiarity. Each interval pattern is associated with typical figures of division, and a listener familiar with the style may recognise the patterns from their characteristic patterns of division, as much or more than the patterns of the underlying counterpoint. The passages based on rising thirds and falling fourths in Example 1.6 illustrate two idiomatic divisions which Gibbons frequently applies to this pattern. The paradigmatic forms of both idioms are shown in Example 1.7 for comparison, together with a third variant to be discussed below. In the sequence in bb. 24–26 of Example 1.6, each falling fourth is ornamented with a single note of division, forming a plaintive figure in dotted rhythm (compare figure 'A' in Example 1.7). An identical figure also appears frequently at cadences in Gibbons's music, and forms the subject of an entire imitative section in the *Fantazia of foure parts* from *Parthenia*. In the second sequence of falling fourths and rising thirds in bb. 75–79 of Example 1.6, the addition of a passing note to each rising third creates a *cambiata* figure (figure 'B' in Example 1.7), which is perhaps even more typical of such patterns in Gibbons's music.

In Gibbons's fifth fantasy for two trebles (*MB* 48 no. 5), the sequential patterns are both more extended and, often, more plainly presented than those

23 (a) 24 25 26 27 28 29 30

38 (b) 39 40 41 42 43

44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52

cadence

cadence

cadence

4th, 3rd

2nd (7th)

6th, 3rd

Example 1.6: Sequential counterpoint patterns in Gibbons, *Fantasia a2* no. 1 (*MB* 48, no. 1). (bb. 28-37, 50-55, and 79-end are omitted)

(c)

This musical score, labeled (c), consists of three systems of three staves each. The first system covers measures 56 to 62, the second system covers measures 63 to 70, and the third system covers measures 71 to 79. Each system features a treble staff with a melodic line, a middle staff with a more active counterpoint line, and a bass staff with a harmonic accompaniment. The notation includes various note values, rests, and dynamic markings. In the third system, there are specific markings for triplets: a '3rd' marking with a slash and a bracket over measures 73-75, and a '2nd, 3rd' marking with a slash and a bracket over measures 76-78. The score is written in a key with one flat (B-flat) and a common time signature.

56 57 58 59 60 61 62

63 64 65 66 68 69 70

71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79

3rd, 4th

2nd, 3rd



Example 1.7: Three idiomatic divisions on the pattern of falling fourths and rising thirds

in the first fantasy. Patterned writing first appears in bb. 42–45, three bars of unornamented rising scales in parallel thirds and sixths (Example 1.8(a)). The extended sequence of rising seconds and falling thirds in bb. 58–65 (Example 1.8(b)) demonstrates the importance of rhythmic and metrical flexibility for achieving variety within the restrictions of a strictly patterned sequence. By varying the rhythmic value of the upper note in each sequential segment of Example 1.8(b) between minim and a crotchet, Gibbons creates the impression of an expanding and contracting asymmetric meter in irregular groupings of three and five crotchets. Finally, the fantasy concludes with extended elaborations on one of the simplest patterns: chains of thirds, first descending (Example 1.8(c), bb. 87–91) and then ascending (bb. 92–98). Although the ornamented surface of these bars consists entirely of rising and falling scales in quavers, on the level of counterpoint in minims, they should be thought of as descending and ascending thirds. As if to prove this point, Gibbons follows the ornamented rising chains of bb. 92–94 with an entirely unornamented presentation of the same counterpoint in plain crotchets, stripped of all divisions (bb. 95–98). Simple to the point of minimalism in their abstractly-patterned writing, these bars are a remarkable departure from the traditional values of vocal counterpoint.

41 (a)

42 43 44 45 46 47

2nd (7th)

The musical score for 'The Rose Tree' is presented in three systems. The first system, labeled '(a)', contains measures 41 through 46. The second system contains measures 47 through 52. The third system contains measures 53 through 58. The melody is written in treble clef with a key signature of one sharp (F#). The tempo is marked 'Allegretto' and the time signature is 3/4. The score includes various musical notations such as eighth notes, quarter notes, and half notes, as well as dynamic markings like 'p' (piano) and 'f' (forte). A repeat sign is used at the beginning of the second system. The third system includes a '2nd (7th)' marking, indicating a second ending or a variation. The piece concludes with a final cadence in measure 58.

57 (b) 58 61 62 63 64 65 66

67 70 73 76

77 80 83 86

cadence

Example 1.8: Counterpoint patterns in Gibbons's two-part fantasia no. 5

87 (c) 88 89 90 91 92

3rd (↘6th) cadence 3rd

This musical score segment covers measures 87 to 92. It consists of two staves. The first staff begins with a common time signature '(c)'. Measures 88 and 89 contain eighth-note patterns. Measure 90 features a bracketed section of eighth notes. Measures 91 and 92 continue with eighth-note patterns. The second staff shows a melodic line with a bracketed section in measure 88 labeled '3rd (↘6th)' with a downward arrow. A bracket labeled 'cadence' spans measures 89 and 90. Another bracket labeled '3rd' with an upward arrow is positioned over measures 91 and 92.

93 94 95 96 97 98 99 100

3rd (↘6th) cadence

This musical score segment covers measures 93 to 100. It consists of two staves. The first staff shows eighth-note patterns in measures 93 and 94, followed by a bracketed section in measure 95. Measures 96 through 99 continue with eighth-note patterns, and measure 100 ends with a quarter note. The second staff features a melodic line with a bracketed section in measure 95 labeled '3rd (↘6th)' with a downward arrow. A bracket labeled 'cadence' spans measures 96 and 97. The final measure, 100, ends with a quarter note.

1.4 Patterns in Gibbons's keyboard fantasies

The same patterned structures which appear in a small-scale form in Gibbons's fantasies for two trebles re-appear in more elaborate guises throughout his larger-scale fantasies for keyboard and consort. Example 1.9 analyses two consecutive passages following the initial imitative entrances of a keyboard fantasia, *MB* 20, no. 8. Both sequences are based on three-voice *stretto fuga* using rising thirds and falling fourths, yet their effects are quite different. The first segment (bb. 9–11) is constructed from a repeating three-note pattern of two rising thirds and a falling fourth, creating an overall ascending motion; the second (bb. 12–15) is based on a two-note pattern of alternating thirds and fourths, creating an overall descent. The passages also differ in their divisions. In bb. 9–11, Gibbons fills in the falling fourths with two stepwise passing notes, producing the idiomatic division figure illustrated as figure 'C' in Example 1.7. By contrast, the pattern in bb. 12–15 is ornamented with the cambiata figure shown as figure 'B' in Example 1.7, lending it a more expressive and melancholy quality in keeping with the overall downward motion of the sequence. Finally, the rhythmic character of the two segments differs substantially. The first segment's repeated pattern is four minims in duration and lines up squarely with the duple meter, while the second segment's pattern is three minims in length, and shifts its metrical alignment with each repetition as a result. Like the uneven groupings of five and six minims in the fifth two-part fantasia, these shifting patterns of accentuation contribute to the sense of forward motion in the passage. As Morley writes in a slightly different context, such rhythmically offset patterns, 'odded by a rest [...] neuer commeth euen till the close'.²⁷

Many passages based on a counterpoint pattern surround a strictly imitative segment with material which draws on the same interval stock, but is not itself treated imitatively. This practice is illustrated in b. 11–12 of Example 1.9, where a chain of rising thirds and one falling sixth in the lowest voice precedes

²⁷Morley, 89–90; Morley, ed. Harman, 169.

the beginning of the patterned subject proper in b. 13. (Such quasi-imitative echoes or pre-imitations of a more well-defined imitative subject are shown in smaller noteheads in these analyses). The connection of the lines here is so smooth that it seems somewhat arbitrary to single out the first note of b. 13 as the beginning of the imitative subject. In this particular case, it is possible for a careful analysis to distinguish a six-note subject treated in exact imitation from the melodic material which surrounds it. In general, however, it is characteristic of counterpoint based on sequential models, which lack a well-defined start and end point, to blur the distinction between strict imitation and more general similarities of motivic and intervallic content. In other similar passages from Gibbons's works, it becomes even more difficult to single out a genuine imitative subject, although the counterpoint framework is consistently limited to one or two melodic intervals throughout. In this respect, counterpoint patterns might be considered an instance of the phenomenon Joshua Rifkin defined as 'motivicity'.²⁸

Both patterns that appear in Example 1.9 are related by inversion to one of Julian Grimshaw's sixteenth-century sequential subjects: the three-note rising pattern of bb. 12–14 is the inversion of Grimshaw's 'Subject C', and the falling subject of bb. 15–19 is the inversion of Grimshaw's 'Subject A'. All three of Grimshaw's subjects contain falling thirds, whereas Gibbons seems to favour patterns containing rising thirds. This suggests that although the general concept of these sequential models retained currency over a long period, particular manifestations were favoured over others at different historical points.

In his keyboard fantasies as in the fantasies for two trebles, Gibbons often turns to sequentially patterned writing as a concluding gesture. Another passage based on the pattern of thirds and fourths, from keyboard fantasia *MB*

²⁸Joshua Rifkin, 'Miracles, Motivicity, and Mannerism. Adrian Willaert's *Videns Dominus flentes sorores Lazari* and Some Aspects of Motet Composition in the 1520s', in *Hearing the Motet: Essays on the Motet of the Middle Ages and Renaissance*, ed. Dolores Pesce (Oxford, 1997), 243–259.

The musical score is divided into two systems, each with a treble and bass staff joined by a brace. The first system contains measures 11 through 14. Measure 11 shows a treble staff with a dotted quarter note G4 and an eighth note A4, and a bass staff with a dotted quarter note F3 and an eighth note G3. Measure 12 continues with a treble staff of eighth notes (G4, A4, B4, C5) and a bass staff of eighth notes (F3, G3, A3, B3). Measure 13 features a treble staff with a dotted quarter note D5 and an eighth note E5, and a bass staff with a dotted quarter note C4 and an eighth note D4. Measure 14 concludes with a treble staff of eighth notes (F5, E5, D5, C5) and a bass staff of eighth notes (B3, A3, G3, F3). A bracket labeled 'cadence' spans measures 13 and 14. The second system contains measures 15 through 20. Measure 15 has a treble staff with a dotted quarter note G4 and an eighth note A4, and a bass staff with a dotted quarter note F3 and an eighth note G3. Measure 16 continues with a treble staff of eighth notes (G4, A4, B4, C5) and a bass staff of eighth notes (F3, G3, A3, B3). Measure 17 features a treble staff with a dotted quarter note D5 and an eighth note E5, and a bass staff with a dotted quarter note C4 and an eighth note D4. Measure 18 concludes with a treble staff of eighth notes (F5, E5, D5, C5) and a bass staff of eighth notes (B3, A3, G3, F3). A bracket labeled 'cadence' spans measures 17 and 18. Measure 19 has a treble staff with a dotted quarter note G4 and an eighth note A4, and a bass staff with a dotted quarter note F3 and an eighth note G3. Measure 20 concludes with a treble staff of eighth notes (G4, A4, B4, C5) and a bass staff of eighth notes (F3, G3, A3, B3). A bracket labeled 'cadence' spans measures 19 and 20. The key signature has one flat (Bb) and the time signature is common time (C).

11 12 13 14

cadence ↗3rd, ↗3rd, ↘4th

cadence

(↗3rd, ↗3rd, ...)

15 16 17 18 19 20

↘4th, ↗3rd

cadence

Example 1.9: Three-part *stretto fuga* based on rising thirds and falling fourths in Gibbons's keyboard fantasia *MB 20*, no. 20

20, no. 11, was cited by Willi Apel as an illustration of Gibbons's 'remarkable' talent for such sequential conclusions:

No less remarkable is Gibbons's way of leading the musical material in almost every fantasy to a climax shortly before the end by setting his lines into a slow but decisive ascending motion, mostly in sequential phrases.²⁹

Apel's musical example includes only bb. 29–33 of the fantasy, but these bars are even more striking when considered together with the preceding sequence in bb. 24–28 (Example 1.10). Like Example 1.9, these bars can be divided into two segments based on the same set of intervals combined into different patterns. In the segment cited by Apel (bb. 29–33), the outer voices follow the now-familiar three-note pattern of rising third–rising third–falling fourth, as in bb. 9–11 of Example 1.9. The preceding segment in bb. 24–27 is even more strictly limited in interval content, consisting almost exclusively of rising chains of thirds divided into ascending scales by the addition of crotchets. The continual crossing and re-crossing of parts that results from these overlapping ascents is difficult to notate clearly in keyboard score, but can easily be seen in the counterpoint reduction.

²⁹Apel, *History of Keyboard Music*, 320.

The image displays two systems of musical notation for a keyboard fantasia. The first system, spanning measures 24 to 27, is written for treble and bass staves. It features a series of chords and intervals, with a specific annotation '3rd, 3rd, ...' pointing to a sequence of thirds. The second system, spanning measures 28 to 34, continues the pattern, including a 'cadence' section and an annotation '3rd, 3rd, 4th' indicating a sequence of intervals. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and accidentals, with measure numbers clearly marked at the beginning of each line.

Example 1.10: Chains of thirds and falling fourths in Gibbons's keyboard fantasia *MB 20*, no. 11

1.5 Patterns in Gibbons's *In Nomines*

Gibbons's preference for sequential counterpoint patterns as a concluding gesture also influences two of his largest-scale works, the five-part *In Nomines* (MB 48, nos. 27–28). In no. 27, patterns of thirds and fourths dominate much of the conclusion, from cantus firmus note no. 40 onward (Example 1.11). Somewhat unusually, in these bars Gibbons successively employs both rising and falling inversions of the third–fourth pattern, as dictated by the motion of the cantus firmus. This provides an apt demonstration of Peter Schubert's claim that a composer with a repertoire of patterns might interpret any given cantus firmus as 'a succession of segments "borrowed" from these different patterns.'³⁰ Gibbons is apparently so eager to bring in his favourite pattern here that he has omitted four notes from the cantus firmus (notes 36–39) in order to arrive at it more quickly. Notes 40–42 of the cantus firmus rise by step from F to A, and Gibbons constructs the surrounding counterpoint largely from a sequential pattern of a falling fourth and two rising thirds, which appears in full in the bass and first treble, and in more fragmentary form in the inner voices. Leaving aside for the moment the intervening cantus firmus notes, notes 48–52 fall by step from G down to C, and here Gibbons applies the melodic inversion of the previous pattern: a rising fourth and two falling thirds. In this more extended second sequence, the pattern appears throughout in all four non-cantus-firmus voices, with a fragment of its ornamented rising fourth even making its way into the cantus firmus voice itself, at note 52.

Between these two patterned sequences, the cantus firmus stays mostly fixed on F (bb. 79–84, notes 44–46/47; Gibbons omits one of the original four F notes). Although the presence of this stationary cantus firmus precludes a rising or falling sequential pattern, the parts added to it nevertheless retain a close connection with the patterned sequences on either side. Their most distinctive

³⁰Schubert, 'Counterpoint pedagogy in the Renaissance', 514, quoted in Fröbe, 'Satzmodelle', 17, n. 18.

feature is the changing pairs of voices which move together in parallel thirds and sixths, and the motive which appears in these parallel voices is the same figure which is treated sequentially in the divisions that follow. The significance of this motivic connection goes beyond merely ensuring a smooth connection between different segments of the cantus firmus: for a listener familiar with the idiomatic divisions that typically attend sequences of rising fourths and falling thirds, the motivic repetition strongly suggests the sequential pattern that is to come, creating an element of expectation and tension where the harmony might otherwise tend toward stasis. The final arrival of the full sequential pattern with cantus firmus note 48 (b. 85) then has the effect of providing a resolution to the preceding six bars of expectation.

Even the very simplest counterpoint pattern, scales in parallel thirds and tenths, clearly appealed to Gibbons as a concluding gesture. Scales in parallel consonances create a magnificent effect in the conclusion of the second five-part *In Nomine* (MB 48, no. 28, with a final on G). Ascending and descending scalar figures are at the core of the contrapuntal invention of this piece, whose overall narrative turns on the symbolic contrast between the mournful falling figures of the opening and the jubilant ascent of the ending. The first half of the piece, through the 27th note of the cantus firmus (b. 59 in *MB*) is an extended contrapuntal meditation on the four notes of the descending tetrachord. As a standard signifier of melancholy, descending tetrachords appear as a ground bass in many Italian compositions, most famously Monteverdi's *Lamento della ninfa*, and in the melody of Dowland's *Flow my teares* and its many descendants, including several of Gibbons's own pavans. In this *In Nomine*, however, Gibbons does not restrict these four notes to being a melody or a bass, but uses them as an imitative subject whose contrapuntal combinations inevitably involve parallel thirds, sixths and tenths between pairs of voices (Example 1.12). More precisely, the subject of this first half of the piece consists of two descending tetrachords, separated by a rising third. But this melodic structure itself arises from the requirements of counterpoint and the patterns of scalar figures

71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83

40 41 42 43 44 45 46/47

4th, /3rd, /3rd

cadence

Rising c.f.

(evaded) cadence

Static c.f.

Example 1.11: Patterns of fourths and thirds in the ending of Gibbons, *In Nomine* a5 no. 1

This musical score illustrates counterpoint patterns across measures 84 to 96. The notation is organized into three systems, each containing two staves (treble and bass clef).

System 1 (Measures 84-90): The first staff (treble clef) contains measures 84 through 90. The second staff (bass clef) contains measures 48 through 50. Measure 48 is marked with a fermata.

System 2 (Measures 91-96): The first staff (treble clef) contains measures 91 through 96. The second staff (bass clef) contains measures 51 through 53. Measure 51 is marked with a fermata. A bracket labeled "added to c.f." spans measures 52 and 53.

System 3 (Measures 97-100): The first staff (treble clef) contains measures 97 through 100. The second staff (bass clef) contains measures 54 through 57. Measure 54 is marked with a fermata. A bracket labeled "added to c.f." spans measures 55 and 56. A bracket labeled "cadence" points to measure 57.

System 4 (Measures 101-104): The first staff (treble clef) contains measures 101 through 104. The second staff (bass clef) contains measures 58 through 61. Measure 58 is marked with a fermata. A bracket labeled "added to c.f." spans measures 59 and 60. A bracket labeled "Falling c.f." points to measure 61.

System 5 (Measures 105-108): The first staff (treble clef) contains measures 105 through 108. The second staff (bass clef) contains measures 62 through 65. Measure 62 is marked with a fermata. A bracket labeled "added to c.f." spans measures 63 and 64. A bracket labeled "cadence" points to measure 65.

System 6 (Measures 109-112): The first staff (treble clef) contains measures 109 through 112. The second staff (bass clef) contains measures 66 through 69. Measure 66 is marked with a fermata. A bracket labeled "added to c.f." spans measures 67 and 68. A bracket labeled "cadence" points to measure 69.

in imitation: the two tetrachords are joined together in such a way that they make first thirds and then sixths, or vice versa, when combined in imitation with a rhythmically offset tetrachord in another voice. As Laurence Dreyfus has analysed the compositional complexity that arises from the combination of scalar figures with the cantus firmus in detail elsewhere, I will omit further discussion of them here.³¹ Instead, I wish to draw attention to the *In Nomine*'s conclusion, in which scalar patterns of rising and falling scales appear even more clearly.

Example 1.13 shows the construction of the *In Nomine*'s conclusion from patterns of rising scales. In most sources of this piece, these ascending lines are ornamented with a 'galloping' figure of a quaver and two semiquavers, as shown in the score here. In one manuscript source, however, the ascending lines appear as unornamented crotchets, making the visual contrast on the page between the descending minims of the opening and the ascending crotchets of the conclusion even more striking.³² As in the opening of the *In Nomine*, the scalar figures in this concluding sequence generally appear in two parts in parallel at any one time. Unlike the opening, however, Gibbons allows the rising figures to cross freely from one part into another when necessitated by limitations of instrumental range. This final sequence can be thought of as a hugely expanded version of the scale progressions that conclude several of the two-part fantasies, or the continually re-crossing ascents of the keyboard fantasy shown in Example 1.10. Its initially short sequences grow longer as the passage goes on, culminating in the eighteen consecutive rising notes of bb. 105–110. Where the limited ranges of treble viols and keyboards necessitate frequent downward octave displacements, the broader canvas of the five-part setting allows these lines to continue rising over longer stretches while passing

³¹Laurence Dreyfus, 'Craving Action: The Analysis of Orlando Gibbons's Consort Music', paper given at King's College London, 16 November 2011.

³²Christ Church, Oxford, Mus. 423–428 (Mus. 423, ff. 70r–69v; Mus. 424, ff. 44v–45r; Mus. 425, ff. 66r–65v; Mus. 426 f. 18r; and Mus. 427, ff. 62r–61v). This Gibbons *In Nomine* appears as no. 86 in modern numbering, no. 43 in the original numbering of the five-part pieces.

seamlessly from one part into another. Each of the three lines beginning in the bass viol (in b. 97 on E $\flat$, in bb. 101 and 106 on F) passes without octave displacement into one of the two tenor viol parts, and the last and longest ends by crossing into the second treble, where its last three notes displace the cantus firmus F in order to form a close on G (b. 109). These continuously rising figures, crossing freely from one instrumental part into another, suggest a striving after an endlessly ascending music that exceeds the boundaries of mere physical instruments.

The musical score for Example 1.12 consists of six staves. The first staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one flat. The second staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one flat. The third staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one flat. The fourth staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one flat. The fifth staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one flat. The sixth staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one flat. The score is divided into five measures, each containing a descending tetrachord. The first measure is labeled '1', the second '2', the third '3', the fourth '4', and the fifth '5'. The tetrachords are: 1. G4-A4-B4-C5, 2. F4-G4-A4-B4, 3. E4-F4-G4-A4, 4. D4-E4-F4-G4, 5. C4-D4-E4-F4. The tetrachords are imitated in the following order: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

Example 1.12: Descending tetrachords in imitation in the opening of Gibbons's *In Nomine* a5 no. 2 (*MB* 48, no. 28).

97 99 101 103

46 47 48 49

51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58

Static c.f.

Falling c.f.

Example 1.13: Rising scales in imitation in the ending of Gibbons's *In Nomine* a5 no. 2 (*MB* 48, no. 28).

105 107 109 111

50 51 52 53

added to c.f.

cadence

added to c.f.

8^{vb}

1.6 Patterns as a topic of invention

The ‘intertextual’ nature of counterpoint patterns which Milsom highlights was already appreciated in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries by authors who described these patterns as a rhetorical ‘commonplace’ or ‘topic’. In this respect, counterpoint patterns are closely associated with the history of the fantasia genre. In a 1974 article titled ‘The Fantasia as Musical Image’, Gregory G. Butler argued that the sixteenth-century term ‘fantasia’ originally referred to these sequential patterns, only later being transferred to the genre in which they commonly appeared.³³ More intriguingly, Butler argued that sequential patterns functioned as a ‘locus’ or ‘image’ in the rhetorical art of memory described most famously in Quintilian’s *Institutio oratoria*.³⁴ In support of this thesis, he quotes a 1563 treatise by the German organist Claudius Sebastiani, in which *loci* is used as a general term for the ‘fugae’ and ‘fantasias’ to be memorised by the student:

it is of the greatest importance that they commit as much as they can to memory, at least the *loci*, whether fugae or the more suitable fantasias. [...] That this may come about more easily, they should know that they will need to exercise and to run through many musical passages. Whence it will come about that, what at the moment it is not in their power to comprehend, hereafter they will recollect, although they thought that they had completely forgotten [it] and had committed [it] to oblivion.³⁵

Butler’s interpretation of Sebastiani’s *loci* as a reference to the art of memory, however, is puzzling. In classical rhetoric, the mnemonic use of *loci* involved memorising an existing text by mentally placing its elements, represented by distinct images, in a sequence of previously memorised places often pictured as the rooms of a building. Running through the ‘places’ in order at a later time would then assist in recalling the images, and, by the power of association, the

³³Gregory G. Butler, ‘The Fantasia as Musical Image’, *The Musical Quarterly* 60 (1974), 602–604.

³⁴*Ibid.*, 602–608.

³⁵*Ibid.*, 609.

memorised text.³⁶ The mnemonic *loci* are therefore involved only in the final rhetorical stages of memorisation and delivery, not in the earlier stages that produce the finished text through invention, disposition, and ornamentation. They are essentially arbitrary mental devices which have nothing to do with the content of the memorised text. By contrast, *fugae*, ‘fantasias’, and counterpoint models are themselves music, or at least the raw material from which music can be elaborated. They play a direct role in the process of composition or improvisation, and form a concrete and discernible part of the finished musical ‘text’. Although Butler evidently interpreted Sebastiani as describing the practice of memorisation, it seems more likely that the quotation pertains to learning to compose and improvise, for which the student must commit the raw material of common *fugae* and *fantasias* to memory. If this is true, a different sense of *loci* must be intended.

A more suggestive interpretation of Sebastiani’s *loci* comes from a related but distinct domain of rhetoric: the ‘common places’ or *loci communes*. This term refers to the practice of noting down and categorising particularly good examples, sentences, and quotations for re-use in one’s own speech or writing. The term *loci communes*, which originally referred to the subject headings – literally ‘common places’ – under which such quotations were organised, eventually came to refer to the quotations themselves.³⁷ Unlike the *loci* of the art of memory, the *loci communes* play a role in the earliest stages of ‘inventing’ or finding the subject of a text or oration. This use of *loci* as an equivalent for *loci communes* is confirmed by two more sources Butler cites: an appendix titled *De locis communibus musicalibus*, published in 1610 as part of a longer

³⁶Ibid., 608.

³⁷On the literary background of ‘commonplacing’, see Anthony Grafton, ‘The Humanist and the Commonplace Book’, in *Music Education in the Middle Ages and the Renaissance*, ed. Russell E. Murray, Jr., Susan Forscher Weiss, and Cynthia J. Cyrus (Indiana University Press, 2010), 141–157. On the application of the ‘commonplace’ idea in Renaissance music theory, see Peter Schubert, ‘Musical Commonplaces in the Renaissance’, op. cit., 161–192. Schubert’s ‘commonplaces’ represent arrangements of imitative entrances rather than their specific content, a viewpoint which has more in common with Coprario’s taxonomy of imitative expositions (see Chapter 2 of this thesis).

counterpoint treatise by Giovanni Chiodino, and later translated into German as *Dreyssig Loci communes Musicales* by Johann Andreas Herbst in 1643.³⁸ According to this alternative interpretation of Sebastiani's *loci*, the 'common-places' represented by *fantasias* or counterpoint patterns can be compared to the choice quotations, aphorisms and examples which are linked and embroidered in various ways to form part of the substance of an oration.

The rhetorical commonplace is also closely related to the idea of a 'topic'. The Latin term *locus* is a near-equivalent of the Greek *topos*, whose definition in Aristotle's *Rhetoric* suggests its close connection with the 'common places' of rhetoric: 'an element or a topos is a heading under which many enthymemes [arguments] fall.' The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy clarifies this definition as follows: 'the topos is a general argumentative form or pattern, and the concrete arguments are instantiations of the general topos.'³⁹ This concept already suggests an analogy with counterpoint patterns, which are likewise general forms or models which generate many concrete instantiations. Later approaches to rhetoric broadened Aristotle's concept of *topos* to encompass not only the formal structure of arguments, but also their subject matter. In this later sense, 'the dialectical topic or *locus* [...] produces and arranges [...] the bare matter of things to be discoursed on.'⁴⁰ Counterpoint patterns, similarly, constitute not only source material for elaboration in its plain form, but also a way of finding or inventing more distinctive and elaborate musical ideas.

Counterpoint patterns function as topics in Gibbons's compositions in several different ways, each of which retains certain elements of the pattern's paradigmatic form while relaxing or abandoning others. In the simplest case, only the overall shape of alternating ascending and descending intervals is retained, while the strict intervallic restrictions of stretto imitation are discarded.

³⁸Butler, 'The Fantasia as Musical Image', 612.

³⁹Christof Rapp, 'Aristotle's Rhetoric', *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy* (Spring 2010 Edition), Edward N. Zalta (ed.), §7.1.

⁴⁰Quirinus Breen, 'The Terms "Loci Communes" and "Loci" in Melanchthon', *Church History: Studies in Christianity and Culture*, 16 (December 1947), 199–200.

Grimshaw describes similar subjects in sixteenth-century music, noting that in many cases ‘the rising and falling interval of a sequence were “flexed” to the extent that all one can identify is a zigzag made up of consistently variable intervals.’⁴¹ The opening imitative idea in Gibbons’s fourth two-part fantasia belongs to this type of intervallically flexible zigzag, containing rising and falling thirds, a rising fifth, falling sixths, and a rising second (Example 1.14). Gibbons retains only a hint of strict patterning in the falling sixths and rising third of the subject’s first four notes, which combine at their second entrance in b. 5 with a ‘countersubject’ constructed entirely from ascending thirds. An even more flexible zigzag provides the imitative subject of bb. 9–10.

In a slightly stricter usage of a counterpoint pattern as a ‘topic’, the sizes of rising and falling intervals are strictly limited, but the resulting subject is not treated in stretto imitation. Subjects based on alternating seconds and fourths, thirds and fifths, or fourths and fifths typically fall into this category: although all three can be interlocked in close imitation, they are seldom treated in this way, perhaps because the imitation they permit produces less variety of vertical intervals than the more common patterns. Nevertheless, all three interval sequences appear on occasion in Gibbons’s music. Patterns of fourths and fifths are closely related to sequences of linked cadences.⁴² Outside this context they occur more rarely, but an example of a non-cadential zigzag of fourths and fifths appears in bb. 13–14 of the fourth two-treble fantasia (Example 1.14), combined in counterpoint with descending broken octaves in the lower part. Alternating seconds and fourths form part of the opening subject of the second two-treble fantasia (Example 1.15, bb. 3–7), and re-appear in inverted form in bb. 66–67. In both places Gibbons combines the sequential segment in counterpoint with a melodically distinct idea, in contrast to the *stretto* imitative context in which the stricter intervallic patterns arise.

⁴¹Grimshaw, ‘Sixteenth-century English *fuga*’, 76.

⁴²See chapter 4 of this thesis for further discussion.

The musical score is written for two staves in treble clef, with a key signature of one sharp (F#). The notation includes various rhythmic values (quarter, eighth, and sixteenth notes) and rests. The score is divided into measures 2 through 16. Measures 2-7 and 13-16 are grouped by brackets on the left. Measure 12 is marked with a double bar line. Specific intervallic sequences are highlighted with brackets and labels: '3rd (\6th)' in measures 2-3, 8-9, and 10-11; '5th (\4th)' in measures 13-14; and '3rd (\6th)' in measures 10-11. The notation includes various accidentals (sharps, flats, naturals) and slurs.

Example 1.14: Flexible zigzag subjects and brief intervallic sequences in the opening of Gibbons's two-part fantasia no. 4

2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

4th, 2nd

65 66 67 68 69 70 71 72

2nd, 4th

4th, 2nd

Example 1.15: Fragments of alternating seconds and fourths in Gibbons's second fantasia (*MB* 48, no. 2).

Gibbons's unusual five-part *In Nomine* with two bass viols (*MB* 48, no. 29) provides a more extended example of such intervallically flexible sequential patterns. The contrapuntal invention in the opening bars consists almost entirely of sequences in the classic 'zigzag' shape, but alternating freely between segments made up of seconds and fourths, and those made up of thirds and fifths (Example 1.16).⁴³ This flexibility of interval size is dictated by the contrapuntal requirements of composition on a cantus firmus. Strictly patterned sequences such as alternating thirds and fourths rise or fall by step with every second note, and would quickly produce dissonances against a cantus firmus. Sequences of two even or two odd-numbered intervals such as Gibbons uses here, however, fall by a third with each repetition, moving from one consonance with the plainsong to another, simultaneously combining in consonant counterpoint with the opposite type of segments. A harmonic description of these opening bars is perhaps more revealing than a melodic one: in each voice, the zigzag subject progresses through all possible consonances with the cantus firmus, producing a kaleidoscopic cycling through the possible triadic harmonisations of each plainsong note.

The remainder of the *In Nomine* with two bass viols is equally full of patterned subjects, but does not quite sustain the inventiveness of the striking opening. Like the better-known *In Nomine* discussed above (*MB* 48, no. 28), it contains a later section constructed from scales embellished with a galloping figure, though in the two-bass piece the scales are falling rather than rising. This commonality suggests a comparison between the two pieces, both of which thematicise the contrast of falling and rising patterns. It is tempting to hypothesise that the two-bass *In Nomine* represents an earlier attempt at applying

⁴³Gibbons might have been inspired to experiment with this kind of subject by Christopher Tye's *In Nomine* 'Weepe no more Rachell', which opens with imitative entrances of a similar subject based mostly on alternating fourths and seconds, flexed as necessary to remain consonant with the cantus firmus. (I am grateful to Miyo Aoki for this observation). Gibbons's subject moves twice as fast as Tye's in relation to the cantus firmus, allowing for more extensive interlocking between imitative entrances. See Christopher Tye, *Complete Consort Music*, ed. Bernard Thomas (London Pro Musica Edition, 1991), 4–5.

this kind of patterning to the genre, which Gibbons later refined into the more coherent and expressive no. 28.

The opening of Gibbons's sixth three-part fantasia (Example 1.17) exemplifies a third way of using counterpoint patterns as a topic, by which a strictly patterned sequence develops out of the second or third presentation of a freely-composed imitative idea. The rising and falling motives first presented in quasi-imitative fashion in the first two bars are later developed into a short falling sequence (bb. 5–7) and then, following the cadence in b. 7, into a longer sequence based on the same interval stock of falling fourths and rising thirds (bb. 8–14). Motivically, this second sequence is somewhat more distant from the opening, replacing the original dotted rising figure with even crotchets, but on the level of unornamented counterpoint, the relationship is clear. Gibbons gives the section as a whole a neat symmetry by returning to the opening motive in the upper voices toward the end of the sequence (bb. 13–14). The opening of Gibbons's madrigal 'Farewell all Joys', in which sequential treatment appears in the second imitative phrase based on the opening subject, provides a similar instance. Although in both pieces the 'free' subject is presented first and the strict sequence second, this need not have been the order of composition: in retrospect, the opening imitative ideas seem as though they were devised to permit this sequential treatment. This suggests that the sequential patterns constitute the raw material of these pieces, as the 'topic' metaphor implies: a basic idea which is extended, flexed and ornamented in composition to create the more original and varied subject of the finished piece.

The musical score for Example 1.16 consists of eight staves. The first four staves are grouped by a brace on the left. The first staff is a treble clef with a key signature of one sharp (F#) and a common time signature (C). It contains a sequence of notes labeled 2 through 14. The second staff is a treble clef with a key signature of one sharp (F#) and a common time signature (C), containing a sequence of notes labeled 1 through 7. The third staff is a treble clef with a key signature of one sharp (F#) and a common time signature (C), containing a sequence of notes. The fourth staff is a bass clef with a key signature of one sharp (F#) and a common time signature (C), containing a sequence of notes. The fifth staff is a treble clef with a key signature of one sharp (F#) and a common time signature (C), containing a sequence of notes. The sixth staff is a treble clef with a key signature of one sharp (F#) and a common time signature (C), containing a sequence of notes. The seventh staff is a treble clef with a key signature of one sharp (F#) and a common time signature (C), containing a sequence of notes. The eighth staff is a bass clef with a key signature of one sharp (F#) and a common time signature (C), containing a sequence of notes.

Example 1.16: Intervallically flexible sequences in the opening of Gibbons's *In Nomine* with two basses, *MB* 48, no. 29.

This musical score displays counterpoint patterns across measures 15 to 27. The notation is organized into three systems, each containing two staves (treble and bass clef). The first system (measures 15-27) features a treble staff with a key signature of one flat and a bass staff with a key signature of two flats. The second system (measures 8-14) shows a treble staff with a key signature of one flat and a bass staff with a key signature of two flats. The third system (measures 9-14) shows a treble staff with a key signature of one flat and a bass staff with a key signature of two flats. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and accidentals, with some measures containing complex rhythmic figures and others featuring long, sustained notes. The measures are numbered 15 through 27, with some numbers appearing on both staves of a system.

The musical score is divided into two systems, each containing four staves. The first system (measures 2-7) and the second system (measures 8-15) follow a similar structural pattern. In each system, the first two staves are in treble clef and the last two are in bass clef. The notation includes various musical elements such as notes, rests, accidentals, and dynamic markings like 'f'. Brackets and arrows are used to highlight specific counterpoint patterns and cadences. In the first system, a bracket labeled 'cadence' points to a measure in the third staff, and another bracket labeled '4th, /3rd' points to a measure in the fourth staff. In the second system, a bracket labeled 'cadence' points to a measure in the third staff, and another bracket labeled 'cadence' points to a measure in the fourth staff.

Example 1.17: Strict sequences developed out of opening motives in Gibbons's sixth three-part consort fantasy (*MB* 48, no. 12)

1.7 Patterns as a unifying topic in the *Fantazia of foure parts*

The use of counterpoint patterns as a topic can provide a unifying principle which connects passages with little obvious surface relationship. Few Gibbons compositions show this as clearly as the keyboard *Fantazia of foure parts* (MB 20, no. 12), in which a patterned topic connects together several highly diverse imitative sections. Among Gibbons's fantasies, this composition – the only fantasia included among the preludes, pavans, galliards and variations of *Parthenia* – comes second only to the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' (MB 20, no. 9) in length and contrapuntal elaboration. The title it bears in *Parthenia*, *Fantazia of foure parts*, seems to emphasise the significance of a keyboard piece written in truly polyphonic four-part style throughout. As John Caldwell notes, the fantasy gives an unusually strong impression of thematic coherence, despite the absence of obvious thematic connections between sections:

The lack of thematic unity makes [Gibbons's] achievement in imparting a coherent sense of structure to works of considerable length all the more striking. The *Parthenia* piece is a good example. There are at least seven different themes in succession but they are so skillfully woven into the counterpoint that the effect is of continuous development.⁴⁴

Six of Caldwell's seven imitative themes are shown in Example 1.18; the fourth of the seven is omitted since it lacks a well-defined subject, and should probably be considered a transitional episode, or a part of the preceding section. Although these six points or subjects have few surface features in common, a closer analysis of the counterpoint developed from them reveals a common thread running through the fantasy in the form of interval patterns in thirds and fourths. Almost every section shows the influence of this sequential topic on Gibbons's thinking in some way.

⁴⁴Caldwell, *English Keyboard Music*, 63–64.

The image displays six staves of musical notation, each representing a different section of a piece. The staves are labeled with measure numbers: b. 1, b. 18, b. 31, b. 53, b. 64, and b. 72. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and accidentals, illustrating different counterpoint patterns. The staves are arranged in a single column, with each staff starting on a new line. The first staff (b. 1) is in bass clef, the second (b. 18) in treble clef, the third (b. 31) in bass clef, the fourth (b. 53) in treble clef, the fifth (b. 64) in treble clef, and the sixth (b. 72) in bass clef. The notation shows a variety of rhythmic values and melodic lines, with some measures containing multiple notes and others containing rests or single notes.

Example 1.18: Initial melodic ideas of the six sections in Gibbons's *Fantasia of four parts* (MB 20 no. 12)

Sequential ideas are most easily identified in the closing three sections of the *Fantazia of foure parts*, where patterns of alternating thirds and fourths make up almost the entirety of the counterpoint. As in the conclusion of the first five-part *In Nomine* (*MB* no. 27, Example 1.11 above) Gibbons draws on both melodic inversions of this pattern in succession. The first of the three final sections (Example 1.19, bb. 53–64) exemplifies a type of flexible writing based on interval patterns which is characteristic for Gibbons: the texture is entirely permeated by motivic repetitions outlining falling fourths and rising thirds, but the precise sequence of these figures is so variable that it is impossible to identify either a fixed imitative subject or a leading and following part. As in other similar passages, the initially variable arrangement of intervals grows increasingly strict and sequential as the section continues, finally settling a strict alternating zigzag of thirds and fourths in the last bars of the section (bb. 63–64).

This stricter use of patterning continues into the final two sections of the fantasy, which draw on the inverted interval stock of falling thirds and rising fourths (Example 1.20). Gibbons's contrapuntal material is at its most minimal in the penultimate section (bb. 64–72), in which the counterpoint consists almost entirely of descending chains of thirds. Following this, the fantasy closes with a passage based on falling thirds and rising fourths in strict alternation (bb. 72–78). The four-part stretto of bb. 72–76 comes closer than any other passage from Gibbons's fantasias to the idealised four-part strettos illustrated in Example 1.5, with the parts dividing perfectly into two pairs of voices (treble/tenor and alto/bass) which move in parallel with each other and in contrary motion to the other pair of voices. Structurally, these two concluding segments – the first based solely on chains of thirds, the second combining them with fourths – also resemble the concluding sections of keyboard fantasia *MB* 48, no. 11 (Example 1.10 above). Considering all three final segments together, Gibbons's use of both inversions of the interval stock suggests a conscious attempt to extract the maximum amount of music from minimal material.

The musical score consists of two systems of four staves each. The first system covers measures 53 to 57, and the second system covers measures 58 to 61. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, accidentals, and dynamic markings. Key features include:

- Measure 53:** Treble 1 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 1 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Treble 2 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 2 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#).
- Measure 54:** Treble 1 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 1 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Treble 2 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 2 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#).
- Measure 55:** Treble 1 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 1 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Treble 2 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 2 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#).
- Measure 56:** Treble 1 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 1 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Treble 2 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 2 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#).
- Measure 57:** Treble 1 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 1 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Treble 2 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 2 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). A bracket labeled "cadence (evaded)" spans measures 56 and 57.
- Measure 58:** Treble 1 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 1 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Treble 2 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 2 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#).
- Measure 59:** Treble 1 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 1 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Treble 2 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 2 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#).
- Measure 60:** Treble 1 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 1 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Treble 2 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 2 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). A bracket labeled "cadence" spans measures 59 and 60.
- Measure 61:** Treble 1 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 1 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Treble 2 staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). Bass 2 staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#).

Example 1.19: Patterns of rising thirds and falling fourths in the fourth section of Gibbons's *Fantazia of four parts*

62 63 64 65

cadence (evaded)

The image displays a musical score for counterpoint patterns, spanning measures 62 to 65. The score is written for two staves, with the upper staff in treble clef and the lower staff in bass clef. The key signature is one sharp (F#). The notation includes various rhythmic values (quarter, eighth, and sixteenth notes) and rests. A bracket labeled "cadence (evaded)" is placed over the final measure (65) of the upper staff, indicating a specific musical technique. The score is divided into four measures, with measure numbers 62, 63, 64, and 65 marked at the beginning of each measure. The notation is complex, featuring many beamed notes and rests, suggesting a fast or intricate rhythmic pattern.

The musical score is presented in two systems, each containing four staves (treble and bass clef). The first system covers measures 64 to 67, and the second system covers measures 68 to 71. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, accidentals, and dynamic markings like '3rd' and 'cadence'.

System 1 (Measures 64-67):

- Measure 64:** Treble clef has a half note G4, a quarter rest, and a half note A4. Bass clef has a half note G3, a quarter rest, and a half note A3.
- Measure 65:** Treble clef has a half note A4, a quarter rest, and a half note B4. Bass clef has a half note A3, a quarter rest, and a half note B3.
- Measure 66:** Treble clef has a half note B4, a quarter rest, and a half note C5. Bass clef has a half note B3, a quarter rest, and a half note C4.
- Measure 67:** Treble clef has a half note C5, a quarter rest, and a half note D5. Bass clef has a half note C4, a quarter rest, and a half note D4.

System 2 (Measures 68-71):

- Measure 68:** Treble clef has a half note D5, a quarter rest, and a half note E5. Bass clef has a half note D4, a quarter rest, and a half note E4.
- Measure 69:** Treble clef has a half note E5, a quarter rest, and a half note F5. Bass clef has a half note E4, a quarter rest, and a half note F4.
- Measure 70:** Treble clef has a half note F5, a quarter rest, and a half note G5. Bass clef has a half note F4, a quarter rest, and a half note G4.
- Measure 71:** Treble clef has a half note G5, a quarter rest, and a half note A5. Bass clef has a half note G4, a quarter rest, and a half note A4.

Example 1.20: Patterns of falling thirds and rising fourths in the closing sections of Gibbons's *Fantasia of four parts*.

Musical score for measures 72-75. The score is written for two staves (treble and bass clef). Measure 72 shows a treble staff with a half note G4 and a bass staff with a half note F3. Measure 73 shows a treble staff with a half note A4 and a bass staff with a half note G3. Measure 74 shows a treble staff with a half note B4 and a bass staff with a half note A3. Measure 75 shows a treble staff with a half note C5 and a bass staff with a half note B3. A bracket labeled "cadence" spans measures 72-74. A bracket labeled "4th, 3rd" spans measures 73-74. A bracket labeled "3rd, 2nd" spans measures 74-75.

Musical score for measures 76-80. The score is written for two staves (treble and bass clef). Measure 76 shows a treble staff with a half note D5 and a bass staff with a half note C4. Measure 77 shows a treble staff with a half note E5 and a bass staff with a half note D4. Measure 78 shows a treble staff with a half note F5 and a bass staff with a half note E4. Measure 79 shows a treble staff with a half note G5 and a bass staff with a half note F4. Measure 80 shows a treble staff with a half note A5 and a bass staff with a half note G4. A bracket labeled "cadence" spans measures 76-78. A bracket labeled "3rd, 4th" spans measures 78-79. A bracket labeled "cadence" spans measures 79-80.

The sequential topic that dominates the second half of the *Fantazia of foure parts* is also identifiable in less literal form in earlier sections. The most general reference to the sequential idea is the melodic contour of the opening subject, whose first four notes (A–E–G–C) form the familiar zigzag outline (Example 1.22). In a sense this resemblance is superficial, since the intervals between these first four notes – rising third, falling fourth, and falling fifth – will not combine directly in sequential imitation. The imitative exposition developed from this subject nevertheless shows the influence of patterned writing in other ways. Although the successive intervals of the subject as a whole do not belong to a single interval stock, on the minim level the majority of its melodic intervals are falling fourths and rising thirds (Example 1.21A). In its first form, the subject can be thought of as two three-note segments drawn from this sequential pattern or interval stock – A–E–G at the beginning and F–C–E at the end – separated by the two ‘foreign’ intervals of a rising fourth and falling fifth. The same property also holds for the flexed form of the subject which appears in the alto entrance of b. 2 and the bass entrances of b. 10 and b. 15 (Example 1.21). Because the subject’s melodic fourth and fifth exchange places in the flexed version, in this form it is the second through fourth notes (A–C–G) which contain a rising third and a falling fourth. (A third form of the subject which lacks this property due to more extensive flexing appears only in the bass entrance of b. 6.) Both main forms of the subject contain two three-note segments which combine well together, as they do in the imitative modules of bars 2–3, 10–11 and 14. It seems more than likely that Gibbons devised the second bar of the subject specifically to permit this imitative overlap, incorporating this fragment of the intervallic pattern into the initial imitative module.

The pattern of thirds and fourths present in fragmentary segments of these imitative modules also extends beyond them to create much of the intervening ‘free’ counterpoint. This is most obvious in bb. 3–5, where the pattern begun

by the alto and tenor entrances continues up to the beginning of the treble entrance, overlapping with the similarly-patterned first three notes of the subject. Shorter four-voice segments drawn from the same intervallic pattern precede the cadences in b. 8, b. 12 and b. 16.



Example 1.21: Three forms of the first imitative point in Gibbons's *Fantazia of four parts*, MB 20, no. 12.

The voice-leading structure of the fantasia's opening section also reflects the typical imitative treatment of sequential subjects. In a typical sequential stretto, such as bb. 73–74 of Example 1.20 or the idealised expositions of Example 1.5, the four voices divide into two pairs, each pair moving in parallel tenths and in contrary motion with the other pair. In a four-voice keyboard texture, the most comfortable disposition of these voices is for soprano and tenor to form one parallel pair, alto and bass the other, so that neither hand has to negotiate parallel thirds on its own. With each successive imitative complex in the opening of Gibbons's fantasy, the arrangement of imitative entrances increasingly resembles this paradigmatic structure. The first hints are the parallel tenths between treble and tenor in the beginning of b. 7, with the alto and bass joining together in tenths from the end of the bar. In the next imitative segment, the treble entrance on E runs in parallel tenths with the tenor from the beginning of b. 10 to the end of the subject; only the alteration of the tenor A at the end of b. 9 to a C would be necessary to make the doubling of the subject in tenths complete. Gibbons reserves the most complete expression of this paired voice-leading structure for the final imitative complex beginning in b. 14, where the treble and tenor parts state the complete

subject in tenths, with the alto joining the bass in parallel tenths from the end of b. 15. Though none of these segments literally presents a sequential pattern, their voice-leading structure prefigures the stricter patterning that concludes the fantasy.

The same counterpoint pattern of thirds and fourths plays a more subtle role in the fantasy's third section, from b. 31 onward (Example 1.23). Although the main imitative subject of these bars is not a sequential pattern, it is related to the broader tradition of common imitative subjects or *fugae*. Like many of Gibbons's sequential patterns, it is the inversion of a typical sixteenth-century subject: in this case, the idea which Grimshaw calls the 'cumulative fourth subject'.⁴⁵ Like its ascending counterpart, Gibbons's falling-fourth subject is flexible in length: only the characteristic three-note head motive of falling second and falling third is constant, while the number of rising steps that follow it varies. As a result, the subject allows considerable imitative flexibility, yielding consonant interlocks at the fourth, fifth and octave at multiple time intervals.⁴⁶

The imitative passage Gibbons develops from this subject exemplifies one of his favoured means of developing an idea, in which increasingly overlapped and compressed entrances of a long subject finally collapse into strict patterning. In its longest form, the subject comprises six notes, as in the bass and tenor entrances of bb. 31–32, the bass of bb. 34–35, the treble and tenor of bb. 40–44, and the curious 'split' entrance of bb. 38–39, which begins in the treble and ends (an octave lower) in the tenor. The majority of entrances feature a shortened form of the point in which only one or two rising steps following the head motive, or none. The upper-voice entrances in bb. 32–33 are the first of many in which the subject is shortened to four notes; a five-note form appears in the alto of bb. 33–34 and the tenor of bb. 37–38, amongst other places.

⁴⁵Grimshaw, 'Sixteenth-century English *fuga*', 73–74.

⁴⁶The term 'interlock' in reference to an imitative combination is defined by Milsom in 'Crecquillon, Clemens, and Four-Voiced *Fuga*' 344. See chapter 2 of this thesis for more detailed discussion.

The image displays a musical score for four parts, organized into two systems. Each system consists of two staves, with the upper staff in treble clef and the lower staff in bass clef. The first system covers measures 2 through 5, and the second system covers measures 6 through 9. Measure numbers are placed above the staves at the beginning of each measure. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and beams. A bracket labeled 'cadence' with an arrow points to the end of measure 9, indicating the conclusion of the phrase. The score illustrates counterpoint patterns, specifically allusions to thirds and fourths as mentioned in the caption.

Example 1.22: Allusions to patterned counterpoint in thirds and fourths in the opening of Gibbons's *Fantazia of foure parts*

Measures 10 through 14 of a musical score. The score is written for two staves (treble and bass clef) and includes a grand staff section. Measure 10 shows a treble staff with a half note G4 and a bass staff with a half note F4. Measure 11 shows a treble staff with a half note A4 and a bass staff with a half note G4. Measure 12 shows a treble staff with a half note B4 and a bass staff with a half note A4. Measure 13 shows a treble staff with a half note C5 and a bass staff with a half note B4. Measure 14 shows a treble staff with a half note D5 and a bass staff with a half note C5. The score includes various counterpoint patterns and cadence markings, including a "cadence (evaded)" label with an arrow pointing to a measure.

Measures 15 through 17 of a musical score. The score is written for two staves (treble and bass clef) and includes a grand staff section. Measure 15 shows a treble staff with a half note G4 and a bass staff with a half note F4. Measure 16 shows a treble staff with a half note A4 and a bass staff with a half note G4. Measure 17 shows a treble staff with a half note B4 and a bass staff with a half note A4. The score includes various counterpoint patterns and cadence markings, including a "cadence" label with an arrow pointing to a measure.

As these shortened entrances follow each other more and more closely, the texture becomes permeated by the distinctive three-note falling figure. In the conclusion of this process of compression, Gibbons reduces the subject entirely to its three-note head motive, in bb. 35–36, bb. 44–46, and finally, briefly, in b. 47. In this compressed form, the imitative entrances create the same sequence of falling fourths and rising thirds that appears in the first imitative section, and again prefigure the more strictly patterned conclusion to come.

The image displays two systems of musical notation, each consisting of a treble and bass staff. The first system, measures 31-37, shows a sequence of notes with various accidentals (sharps, naturals, flats). Measure 35 features a bracketed section labeled '4th, 3rd' with a downward arrow. Measure 36 has a bracket labeled 'cadence'. Measure 37 has a bracket labeled 'cadence (evaded)'. The second system, measures 38-44, continues the sequence. Measure 44 has a bracket labeled 'cadence (evaded)'. The notation includes various note values (quarter, eighth, sixteenth notes) and rests, with some notes beamed together.

Example 1.23: An inverted cumulative-fourth subject compressed into sequential patterns in the third section of the *Fantasia of four parts*

45 46 47 48 49

4th, 3rd

cadence

cadence

The image shows a musical score for counterpoint patterns, measures 45 through 49. The score is written for two staves, Treble and Bass. Measure 45 shows a Treble staff with a half note G4 and a Bass staff with a half note F4. Measure 46 shows a Treble staff with a half note A4 and a Bass staff with a half note G4. Measure 47 shows a Treble staff with a half note B4 and a Bass staff with a half note A4. Measure 48 shows a Treble staff with a half note C5 and a Bass staff with a half note B4. Measure 49 shows a Treble staff with a half note D5 and a Bass staff with a half note C5. The score includes various musical notations such as notes, rests, and accidentals. A bracket labeled '4th, 3rd' spans measures 45 to 47. Two brackets labeled 'cadence' are present, one spanning measures 47 to 48 and another spanning measures 48 to 49.

1.8 Patterns and chord sequences

Although the manifestations considered so far are all imitative or quasi-imitative, counterpoint patterns can equally well serve as a treble-bass framework for ornamentation with soloistic divisions. In this role, counterpoint patterns come close to being a seventeenth-century analogue of the chord progressions of later tonal practice. One clear example of this connection comes from the conclusion the *Fantazia of foure parts* analysed above (Example 1.20). The passage from bb. 64–70 was described earlier in terms of its intervallic content, which consists entirely of overlapping chains of falling thirds. Candace Bailey points out that it also forms a clear progression through the circle of fifths, beginning with an A major triad in b. 64 and progressing sequentially to an F major triad in b. 67; the second segment also begins in A major, but does not move quite so far, ending on C major in b. 69.⁴⁷ Almost identical sequences of descending triadic figures appear in bb. 22–25 of the fifth fantasia for three viols (*MB* 48, no. 11) and bb. 60–61 of the eighth (*MB* 48, no. 14): in each case the sequence begins on an A triad and progresses by fifths to F. One might look at this ‘true bass’ or progression of chord roots as a consequence of the imitative properties of the chain of descending thirds: since they permit imitation only at the fourth, a continuously imitative treatment is likely to create a modulating sequence. On the other hand, there is no denying that a genuinely chordal concept is active in the short, emphatic phrases that take the place of cadences at the end of each descending chain of thirds (Example 1.20, b. 67 and bb. 70–71). Bailey notes that the chord roots in these bars move by rising fifths, in the opposite direction to that of the preceding sequence: the first phrase ends with three chords (F–C–G), the second with four (C–G, A–E), in each case ‘rewinding’ the harmonic progression to the sharp side of the tonal compass so that it can run out once again in sequential imitations. This alternation of imitative sequences and chordal conclusions demonstrates the close relationship

⁴⁷Bailey, ‘Orlando Gibbons, Keyboard Music, and the Beginnings of the Baroque’, 152.

between sequences defined by counterpoint patterns and sequences defined by progressions of chord roots or fundamental basses.

Other passages from Gibbons in which a counterpoint pattern serves as a treble-bass framework are less easily understood in terms of common-practice harmony. Paradoxically, precisely because the texture of solo and accompaniment is so familiar from later styles, it is sometimes these passages which can seem particularly puzzling to a modern ear. Two Gibbons keyboard compositions with divisions in the ‘running’ style provide examples: one fantasia (*MB* 20, no. 11), and one prelude (*MB* 20, no. 1). Although the harmonic logic of these passages of running divisions can seem obscure from the point of view of later tonality, an analysis in terms of counterpoint patterns shows it to be far from arbitrary. These analyses can have implications for interpretation in performance, since the boundaries of sequential patterns suggest a discernible phrase structure in passages that appear undifferentiated on the surface. They also show that at the level of counterpoint there may be close relationships between imitative and chordal passages which at first sound dissimilar.

A first instance of a common interval stock linking together passages in polyphonic and chordal-division styles comes from a Gibbons keyboard fantasia, *MB* 20 no. 11. One of Gibbons’s lightest keyboard fantasies in mood, this is also the only one which abandons imitative writing for a second half consisting almost entirely of running, prelude-like figuration. Although the contrast in surface texture between the two halves of the fantasy is stark, patterned counterpoint based on rising thirds and falling fourths appears in both in very different forms. In a familiar imitative guise, chains of rising thirds separated by falling fourths make up the bass and treble of the transitional episode that follows the first three imitative entrances in bb. 9–12 (Example 1.24). Excepting the last note of the bass (which rises another third where the corresponding place in the treble has a ‘hold’) the outer voices here are in strict imitation at the upper fifth, stating a subject consisting of two ascending triad figures separated by a falling fourth. In context, the resulting rising sequence

plays a formal role similar to a circle-of-fifths modulation in later styles: by leading from the C cadence of b. 8 back to the A cadence of b. 13, it prepares the way for the next entrance of the subject at its original pitch level, beginning on A. A brief hint of the same sequence re-appears in b. 33, where it leads to a G cadence. With an entirely different surface presentation, the same interval stock also underlies the first five bars of running divisions that open the fantasia's second half (Example 1.25, bb. 45–50). Although on the surface these bars lack an obvious connection to the preceding musical material, on the level of counterpoint in minims they are drawn from the same interval stock of rising thirds and falling fourths as the earlier transitional sequences. As in other pieces which derive multiple interval patterns from the same limited interval stock, the succession of melodic intervals differs between Examples 1.24 and 1.25: the latter sequence consists of longer chains of thirds in the treble, combined with shorter segments of alternating thirds and fourths separated by octave leaps in the bass. Considered sequentially, furthermore, the earlier passage involves a rise of a step between successive repetitions, the latter a rise of a fourth. Nevertheless, the two passages are connected on the level of counterpoint through their use of a common interval stock.

Example 1.25 is a clear case where an analysis based in intervallic counterpoint has the advantage over one based in chordal concepts. Although most of the sonorities on strong beats in these bars can be heard as root-position triads (some of them incomplete), the succession of harmonies is difficult to understand or even incoherent if considered as a progression of chord roots: A–E–G–D–A–C–G–D, or i–v–VII–iv–i–III–VII–iv in the key of A minor. An analysis in terms of interval stocks and patterns also goes further than one based on chord roots, in that it accounts for the motion of the treble part as well as the bass. Finally, as in the *Fantazia of foure parts*, the pattern of thirds and fourths represents a connection between different sections of this fantasy that is not obvious from their finished, decorated form. Focusing on chord roots alone obscures this commonality.

The musical score is written for two staves, with measures numbered 5 through 17. The key signature has one sharp (F#), and the time signature is 4/4. The score is divided into two systems. The first system contains measures 5-17. The second system contains measures 18-20. Brackets and labels identify 'cadence' and 'subject' sections. The subject is a rising third (D4-E4-F#4) followed by a falling fourth (F#4-E4-D4). The sequence is strictly imitative, with each voice entering the subject a third higher or a fourth lower than the previous.

Example 1.24: A strictly imitative sequence based on rising thirds and falling fourths forming a transition between imitative entrances in Gibbons's keyboard fantasia *MB* 20, no. 10.

The image displays a musical score for Example 1.25, consisting of two systems of counterpoint. The first system, spanning measures 45 to 50, is written for a treble and bass staff. The treble staff contains a complex, fast-moving melodic line with many sixteenth and thirty-second notes, while the bass staff provides a more rhythmic accompaniment with eighth and quarter notes. The second system, spanning measures 51 to 56, continues the counterpoint. It features a similar melodic complexity in the treble staff. A bracketed section in the bass staff of the second system is labeled "sequential motion by rising fourth", indicating a specific intervallic pattern. The score includes various musical notations such as clefs, time signatures, and dynamic markings.

Example 1.25: Divisions on a sequence constructed from rising thirds and falling fourths, from Gibbons, keyboard fantasia *MB* 20, no. 10.

Considering the vertical intervals of Example 1.25 in addition to the melodic intervals reveals further patterns. As the figures in the example show, throughout the sequence the harmonic interval between treble and bass alternates between a third and a fifth (or more precisely, between the compound intervals, a 12th and a 17th). Clearly, a consistent pattern of melodic intervals in counterpoint will result in an equally consistent pattern of vertical intervals. What is interesting here is that Gibbons maintains to some extent the strict alternation of vertical intervals even where the melodic sequence changes. For example, in bb. 47 and 49, the alternation of rising thirds and falling fourths in the bass is broken by a rising octave, in counterpoint with two consecutive rising thirds in the treble. The pattern of vertical intervals between the two parts, however, remains consistent. Similarly, the interval between bass and tenor alternates initially between octave and third (bb. 46–47), then between third and fifth (bb. 48–49), even when the melodic intervals involved in maintaining this sequence change. These patterns of alternating harmonic intervals suggest a different and complementary way of conceptualising contrapuntal sequences, resembling the technique of ‘playing in consonances’ which Miguel Roig-Francolí analyses in Tomas de Sancta María’s *Arte de tañer fantasia* of 1565.⁴⁸ In general, however, patterns of melodic intervals seem to explain more than patterns of harmonic intervals: melodic patterns together with imitation strongly determine a sequence of harmonic intervals, whereas a sequence of harmonic intervals only weakly determines the melodic connection between them.

In the opening of another Gibbons piece in the ‘running’ style, the prelude *MB* 20, no. 1, a pattern of alternating thirds and fourths comes even closer to playing the role of a bass line defining a progression of chord roots. In texture, this prelude resembles the second half of the fantasia, *MB* 20 no. 11, with which it also shares an A final and a natural signature: both consist almost entirely of running semiquaver divisions in one hand, combined with

⁴⁸Miguel A. Roig-Francolí, ‘Playing in Consonances: A Spanish Renaissance Technique of Chordal Improvisation’, *Early Music* 23 (1995), 461–471.

2 3 4 5 6

10 ↘ 4th ↗ 3rd

10 12 10 10 12 10

voice exchange 10 11

7 8 9 10 11 12

↗ 3rd (↘ 6th)

8 10 12 10 12 10 12

↘ 4th (↗ 5th)

Example 1.26: Divisions on a framework of descending fourths and ascending thirds in the opening of Gibbons, Prelude MB 20, no. 1.

a mostly note-against-note accompaniment in the other hand. The prelude opens with a passage based on alternating falling fourths and rising thirds, which appear clearly in the bass motion of the first six bars (Example 1.26). When reduced to minims, the treble part in these bars broadly follows the same zigzag pattern. (The presence of melodic diminished fourths between C and G $\sharp$, and B and F, make this reduction of the treble unacceptable as note-against-note counterpoint as it stands, but theorists of the period did not always require that the consonant background be fully contrapuntally lawful in itself to serve as a basis for added divisions.⁴⁹)

It seems natural to analyse the following bars in chordal terms, relying on Thomas Campion's concept of the 'true bass'. In particular, the voice exchanges between treble and bass in b. 7 and in b. 10 suggest that the successive 6/3 and 5/3 sonorities of these bars should be heard as different inversions of a single triad extended through arpeggiation: C major in bb. 7–8, D minor in b. 10. To use more historical language, the bass notes of E in bb. 7–8 and F in b. 10 are not 'true basses', but have been 'removed' by arpeggiation from their true bass notes of C and D, respectively. Considering these bars in terms of the 'true bass' or chordal root clarifies the sequential motion of chord roots by fourth in bb. 6–11, which may be heard as successive chords on F, C, G, D and A. In tonal terms, such a progression of chords is reasonable, albeit unusual, since it moves in the opposite direction from the more typical progression of roots by fifth (e.g., A–D–G–C–F). Furthermore, the chordal analysis leaves out a musically salient feature: namely, the treble part in this sequence moves along a nearly continuous chain of rising thirds, with a single octave displacement in b. 9. Beginning on A in b. 6, the treble rises to C, E, and G, then falls to B and rises again through D, F, A, and C to E in bar 11. Compared with the sequence of the first six bars, it is as if Gibbons has divided the intervals of fourths and thirds between separate voices, placing the falling fourths in the

⁴⁹Schubert, 'Counterpoint Pedagogy in the Renaissance', 509–10.

‘true bass’ to govern the harmony, and using rising thirds alone to create the jubilantly rising treble.

The opening bars of Example 1.26 show how close an intervallic counterpoint pattern may come to defining a sequence of chords. The resemblance between such extended sequential passages and the chordal sequences of later styles strengthens the impression given by written sources of the time that English musicians participated early on in a broad seventeenth-century trend toward the more patterned and chordal style associated with figured bass and the Baroque. Candace Bailey argues that Gibbons’s ‘modern’ progressions and sequences appealed to later seventeenth-century organists, who copied his music into working manuscripts disproportionately more than that of contemporaries.⁵⁰ In particular, she notes that another Gibbons keyboard prelude (*MB* 20 no. 2) was ‘the most copied piece of English keyboard music during the seventeenth century’ (p. 144). I would hypothesise that the use of such patterned forms of counterpoint is also a significant difference between the styles of Gibbons’s generation and Byrd’s, although the full investigation of this hypothesis lies outside the scope of this thesis. Analysing passages such as these in terms of chords and fundamental bass progressions is revealing, in that it reveals connections to later practices. However, an analysis in terms of intervallic counterpoint patterns captures essential musical features which are overlooked by a chordal analysis, and reveals hidden similarities between passages in ‘old’ and ‘new’ styles.

1.9 Counterpoint patterns and harmony

Sequential counterpoint patterns persisted into the seventeenth, eighteenth and even nineteenth centuries, assimilated first into figured bass and *partimento* practice, and from there into standard harmonic progressions. However, their

⁵⁰Bailey, ‘Orlando Gibbons, Keyboard Music, and the Beginnings of the Baroque’, 139–144, 148–149 and throughout.

appeal to musicians and theorists was far from constant, and the early seventeenth century represents a particularly significant turning point in their use. Although strictly patterned imitation had considerable importance for contrapuntists of Josquin's generation, it attracted criticism from a later generation of musicians, including Vicentino, Zarlino, and Tigrini, who placed a premium on the principle of *varietas* or variety in counterpoint.⁵¹ Vicentino wrote that sequential patterns were a crutch used only by old-fashioned musicians ('alcuni non moderni'), and Tigrini claimed that such forms of imitation were 'not too pleasant' to hear.⁵² Zarlino cautioned his readers to be sparing in the use of all forms of close imitation, so as not to 'fall into the clichés found in every book of music'.⁵³ There is a striking parallel here to the history of imitative polyphony in sixteenth-century England. According to the narrative established by Joseph Kerman in 'Tallis, Byrd, and the Art of Imitation', it was William Byrd whose intense musical subjectivity liberated imitative writing from the rigid schemes of earlier English composers, in favour of structures based on flexible contour imitation and motivated by text expression.⁵⁴ Yet Gibbons's early seventeenth-century music contains much which is patterned as strictly as the sixteenth-century *fuga* of Tallis, Parsley, and other composers of fifty years previous. Indeed, Modern critics who praise Byrd's counterpoint have sometimes been critical of Gibbons for precisely this reason. O. W. Neighbour, for example, writes critically about Gibbons's use of scalar patterns in the second five-part In Nomine:

predetermined frameworks [...] inhibit [Gibbons's] sense of purpose, and he tends to fill them in with elaborate patterning which, however skilful, can never entirely disguise the fact. Even so, the

⁵¹Fröbe, 'Satzmodelle', 17.

⁵²Fröbe, 'Satzmodelle', 32; Butler, 'The Fantasia as Musical Image', 606–7.

⁵³Gioseffo Zarlino, *The Art of Counterpoint*, trans. Guy A. Marco and Claude V. Palisca (Yale University Press, 1968), 127–128.

⁵⁴Joseph Kerman, 'Byrd, Tallis, and the art of imitation', in *Write all these down: essays on music*, (Berkeley, 1994), 90–105; originally published in *Aspects of Medieval and Renaissance music: a birthday offering to Gustave Reese*, ed. J. LaRue et al. (New York, 1966), 519–37.

manner itself can impress. The dissonant syncopations and the long stride of the scalar sequences in no. 2, for instance, at least cover the ground effectively.⁵⁵

Whether one finds Gibbons's extended sequences thrilling or banal might be, to some extent, a matter of personal taste. Gibbons's use of patterning as a generative principle is historically significant, however, since it shows him taking part in a broader seventeenth-century shift in ideas of counterpoint. Gibbons is far from alone in this interest, and similar passages may be found in the music of Thomas Lupo, John Coprario, William White, and other contemporaries. Gibbons remains unusual, however, in the intensity of his concentration on the possibilities of such simple forms of counterpoint. In this context, Grimshaw's comment about Byrd's unusual applications of standard *fuga* subjects in his early vocal works could equally well be applied to Gibbons:

[...] even if not actually introducing anything conceptually novel, one senses a composer pushing an idea to its limit, almost obsessed, it would seem, with the overriding aim of achieving maximum compression.⁵⁶

In this respect, although Gibbons's and Byrd's musical interests differ substantially, their approaches to counterpoint exhibit a commonality of intellectual purpose.

The apparent renewal of interest in patterned counterpoint around the turn of the seventeenth century coincides historically with several more widely-recognised changes in musical style. Following this line of reasoning, Folker Fröbe argues that the thematic use of sequences derived from counterpoint patterns is central to the stylistic changes of the early Baroque. According to this view, the harmonic style of the later Baroque depends less on novel conceptions of structure and dissonance than it does on an interest in thematising the counterpoint patterns inherited from the earlier sixteenth-century:

⁵⁵O. W. Neighbour, 'Orlando Gibbons (1583–1625): The Consort Music', *Early Music* 11 (1983), 356.

⁵⁶Julian Grimshaw, 'Fuga in early Byrd', *Early Music*, 37 (2009), 257–8.

The conventional solidification, diminutive reshaping, and transformation of the foundational models of the 'stile antico' proved to be formative for the development of musical language in the following three centuries. The 'forward-looking' works of Monteverdi are not necessarily his operas and experimental-theatrical madrigals, but rather those *a cappella* vocal works which still stand in the *prima prattica* tradition, whose novelty consists of the unfolding of sequential surfaces and in the conscious deviation from the *varietas*-principle of classic vocal polyphony.

This evolutionary renewal was scarcely reflected in contemporary musical discourse: the decidedly 'modern' stylistic devices of recitative-like monody and affective dissonance handling, which as stylistically specific mannerisms soon became obsolete, stood too prominently in the foreground.⁵⁷

Fröbe's examples of sequential writing based on alternating thirds and fourths in Monteverdi's sacred vocal music, from the 'Dixit Dominus' of the vespers and the 'Laudate pueri' of the *Missa et psalmi*, are strikingly similar to many of Gibbons's passages based on the same idea. Another similar example could also be cited from Italian instrumental music of the same period: Salamone Rossi's 1623 *Sonata Prima, detta la Moderna* features the same pattern prominently in its closing bars (Example 1.27), which once again show the close relationship between counterpoint patterns and more familiar harmonic sequences. From b. 41 to b. 44, the bass of Rossi's sonata progresses by fourths and fifths, beginning on C and passing through G and D to A; it then unwinds back to C through a pattern of falling fourths and rising thirds, with the two treble parts in stretto imitation. A shorter reprise of the same pattern in bb. 49–51 precedes the final D cadence. This alternation of sequences moving in opposing

⁵⁷ 'Die konventionelle Verfestigung, diminutive Überformung und Transformation der Basismodelle des ›stile antico‹ erwiesen sich als prägend für die musiksprachliche Entwicklung der folgenden drei Jahrhunderte. Die ›zukunftsträchtigen‹ Werke Monteverdis sind dabei nicht zwangsläufig seine Opern und experimentell-theatralischen Madrigale, sondern gerade auch jene noch in der Tradition der ›prima prattica‹ stehenden Vokalwerke ›da cappella‹, deren Neuartigkeit in der Entfaltung sequenzieller Flächen und in der bewussten Abkehr vom Varietas-Prinzip der ›klassischen‹ Vokalpolyphonie besteht.

Reflektiert wurde diese evolutionäre Erneuerung im zeitgenössischen Diskurs kaum: Zu sehr standen die dezidiert ›modernen‹ Stilmittel der rezitativen Monodie und der affektiven Dissonanzenbehandlung (von denen viele als stilgebundene Manieren bald veralteten) im Vordergrund.' Fröbe, 'Satzmodelle', 14. [My translation.]

directions resembles in structure the conclusion of Gibbons's *Fantazia of foure parts* (bb. 64–71 of Example 1.20), where sequences of falling thirds alternate with chordal declamations defined by bass motion in fifths.

The pattern of thirds and fourths on which Gibbons draws so frequently has one of the longest histories of any musical 'topic' or commonplace. Robert O. Gjerdingen's study of *partimento* practice documents its persistence well into the eighteenth century, including appearances in Werckmeister's *Harmonologia* of 1706, in Clérambault motets from the 1730s, and in a 1774 counterpoint treatise by Padre Martini.⁵⁸ Gjerdingen argues that this pattern is typical of many building-blocks of eighteenth-century *galant* style, which derive historically from 'discant-tenor frameworks transformed first into melody-bass frameworks and then adapted to stereotypical harmonic-contrapuntal sequences.'⁵⁹ Examples in eighteenth-century music are plentiful. Fröbe argues, in particular, that its chains of ascending or descending thirds acquired a connotation of *stile antico* seriousness, citing the final chorus from Handel's *Messiah*:

As a signifier of the hallowed sphere of the 'stile antico', this model – transformed into a 'topos' – had a long-lasting effect. In the final 'Amen' chorus of the *Messiah*, Handel leads both falling and rising forms into a late, grand apotheosis. Handel's late-Baroque invocation of the 'stile antico' shows itself to be a distillation of the form: in almost no composition of the sixteenth or early seventeenth century is this central model presented in such a pure form. Descendants of this model can be found in the high-Baroque forms of the circle-of-fifths sequence, which emerges to some extent from patterns of *tiratas* in thirds or tenths.⁶⁰

⁵⁸Robert O. Gjerdingen, 'Partimento, Que me Veux-tu?', *Journal of Music Theory* 51 (2007), 95, 99, 103.

⁵⁹*Ibid.*, 112.

⁶⁰'Als Schlüsselsignal für die weihevollen Sphäre des ›stile antico‹ wirkte das (somit zum Topos gewordene) Modell in dieser Gestalt lange nach. Im Schlusschor (»Amen«) des *Messiah* führt Händel es (fallend wie steigend) in eine späte, große Apotheose (T. 42ff.). Händels spätbarocke Beschwörung des ›stile antico‹ erweist sich als Destillat: In wohl kaum einer Komposition des 16. oder frühen 17. Jahrhunderts ist dieses zentrale Modell in solcher Reinkultur dargestellt worden. Nachfahren findet die Faktur in hochbarocken Formen der Quintfallsequenz, die sich aus fortlaufenden Tiraten in Terzen bzw. Dezimenkoppeln gewissermaßen herauschälen.' Fröbe, 'Satzmodelle', 39. [My translation.]

40 41 42 43 44 45 46

47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54

3rd

4th, (3rd)

4th, (3rd)

cadence

4th, 3rd

cadence

Example 1.27: Patterns of thirds and fourths in the conclusion of Salamone Rossi's *Sonata prima, detta la Moderna* (1623)

This voice-leading structure is not limited to the topical representation of the *stile antico*, however, but appears across stylistic registers. In another example from Handel, the ‘Lucky Omens’ chorus from *Semele* (1743), homophonic statements by the choir alternate with quasi-imitative passages such as Example 1.28, whose chains of falling thirds are separated by falling fourths combined with occasional sixths or seconds.

Other eighteenth-century examples also show structural resemblances to Gibbons’s uses of patterned writing. Example 1.29 shows how Telemann uses this pattern as transitional material to connect fugal entrances in the opening of a movement in a Concerto for Flute, Oboe, Violin and Continuo (TWV 43:a3). As in Gibbons’s keyboard fantasias, the transitions separating Telemann’s fugal entrances are constructed from chains of rising thirds and falling fourths, first in two voices (bb. 3–4), later in three (bb. 5–7); compare Example 1.24 and Example 1.22. Like the transitions in Gibbons’s *Parthenia* fantasia, Telemann’s patterned sequences spin out the intervallic and motivic content of a preceding melodic idea: in this case, not the fugal subject itself, but the first bar of the accompanying continuo part. The particular ornamental figures that decorate the falling fourths and rising thirds also happen to be identical to those Gibbons employs in the fourth section of the *Parthenia* fantasia (Example 1.19). Of course, the probability of Telemann knowing anything of Gibbons’s music is scant to nonexistent: the example illustrates, however, a particular continuity of musical language from the early seventeenth century into the eighteenth.

A striking late example of the persistence of these counterpoint models in compositional thought comes from the last movement of Beethoven’s piano sonata op. 110 (1821). The central section of this movement is a three-voice fugue, divided by an intervening *arioso* section into two sections whose subjects are related by inversion. The first subject is constructed almost entirely from rising fourths and falling thirds in alternation (Example 1.30), the second from falling fourths and rising thirds (Example 1.31). Like the chains of thirds in

13 14 15 16

and suc - cess shall crown your loves and suc - cess shall crown your loves and suc - cess shall crown your loves and suc - cess shall crown your loves

cadence 3rd

Example 1.28: Quasi-imitative counterpoint based on chains of descending thirds in the 'Lucky Omens' chorus from Handel's *Semele*

The musical score is divided into two systems, each containing six staves. The first system illustrates a transition from a rising third to a falling fourth. The second system illustrates a transition from a falling fourth to a rising third. The score is written in 4/4 time and features various counterpoint patterns. Brackets labeled 'subject' indicate specific melodic lines. The notation includes treble and bass clefs, key signatures with one sharp (F#), and various note values and rests.

Example 1.29: Transitions constructed from rising thirds and falling fourths in the opening exposition of a Telemann quartet, TWV 43:a3 mvt. II.

Handel's *Messiah* chorus, these subjects have the appearance of a 'pure', unornamented distillation of a pattern which more typically appears in ornamented form in sixteenth- and seventeenth-century music. Alfred Brendel points out that subject's ambitus is limited to the six notes of the hexachord, another likely allusion to the *stile antico* topic.⁶¹ Beethoven's imitative treatment of this subject also resembles a sixteenth- or seventeenth-century counterpoint pattern in its voice-leading, although the resemblance is disguised by extensive ornamentation: see bb. 37–40 of Example 1.30 and bb. 144–145 and 148–150 of Example 1.31. There is even a loose foreshadowing of this contrapuntal skeleton in the contour of the outer parts at the opening of the sonata's first movement (Example 1.32). The thematic connection between the opening melody and the later fugal subject is clear; the resemblance between the contrary motion of the outer parts and the later fugal sections is less literal, but still striking.

In summary, counterpoint patterns represent an important route by which older counterpoint practices were transformed into normative harmonic progressions, and Gibbons's instrumental music shows him to be acutely interested in the possibilities of this new approach. Furthermore, this aspect of the 'new' style can be seen to depend as much on instrumental music as on vocal, since during the period when patterned writing was out of favour with composers of vocal music, they were preserved in the teaching of improvised counterpoint for instruments.⁶² As Fröbe puts it,

It seems as if, in the last decades of the sixteenth century, these counterpoint models must have 'hibernated' in the realm of instrumental music, in order to re-emerge in diminished form, filled out with thirds, as a standard part of compositional technique in the early seventeenth century.⁶³

⁶¹ Alfred Brendel, *Music Sounded Out* (London: Robson, 1990), 94–95.

⁶² Fröbe, 'Satzmodelle', 32.

⁶³ 'Es scheint, als hätten diese Modelle die letzten Jahrzehnte des 16. Jahrhunderts in der Instrumentalmusik gewissermaßen ›überwintert‹, um in diminuierter und ›ausgeterzter‹ Form mit dem frühen 17. Jahrhundert wieder zum satztechnischen Standardrepertoire zu gehören.' Fröbe, 'Satzmodelle', 32. [My translation.]

Allegro ma non troppo
Fuga

27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34

35 36 37 38 39 40 41

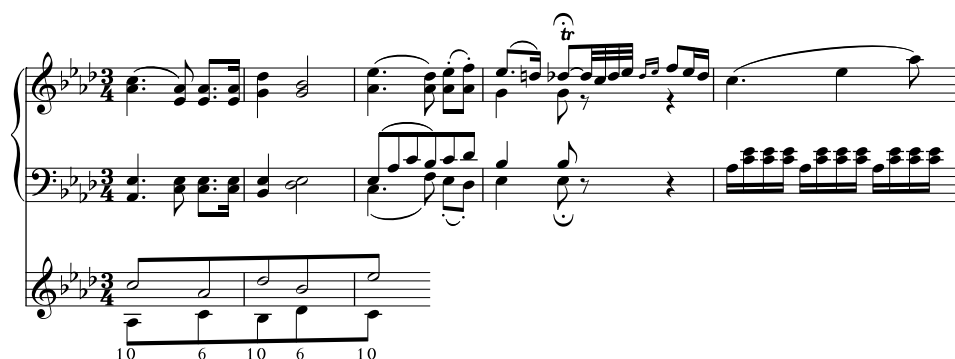
Example 1.30: The first *Fuga* section from Beethoven's piano sonata op. 110, mvt. II, featuring a *stile antico*-style subject in rising fourths and falling thirds.

L'istesso tempo della Fuga poi a poi di nuovo vivente
137 138 139 140 141 142 143 144

L'inversione della Fuga. Die Umkehrung der Fuga

145 146 147 148 149 150 151 152

Example 1.31: The second fugal section from Beethoven's piano sonata op. 110, mvt. II, based on the inversion of the earlier fugal subject.



Example 1.32: Opening bars of Beethoven, Piano Sonata op. 110, mvt. I, showing resemblance to the contrapuntal skeleton of the later fugal sections.

If this hypothesis is accurate, the fantasias and *In Nomines* of Gibbons's generation might seem much closer to the mainstream of seventeenth-century musical history than is currently believed.

Chapter 2

Maintaining a ‘fuge’

2.1 Introduction

Imitation is a fundamental of sixteenth- and seventeenth-century composition, and a defining feature of the English fantasia genre. The use of imitative style elevates the fantasia above ‘lower’ instrumental genres like dance music by asserting its continuity with the older and more prestigious tradition of sacred vocal music. Historical and modern authors alike recognise this connection between imitative style and prestige or seriousness. Morley famously placed the fantasia above all other untexted music in his hierarchy of genres, stating that its focus on the exploration of imitative possibilities allows the composer to demonstrate more ‘art’ than in ‘any other musicke’ – notably not excluding music with a text:

The most principall and chieftest kind of musicke which is made without a dittie is the fantasie, that is, when a musician taketh a point at his pleasure, and wresteth and turneth it as he list, making either much or little of it according as shall seeme best in his own conceit. In this may more art be showne then in any other musicke, because the composer is tide to nothing but that he may adde, deminish, and alter at his pleasure.¹

Modern commentators on English instrumental music likewise regard imitative writing as a token of seriousness and skill, drawing parallels between the English fantasia and a traditionally accepted high point of imitative writing, the late

¹Morley, 180–181; Morley, ed. Harman, 296.

Baroque fugue as perfected by Bach. Margaret Glyn was one of the first to make this comparison by asserting that '[the] Fantasy form has become the fugue'.² More recently, John Caldwell also equates fantasia and fugue when he acclaims Gibbons as the 'great master of fugue' of his period.³

The rhetorical move of identifying the fantasia with the fugue as a means of praising the former, however, creates other problems of interpretation. Although both genres are esteemed in part for their perceived intellectual challenge and difficulty of execution, approaching the fantasia in search of the same kind of contrapuntal devices exploited in the fugue is only seldom fruitful: one index of the distance that separates the two genres is that no Gibbons fantasia concentrates on a single subject throughout, as is typical for later fugues. The tendency to regard fugue as a form rather than a genre or technique also complicates many modern attempts to make sense of the apparently bewildering variety of the English fantasia.⁴ Caldwell, for instance, speaks of the fantasia 'form', but notes that 'nomenclature and form do not always correspond' in music of the early seventeenth century, and that 'almost any kind of piece based on newly-invented material [...] could be called a "fantasia"'.⁵ This statement simultaneously implies that the fantasia ought to be definable as a 'form', while conceding that a definition in these terms is inadequate to capture the diversity of the actual repertoire.

The fantasia's resistance to definition in formal terms suggests that more precise analytical tools are needed to capture the nuances of its imitative techniques. One common feature of fantasia and fugue is the diversity of techniques which both genres conceal under the blanket term of 'imitation', which is less a single technique than a group of related methods differing considerably in

²Margaret Glyn, *Elizabethan Virginal Music and its Composers*, 2nd. ed. (London: W. Reeves, 1934), 29.

³Caldwell, *English Keyboard Music*, 86.

⁴On the distinction between fugue as form and genre, see Dreyfus, *Bach and the Patterns of Invention*, 135–44, and Alan Howard, 'Purcell and the Poetics of Artifice: Compositional Strategies in the Fantasias and Sonatas', Ph.D. diss. (King's College London, 2006), 76–7 and 92–3.

⁵Caldwell, *English Keyboard Music*, 66–7.

technical difficulty and musical effect. In the case of Bach's fugal writing, this diversity of contrapuntal manners has been recognised at least since the writings of D. F. Tovey. Bach's array of methods and their significance are explored in depth in Laurence Dreyfus's *Bach and the Patterns of Invention*.⁶ By contrast, as Willi Apel noted, many writers have had trouble finding adequate descriptions for the procedures and formal devices of fantasia writing, since 'the ideas are frequently "wrested and turned" in a manner for which no adequate terminology exists'.⁷ Even in the more extensively-studied realm of Renaissance vocal music, Peter Schubert has noted recently that 'the point of imitation [...] remains inadequately described'.⁸ It is worthwhile, then, to see what can be uncovered about the composition of fantasia-style imitative counterpoint through the examination both of theoretical sources and real music.

The two English writers on music from this period with the most to say about imitation are Thomas Morley and John Coprario, but their discussions have little in common. Morley says more about the note-level details of composing a subject which will produce acceptable imitative combinations: he supplies, for instance, the rules for composing in close stretto discussed in the previous chapter. By contrast, Coprario concentrates on the larger-scale construction of a complete point of imitation through the repetition of two-voice contrapuntal cells or modules. In rhetorical terms, one might say that Morley concentrates more on the 'invention' of imitative ideas and Coprario on their 'disposition'.⁹ Comparing Coprario's imitative approach in his consort fantasies to that of Gibbons reveals a difference of compositional approaches analogous to the difference between Coprario's and Morley's theory: where Coprario conceives of imitation principally in terms of a fixed repertoire of imitative schemes which

⁶Dreyfus, *Bach and the Patterns of Invention*, 27.

⁷Apel, *History of Keyboard Music*, 209.

⁸Peter Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina's First Book of Four-Voice Motets', *Journal of the American Musicological Society* 60 (2007), 483–556.

⁹On the distinction between 'invention' and 'disposition', see Dreyfus, *Bach and the Patterns of Invention*, 10.

may be abstracted away from their particular melodic subjects, Gibbons’s fantasias display considerably more variety in the types of imitation used and the interaction between imitative structure and subject material.

2.2 Imitative invention in Morley’s *Introduction*

Morley introduces the topic of imitation early on in the *Introduction*, immediately following the definitions of counterpoint and cadences. Imitation is recommended on the grounds that it produces ‘formality’ in the relationship between the given plainsong and the added descant. The intended meaning of ‘formality’, however, is ambiguous. In other passages from Morley’s book, it signifies nothing more than adherence to the basic rules of counterpoint: the avoidance of consecutive perfect intervals, large melodic leaps, and so on. In the present context, however, ‘formality’ clearly means more than simple correctness, implying a part with a genuine shape, or form, rather than a formless succession of consonances:

in descanting you must not onelie seeke true cordes, but formalitie also: that is, to make your descant carrie some forme of relation to the plainesong¹⁰

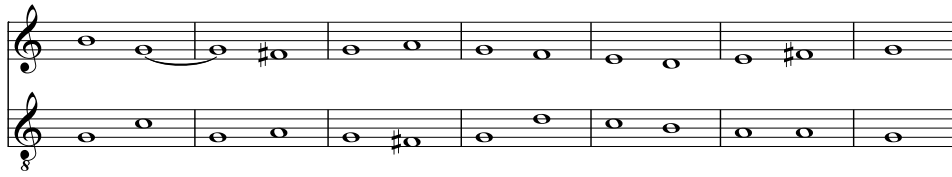
Morley’s first example of formality (Example 2.1) shows that it need not be imitative in any strict sense: the only discernible ‘relation’ between the two parts of this example is their roughly contrary contours. Morley goes on to say, however, that imitation – ‘singing with a point or Fuge’ – is preferred as a means of creating formality:

to instruct you somewhat more in formalitie, the chiefest point in it is singing with a point or Fuge.¹¹

Imitative technique, then, is not primarily an end in itself for Morley, but a means toward a more general aesthetic goal.

¹⁰Morley, 76; Morley, ed. Harman, 149.

¹¹Ibid.



Example 2.1: ‘Formality’ without imitation, from Morley

Morley's term 'fuge' encompasses a similar range of musical techniques to 'imitation' in modern English. Unlike Zarlino, for example, Morley makes no careful distinction between exact and flexible imitation, but uses the terms 'fuge' and 'point' nearly interchangeably for any technique less strict than canon.¹²

We call that a Fuge, when one part beginneth and the other singeth the same, for some number of notes (which the first did sing)¹³

Depending on context, ‘fuge’ may signify either the technique of imitation, or the subject of an imitative section; ‘point’ refers always to the subject. When Morley wishes to refer specifically to the technique of singing or writing in imitation, he writes of ‘maintaining a point’ or, more evocatively, of ‘driving a point through’, as in the following three quotations:

[...] here is a waie which although it do not driue the point quite through as yours did, yet I thinke it formall.¹⁴

[...] choose such points as may be easilie driuen thorough to the ende, without wresting, changing of notes, or pointes in harsh cords¹⁵

[...] no point is long staid vpon, but once or twice driuen through
all the partes ¹⁶

¹²Zarlino's more precise taxonomy of imitation is described in Paul Mark Walker, *Theories of Fugue from the Age of Josquin to the Age of Bach* (Rochester Press, 2000), 9–15. See also Howard, 'Purcell and the Poetics of Artifice', 93.

¹³Morley, 76; Morley, ed. Harman, 149. Harman's edition of the *Introduction* replaces 'fuge' with 'imitation' throughout, reflecting Morley's comparatively loose definition of 'fuge', and avoiding the potential for confusion between 'fuge', the sixteenth-century technique, and 'fugue', the later genre. See Morley, ed. Harman, 144, n. 2.

¹⁴Morley, 77; Morley, ed. Harman, 151.

¹⁵Morley, 85; Morley, ed. Harman, 163.

¹⁶Morley, 172; Morley, ed. Harman, 282.

The relationship between successive entrances of a 'point' or 'fuge' may be relatively loose, requiring only that one part sings roughly the same melody as another for 'some number of notes', and allowing for the adjustment of melodic intervals as necessary:

if it were in Canon, we might not rise one note higher, nor descende one note lower then the plainsong did: but in Fuges wee are not so straightlie bounde.¹⁷

The practice to which Morley refers, whereby intervals in the following part are altered where convenient, corresponds to what Edward Lowinsky called 'contour imitation', and John Milsom refers to as 'flexed' *fuga*.¹⁸

Morley's text evinces an ambiguous relationship to the imitative artifice central to the English fantasia. In at least one place in the text, the Master's correction of a student's exercise suggests that a more extensive imitative relationship between parts is to be preferred over a shorter one. In this context, Morley uses the term 'report' to describe the extent of an imitative relationship, writing that the two parts 'keep report' for a certain number of notes:

take the descant of your own waie, which was in the eleuenth, or fourth aboue and sing it as you did begin (but in the fift belowe vnder the plainesong) and it will in a manner go through to the end, whereas yours did keepe report but for fiue notes¹⁹

Morley has little praise, however, for imitation elaborated for its own sake, and expresses some impatience with his fellow English composers, whom he seems to regard as overly fascinated with contrapuntal experimentation. In contrast to the English enthusiasm for imitative formality, Morley praises the lighter Italian style's use of only a few choice combinations:

¹⁷Morley, 77; Morley, ed. Harman, 151.

¹⁸Milsom, 'Crecquillon, Clemens, and Four-Voiced *Fuga*', 298, n. 20.

¹⁹Morley, 77; Morley, ed. Harman, 151. The word 'report' does not otherwise appear in Morley's text, but it is echoed in Charles Butler's *Principles of Musik*: 'Reporte is the Iterating or mainteining of a Point in the like motion [...] the Principal and Replie both Ascending, or bothe Descending.' Butler contrasts 'reports' with 'reverts', in which the point is melodically inverted: 'Revert is the Iterating of a Point in contrari Motion [...] the Replie moving *per Thesin*, if the Principal Ascend, and *per Arsin*, if the Principal descend.' See Butler, *Principles of Musik*, 72.

the Italians and other strangers are greatlie to be commended, who taking any point in hand, wil not stand long vpon it, but wil take the best of it and so away to another, whereas by the contrarie, we are so tedious that of one point wee will make as much as may serue for a whole song²⁰

This apparent dislike for the exhaustive use of imitation in a finished composition does not, however, imply a blanket opposition to imitative artifice. When the Master gives Philomathes the task of composing a 'lesson' of five parts, he entreats him not to be satisfied with mere correctness, but to take pains over the 'artificial' or artful treatment of the imitations:

When he hath once set downe a point, though it be right, yet ought hee not to rest there, but should rather looke more earnestly how hee may bring it more artificially about. [...] when he hath discretion to decerne the goodnesse of one point aboue another, hee will take the best and leaue the worst.²¹

Although Morley provides no further details about how exactly a composer might 'looke more earnestly' into the imitative potential of a given subject, the image of a composer examining various possible imitative relationships in search of the best combinations suggests a pre-compositional process of contrapuntal 'research', such as those which Laurence Dreyfus and Alan Howard have described in the compositional processes of J. S. Bach and Henry Purcell, respectively.²² Morley prefers that this kind of research be employed as 'art to conceal art', selecting only the best combinations for the final composition, but other composers clearly employed similar processes in pursuit of different aesthetic aims.

A third method Morley describes for composing imitation differs both from the rule for stretto canon, and from the recommendation to research the imitative possibilities of a given 'point'. This is a method for composing a canon or 'catch', a simple canon in which any number of parts follow each other at

²⁰Morley, 162; Morley, ed. Harman, 270–1.

²¹Ibid.

²²See Dreyfus, *Bach and the Patterns of Invention*, 151, and Howard, 'Purcell and the Poetics of Artifice', 113–114.

the unison at a constant temporal distance. Although to a naive listener the finished product of such a process might seem very complex, Morley writes that the process of its construction is fairly simple:

There be also some compositions which at the first sight will seeme very hard to bee done, yet hauing the rules of the composition of them deliuered vnto you, they wil seeme very easie to be made²³

Creating a single part which combines with multiple copies of itself in continual imitation may seem difficult to the inexperienced, but is not hard for any composer capable of composing in multiple parts. All that has to be done is to compose a short passage in any number of parts, and then construct the canonic subject by extracting each of the parts and setting these fragments one after another, as shown in Example 2.2:

In this maner [...] be the catches made, making how many parts you list, and setting then all after one thus²⁴

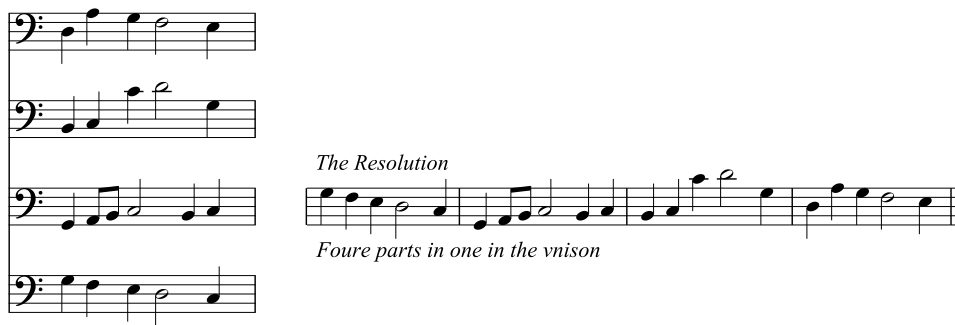
The successive entrances of the parts in the catch will then re-construct the originally-composed four-part phrase. The performance of such a catch involves a kind of illusion, based on the fact that the audience hears the musical events in the opposite order from the way in which they were composed: the smooth combination of the successive entrances into a four-part texture might seem magical, but it works only because the four-part version has been worked out as the first step of the process.

Morley’s method for composing a ‘catch’ resembles the concept of ‘unpacking the box’ which Peter Schubert locates in Joachim Burmeister’s *Musica Poetica* of 1606, and defines as ‘first composing a four-part progression and then extracting voices to be sounded imitatively.’²⁵ This type of imitative procedure is different in kind from the rule for stretto canons discussed in the

²³Morley, 175; Morley, ed. Harman, 287.

²⁴Morley, 176; Morley, ed. Harman, 289.

²⁵Massimiliano Guido and Peter Schubert, ‘Unpacking the Box in Frescobaldi’s *Ricercari* of 1615’, *Music Theory Online* 20 (2014), ¶1.



Example 2.2: Morley’s method for composing a ‘catch’

previous chapter. In stretto imitation, because the usable melodic shapes are so strictly limited, it is possible to compose a substantial subject without explicitly checking the note-to-note correctness of the counterpoint. However, once the subject is composed, the harmonic content of its imitative combinations is largely determined. In an imitative passage constructed by ‘unpacking the box’, by contrast, the separation of entrances in time allows greater freedom of melodic contour and harmonic content, but the combination of all the voices has to be composed in advance in order for its unfolding to work.

2.3 Imitative disposition in Coprario’s *Rules how to Compose* and four-part fantasies

In sharp contrast to Morley, Coprario’s discussion of ‘fuge’ in the *Rules how to Compose* says almost nothing about the note-to-note details of constructing an imitative subject. Coprario is concerned, instead, with describing the larger-scale construction of imitative passages. His text describes four different imitative designs, or ways of ‘maintaining a fuge’. These four designs differ in the use of overlapping or separated entrances, the number of entrances per part, and the choice of one or two melodic subjects, but with one exception they share a common constructive principle: the repetition of a single two-voice contrapuntal combination, first in one pair and then in another pair of voices. These methods are not concerned with the imitative possibilities of a single subject, then, but with the construction of longer passages through the

repetition of a two-voice cell conceived as a unit. Recent musicological studies of polyphonic composition have referred to these contrapuntal building blocks variously as 'cells', 'interlocks', and 'modules', and it is worth a brief digression here to clarify the relationships between these overlapping but distinct concepts.

Jessie Ann Owens defines a 'module' quite broadly as 'a contrapuntal relationship that can be repeated'.²⁶ Although repeatable combinations of three or more voices are possible, most modules – including all those in Coprario's examples in the *Rules* – are formed by only two voices. Peter Schubert's study of Palestrina's four-voice motets refines Owens's definition in two respects, focusing principally on two-voice modules. First, Schubert defines the module to encompass 'only that part of the duo in which two voices sound together'. Consequently, the portion of the subject which sounds in the leading part before the following part enters is excluded from the module. Second, where Owens's definition states only that a module 'can be repeated', Schubert classes as modules only those contrapuntal combinations which are, in fact, repeated within the course of an imitative section.²⁷ The requirement that a contrapuntal segment must be repeated to qualify as a module is also analogous to Dreyfus's initial definition of compositional 'inventions' as 'those functional segments that appear repeatedly during the course of the work', although the concept of an 'invention' in general embraces more distinct types of musical idea than the contrapuntal module.²⁸

Neither Owens's nor Schubert's definition of 'module' requires an imitative relationship between the two voices. In this respect, the concept of 'module' differs crucially from that of an 'interlock', defined by John Milsom as 'the situation that arises when two or more statements of a subject are partially

²⁶Jessie Ann Owens, *Composers at Work* (Oxford University Press, 1997), 251, quoted in Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 484.

²⁷Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 487.

²⁸Dreyfus, *Bach and the Patterns of Invention*, 10.

superimposed upon one another polyphonically'.²⁹ Neither concept subsumes the other: not all modules are created by interlocks, since a repeated module may equally well consist of two or more independent melodies composed together in counterpoint. Nor do all interlocks produce modules, since an interlock only constitutes a module if it is repeated at least once in the finished composition. Moreover, only the portion of the interlock where the two voices overlap would properly be considered to form the module, in Schubert's sense. Julian Grimshaw suggests the useful term 'interface' to refer to this overlapping portion of an interlock, describing it as 'the "business" part of the imitative process'.³⁰ The interface of an interlock represents a module if it is repeated at least once in the finished composition.

The emphasis on repetition in Schubert's definition of 'module' reflects the role that it plays in analyses focusing on larger-scale form. By identifying the repeated modules in Palestrina's four-part motets, Schubert is able to discern structures such as arch forms, palindromes, and 'heightening', where a repeated passage is given increased intensity at its second appearance through one of a variety of techniques. For the purpose of analysing these larger forms, Schubert writes, the distinction between imitative and non-imitative modules is irrelevant:

Imitative points only differ from nonimitative ones in that a special restriction is applied to the melodies: as long as the imitation lasts, every note of the leading voice is to be found sometime later in the following voice (usually transposed). Viewed this way, an imitative duo is merely a special case of a nonimitative contrapuntal combination, and, when it comes to modules, the difference is insignificant.³¹

Modular analysis, then, looks outward from note-level details toward the larger-scale structures created by (possibly varied) repetition. By contrast, an analysis

²⁹Milsom, 'Crecquillon, Clemens, and Four-Voiced *Fuga*', 344.

³⁰Julian Grimshaw, 'Imitative Counterpoint in Sixteenth-Century English Music', D.Phil. thesis, University of Oxford, 2000, 18–19.

³¹*Ibid.* 495.

in terms of interlocks, as exemplified in Milsom's studies, lays more stress on the combinatorial properties of subjects in imitation. Such analyses often consider all the interlocks permitted by a given subject with respect to both time and pitch interval, whether they are used only once, repeatedly, or not at all in the final composition. Returning to the rhetorical analogy, modular analysis might be said to focus on disposition, while the analysis of interlocks also raises questions of invention.

Considering repeated modules rather than individual subjects as the basic unit of analysis has several advantages. First, the use of repeated modules as a structural basis evidently corresponds directly to the compositional practices of many composers; as detailed below, the evidence of Coprario's *Rules* and his four-part fantasias clearly demonstrate that the repetition of two-voice modules is central to his approach to imitative composition in this genre. Second, by treating imitative and non-imitative modules on the same footing, modular analysis enables the identification of structural similarities between points of imitation based on the two types of module. Finally, Schubert's strict definition for the boundary of a module permits useful distinctions which are more difficult to make using an approach focused on individual subjects. The end of a subject or an imitative duo is often difficult to define unambiguously when it is repeated only partially at subsequent appearances, or when two parts begin in an imitative relationship but then diverge to conclude with different figures. In these cases, the requirement that a module be repeated provides a well-defined means of distinguishing the contrapuntal combinations that play a structural role from those that are opportunistic or even fortuitous.

Some types of imitative writing, however, are captured more fully than others by an analysis of their repeated modules. Only some of the points of imitation in Gibbons's and Coprario's three- and four-part consort fantasias, for instance, are worked out at sufficient length to create the kind of larger-scale forms which Schubert describes in Palestrina's motets. Where these are absent, any imitative artifice in a passage must be sought on a smaller scale than that

of overall form. In particular, imitative subjects which permit multiple interlocks clearly represent the result of significant compositional effort, whether or not these imitative relationships are presented more than once in the finished composition. Although the analyses in the remainder of this chapter largely focus on the modular aspects of imitative construction, I will also attempt an analysis of the invention of the interlocks that make up these modules when this seems to represent a significant aspect of the compositional artifice. In addition, I argue that a more intensive consideration of imitative invention as well as disposition is one characteristic distinguishing Gibbons's approach to imitative counterpoint from Coprario's.

Imitative schemata in the *Rules how to Compose*

The four ways of 'maintaining a fuge' illustrated in Coprario's *Rules how to Compose* resemble the imitative designs which Schubert describes as 'presentation types': standard forms or schemata for constructing an imitative section through the repetition of two-voice modules.³² In the order in which Coprario presents them, the four 'ways' given in the *Rules* can be summarised as follows: (1) closely interlocked imitation of a single subject in paired entrances, with one entrance per part; (2) a 'double exposition' of a single subject, first in closely interlocked entrances, then more widely separated; (3) adjacent entrances of a single subject without significant overlap, one entrance per part; and (4) repetition of two independent subjects in combination. All except type (3) are constructed from repeated modules. Types (1) and (4) are the most straightforward: each one contains four entrances produced by two presentations of a single two-voice module, unaltered at its second appearance except for octave transposition and the addition of free voices. Type (1) corresponds to Schubert's 'imitative duo' (*ID*), in which the repeated module is a two-voice imitative cell based on a single melodic idea, and type (4) corresponds to Schubert's 'non-imitative duo' (*NIm*), in which the repeated module is freely

³²Ibid. 489.

composed. Type (2) is a more complex compound form, whose eight entrances contain modules at multiple time intervals (*MTI*) as well as what Schubert calls 'semi-imitative' modules (*Sim*), in which a segment of an imitative interlock is repeated without its original surrounding context. Only type (3) lacks any repeated modules, since its successive entrances overlap by at most a single note, and do not form any significant repeated contrapuntal combinations. Schubert classifies this type of writing as 'free imitation' (*FI*).³³ Despite the absence of a repeated module in his example of this type, Coprario still arranges its four entrances in two pairs, in which the time and pitch relationship between the first and second entrances is repeated by the third and fourth. In this case, the symmetry of modular construction clearly influenced Coprario's imitative layout even in the absence of an actual repeated module.

As Caroline Cunningham noted in a 1994 article, the imitative methods illustrated in the *Rules how to Compose* correspond closely to Coprario's own practice in his four-part fantasias for viols.³⁴ The terminology of modules and presentation types allows a more detailed examination of this correspondence. Table 2.1 summarises the imitative structures of the opening sections of Coprario's four-part fantasias, together with the final and signature of each piece. The column headed 'Entrances' shows a rudimentary diagram of each opening point of imitation. Letters give the opening pitch of each entrance, with successive interlocking entrances enclosed in braces, {D, G}, or angle brackets, <D, G>. (Two types of brackets are necessary because the second entrance in one duo may also be the first entrance of the next duo). Two letters separated by a slash indicate flexing of initial intervals, when this goes beyond the common exchanging of fourths and fifths in a 'tonal answer'. For example, the subject of fantasia no. 1 begins with a falling and a rising fifth when it begins on D

³³All these types are defined in Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina': for imitative duos, see 495–8; non-imitative duos, 490–5; multiple time intervals, 505–510; semi-imitative modules, 511–513; free imitation, 514.

³⁴Caroline Cunningham, 'John Coprario's "Rules how to Compose" and his four-part fantasias: Theory & Practice Confronted', *Chelys* 23 (1994), 41.

(D–G–D–), but a falling and a rising fourth when it begins on G (G–D–G–), and this flexing of intervals is not indicated in the table. At its sixth entrance, however, a falling fifth from A to D is followed by a rising fourth (A–G–D–), and the subject behaves thereafter as if it had begun on G; this is indicated in the table with the notation 'A/G'.

Coprario's four-part expositions are striking in the strict regularity of number and pitch arrangement of their entrances. Without exception, each piece begins with a section containing either four or eight imitative entrances of its first subject, distributed evenly among the parts: fantasias no. 3, no. 4 and no. 7 have one entrance per part, while no. 1, no. 2, no. 5 and no. 6 have two. The first four entrances almost always begin alternately on the pitch classes of the final and the fifth above it: G and D in G-final pieces, A and E in A-final pieces, and so on.³⁵ The only exceptions are slight: fantasia no. 2 has two consecutive entrances on A, and all four opening entrances in no. 3 are on the final of C. Where there are two entrances in each voice, the second four also generally begin on the final and the fifth, although this principle is less strictly maintained.

Equally striking is the correspondence between the presentation types exemplified in Coprario's *Rules* and used in the fantasias, as summarised symbolically in the 'Layout' column of Table 2.1. The abbreviations used refer to Schubert's presentation types, with one exception: the notation (*AI*) indicates the use of alternative interlocks which do not create modules. All the presentation types exemplified in the *Rules* also appear in the opening sections of Coprario's fantasias, while types omitted from the *Rules* are mostly absent, although they are present in the works of other composers, including Gibbons. As

³⁵The numbering of Coprario's fantasias throughout this section follows Richard Charteris's editions of the three- and four-part works: John Coprario, *The Three-Part Consort Music* and *The Four-Part Consort Music*, 2nd ed. (London: Fretwork Editions, 1993). References such as 'fantasia no. 3' refer to the numbering of that piece within its particular genre (three-part or four-part), while numbers such as 'C19' are unique catalogue numbers from Charteris, *John Coprario: A Thematic Catalogue of His Music with a Biographical Introduction* (New York, 1977).

Cunningham writes, ‘the gap between theory and practice is usually assumed to be enormous, but this does not seem to be true for Coprario.’³⁶ There are two main exceptions: fantasia no. 3 has almost no repeated modules within its opening point of imitation, which concentrates exclusively on the presentation of alternative interlocks which are not repeated, and fantasia no. 6 begins with a group of entries in a periodic arrangement. The latter technique does not appear within the *Rules* and is rare within Coprario’s other fantasies, but is a favourite of Gibbons in his three-part fantasies.

Table 2.1: Keys and entrance pitches of Coprario’s four-part fantasies

	No.	Final	Sig.	Entrances	Layout
C17	1	G	b	{D, <G}, {D>, <G}, D>, A/G, D, D/C	MTI, FI
C18	2	A	-	{E, A}, A, {E, A}, E, E, A	ID, FI
C19	3	C	-	C, {C, <C}, C>	(AI), SIm
C20	4	C	-	{G, C}, {G, C}	NIm
C21	5	D	-	D, A, D, A, {D, D}, {A, A}	FI, ID
C22	6	D	-	{A, <D}, {A>, D}, {A, D}, A, A	PEn(tonal), NIm
C23	7	G	-	{G, D}, {G, D}	ID

Imitative duos

The first type of imitative structure Coprario discusses in the *Rules how to compose* corresponds to what Schubert calls the ‘imitative duo’: a single two-voice imitative cell, stated by one pair of voices and then repeated by a different pair.³⁷ In other words, the repeated module in this presentation type is generated by an imitative interlock. Coprario justifies this type of imitative structure on the basis that the entrances at the beginning of a composition should follow each other as closely as possible. Such closely-spaced entries create a better effect, possibly because they make the imitative relationship more obvious to the listener:

³⁶Ibid. 37.

³⁷Schubert, ‘Hidden Forms in Palestrina’, 495–8; Schubert, ‘Musical Commonplaces in the Renaissance’, 173.

When you have chosen your fuge, you must examine all your parts and see which of them maie beginn first, for to sooner you bring in your parts with the fuge, to more better will it shewe.³⁸

The first two entrances in the accompanying example indeed follow as closely as possible, the second part entering a fifth above the first after only one minim rest, and overlapping with it for three and a half minims (Example 2.3). The second and third entrances are separated from each other by a considerably longer rest of four minims, so there is very little overlap between them; the third and fourth entrances then duplicate the first pair of entrances nearly verbatim. In other words, this passage is constructed from a repeated imitative duo forming a module of three and a half minims in length, presented first in the upper and then in the lower pair of voices.

The analytical notation used in Example 2.3 and the following examples is based largely on that used in Schubert's Palestrina analyses. Voices which form a module are enclosed in horizontal square brackets, with one of the two melodies labelled 'i' and the other 'ii'. These labels serve mostly to distinguish the component melodies of the module when it is varied through invertible counterpoint. It is arbitrary which melody receives which label, although in imitative duos it is often convenient to denote the second voice to enter as 'melody i', since then the segment that provides melody i begins earlier in the subject as a whole than the segment that provides melody ii. Notes that lie outside a module are shown in smaller noteheads in order to highlight the repeated contrapuntal material. (As Schubert writes, 'this is not to imply that the[se] note[s] [are] unimportant [...] merely that [they] [lie] outside the module'.)³⁹ In a slight departure from Schubert's notation, the beginnings and ends of subjects are indicated here using dashed brackets. Although the end of a subject cannot always be defined precisely – and an advantage of a strictly modular analysis is that it need not be – it is sometimes useful to see how

³⁸Coprario, *Rules how to Compose*, ed. Wilson, 112;

³⁹Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 495.

[illegible]

Imitative duos of the form demonstrated in Example 2.3 were well-established in sixteenth-century polyphonic style. Joseph Kerman identifies a similar kind of structural repetition in the opening of Tallis's *Salvator Mundi*; his term 'contrapuntal unit' is roughly synonymous with 'module':

Julian Grimshaw describes the same type of layout as a ‘2 + 2 structure’, taking an example from White:

⁴¹ Grimshaw, 'Sixteenth-century English *fuga*', 64.

In each case, a single contrapuntal invention or interlock is repeated multiple times in different voice pairs, unchanged except for the free voices which are added to the second and any subsequent repetitions.

An imitative duo similar to the example in the *Rules* makes up the first point of imitation in Coprario's four-part fantasia no. 7 (Example 2.4). Its first two entrances are separated only by a minim, as in Example 2.3, but its subject is longer, and its close imitation creates a module of nine minims in length. The imitative relationship of the parts is strict throughout, with two minor exceptions. First, the initial melodic interval, a falling fifth in the leading part, is flexed into a falling fourth in the following part. (Locations of flexing such as this are shown in the analyses with vertical dotted lines.) Second, the seventh note of the subject, a minim in the leading part, is replaced by a crotchet in the following part, reducing the time interval of imitation from a minim to a crotchet.⁴² In other pieces to be considered below, such 'joints' between segments of a module are treated differently in subsequent appearances, but in the present example, the imitative duo and the resulting module are repeated unchanged in the lower two voices, accompanied by free counterpoint in the upper voices.⁴³ Because of the greater length of the subject, this fantasia opening illustrates more clearly than Example 2.3 the absence of significant overlapping between the end of the first module presentation and the beginning of the second.

Coprario says nothing in the *Rules* about how to compose a subject that will produce the kind of close imitative duo displayed in Examples 2.3 and 2.4. On the contrary, by beginning his instructions with the words 'when you have chosen your fuge', he implies that the composer should first select or compose a subject, and only then find out what imitative combinations it will

⁴²Schubert notes that rhythmic alterations like this, in which the time interval of imitation changes due to the elision or addition of rhythmic values in one of the parts, are a common technique in Lassus's duos. See Schubert, 'A Lesson from Lassus: Form in the duos of 1577', *Music Theory Spectrum* 17 (1995), 3–4.

⁴³Schubert defines 'joints' and 'splicing' in 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 492.

The musical score consists of four staves. The first staff is in treble clef with a 4/2 time signature. The second and third staves are in alto clef with a 4/2 time signature. The fourth staff is in bass clef with a 4/2 time signature. The score includes two boxed fingerings: [8 5] and [6 6 6 5 4 3 3 5 3 3 6 6]. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and dynamic markings like [5, d] and [5, d].

Example 2.4: Imitative duo construction in the opening of Coprario's four-part fantasia no. 7

allow. As Alan Howard notes, instructions of this form are also commonplace in later seventeenth-century texts such as Christopher Simpson's *Compendium of Practical Music*. Simpson advises the student to begin by writing down the entries of the chosen subject in their final pitch and time positions, forming a skeleton or 'platform' which can then be filled in using free counterpoint ('fill up the empty places with such Concords and Bindings as you think fittest').⁴⁴ Such a compositional process is implausible as a way of producing an exposition with the close imitative relationship demonstrated in Coprario's examples, since imitation at the distance of one note like this will not happen fortuitously with the majority of freely chosen or composed subjects. Rather, the choice of imitative layout, with its close relationship between successive entrances, must have influenced the melodic content of the subject. As Howard writes of one of Purcell's imitative subjects,

the exact form of the point is itself the *product* of Purcell's technique of *fugeing*, and not simply its basic material as is conventionally assumed.⁴⁵

It seems much more likely that Coprario constructed the subjects of these examples specifically to permit close interlocking, relying either on an intervallic rule like Morley's, or on the tacit knowledge of experience.

⁴⁴See Christopher Simpson, *A Compendium of Practical Musick* (London, H. Brome, 1678), 111, quoted in Howard, 'Purcell and the Poetics of Artifice', 121.

⁴⁵Howard, 'Purcell and the Poetics of Artifice', 125–6.

Non-imitative duos and ‘double fuge’

An apparently very different way of composing a point of imitation is the technique Coprario refers to as ‘double fuge’. In this type, illustrated in the *Rules* with the passage shown in Example 2.5, the repeated module is made up of two independent melodies, in contrast to the imitative interlocks of Examples 2.3 and 2.4. This corresponds to Schubert’s ‘non-imitative duo’ presentation type (*NIm*).⁴⁶ The use of a non-imitative module has obvious implications for the composition of the melodic parts: unlike the subjects of previous examples, they are not subject to the melodic constraints imposed by a close imitative relationship, but may be composed together more freely. In overall form, however, the resulting passage is closely analogous to the repeated imitative duos of preceding examples: two identical presentations of a single module, largely unchanged at its second appearance except for the addition of accompanying free voices. I believe Caroline Cunningham is mistaken in interpreting Coprario’s ‘double fuge’ as a reference to double counterpoint: Coprario does not describe the intervallic restrictions that guarantee invertibility, and the example in the *Rules* does not exchange the two voices of the module at its second appearance.⁴⁷ Double counterpoint may be used as a way of varying either an imitative or a non-imitative duo, but is not a requirement of either type. Many of Coprario’s non-imitative duos repeat the module with the parts in the same relationship, as this one does.

Given Coprario’s praise for ‘double fuge’ in the *Rules how to Compose*, it is surprising not to find more examples of it in his four-part fantasias. As Cunningham notes, fantasia no. 4 is the only piece in the set which begins in this manner, in a passage closely analogous to the examples in the *Rules* (Example 2.6).⁴⁸ The two voices that make up the repeated module in this example share a common head interval of a rising fourth and some motivic

⁴⁶Schubert, ‘Hidden Forms in Palestrina’, 490–495; Schubert, ‘Musical Commonplaces in the Renaissance’, 170.

⁴⁷Cunningham, ‘John Coprario’s “Rules how to Compose”’, 41.

⁴⁸Ibid. 42.

The musical score consists of four staves. The first staff is in treble clef with a key signature of one flat. It features a melodic line with a bracketed section labeled '5 6 6 6 5 4 3 2 3 4 6 8 10 9 8 7 6'. The second staff is also in treble clef with a key signature of one flat, showing a similar melodic line with a bracketed section labeled '5 6 6 6 5 4 3 2 3 4 6 8 10 9 8 7 6'. The third and fourth staves are in treble and bass clefs respectively, both with a key signature of one flat. They show imitative entries with brackets indicating the start and end of the imitative phrases. The overall structure is a 'double fuge' (non-imitative duo) as described in the caption.

Example 2.5: Coprario's example of 'double fuge' (non-imitative duo) in the *Rules how to Compose*

similarities (indicated here by the added, shorter dashed brackets), but there is no consistent imitative relationship between them. As in the example from the *Rules*, Coprario repeats the module in a second pair of voices without exchanging its parts. Inverting this non-imitative duo at the octave would be problematic, since the fifths in the first bar would become unsupported dissonant fourths in the lower parts. Coprario obtains a modicum of additional variety in the second presentation of the module by beginning both melodies one minim earlier in relation to the meter, making up the difference within the module by inserting two extra crotchets into the upper voice and lengthening the minim D in the lower voice into a semibreve. These alterations or 'splices' are shown in smaller notes within vertical square brackets on the score, and the additional intervals they create are shown within square brackets in the figures above the system.⁴⁹ Apart from the rhythmic variety obtained by beginning the third and fourth entrances earlier than expected, the principal effect of this alteration is to turn the original module's interval sequence of 5–6–8 into a stronger cadential suspension, 5–7–6–8, in its repetition.

Another example from Coprario's *Rules*, in which the basic module is intermediate between an imitative and non-imitative duo, shows the usefulness of a modular analysis which emphasises the common features of the two types. Example 2.7 immediately follows Example 2.3 in Coprario's text: it is therefore presented implicitly as another example of maintaining a *single* 'fuge', since double fuge has not yet been discussed at this point. Like Example 2.3, it features two initial entrances in imitation at the distance of a minim, this time at the fifth below. Only the first five notes of the treble part (indicated by the dashed brackets) are imitated exactly in the alto, after which the two parts abandon their imitative relationship to make a cadence. A theory of imitative construction concerned only with the imitation of individual melodic subjects

⁴⁹In 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', Schubert uses the term 'splicing' principally in reference to alterations of the 'joints' between melodic segments. I also use the term to describe the insertion of brief segments of additional material into a presentation of a subject or of a module.

5 8 5 3 4 6 5 6 8 9 3 1 5 6 7 8 6 5 3 10 3 10 8

5 8 5 3 4 6 5 6 8 9 3 1 5 6 7 8 6 3 10 3 10 8

Example 2.6: 'Double fuge' with rhythmic alteration and splicing at its second appearance in the opening of Coprario's four-part fantasia no. 4

might treat only the first six notes of this example as thematic material, but it is the duo as a whole – including both the imitative and non-imitative portions – which is subsequently repeated in the lower voices. The second repetition is slightly but significantly altered: two ornamental notes have been added to the minim A in the upper voice, and the F♯s that form a G cadence at the first presentation of the module become F♮s in the repetition, allowing Coprario to place the final G cadence in a stronger metrical position. For this example, a modular analysis provides a more complete description of the passage’s construction than one in terms of single melodic subjects. Similar ‘two-tailed’ subjects consisting of a common head motive followed by differing tail motives occur frequently in real compositions, and frequently end, like this one, with cadential figures. It is also common in such cases for the final sonority of the cadential progression to lie outside the repeated module, as in this example, allowing different conclusions to follow each presentation of the module.

Example 2.7: A partially-imitative repeated duo from Coprario’s *Rules how to Compose*

Free imitation

A third type of imitative writing illustrated in Coprario's *Rules* consists of separate entrances of a single subject without any significant overlap between the end of one entrance and the beginning of the next. As in his description of the imitative duo schema, Coprario's wording here implies that a fixed choice of 'fuge' has been made prior to the compositional process. This method is more plausible in this case than in the case of the imitative duo: since successive entrances which do not overlap do not have to relate to each other contrapuntally, the method allows the construction of an imitative passage from any given subject, simply by arranging successive entrances on the appropriate starting notes and continuing each voice with free counterpoint:

if you cannott bring in your fuge whilst the leading part is handling her point, you must rest, and as soone as the point is done you must frame chords of purpose for to agree with the following part ... When these two parts have finishd their fuge you must force them to agree with the third part, and so you must afterwards force them to agree with the fourth part.⁵⁰

This description is closely analogous to Christopher Simpson's later description of completing a pre-determined imitative structure by 'fill[ing] up the empty places with such Concords and Bindings as you think fittest'.⁵¹ Coprario's example of this type of imitation (Example 2.8) has a more regular structure than his description might suggest. As he writes, the second entrance follows immediately, 'as soone as the point is done'. If it is granted that the subject of this passage is four and a half minims in length, there is a very small overlap of one note between the first and second entrances, and between the third and fourth. A single note of overlap does not create a module, and the final note of the third entrance is altered from a D to a B in any case, replacing a unison with a third. Nevertheless, even in the absence of a repeated module, Coprario

⁵⁰Coprario, *Rules how to Compose*, ed. Wilson, 113.

⁵¹Simpson, *A Compendium of Practical Musick*, 111, quoted in Howard, 'Purcell and the Poetics of Artifice', 121.

The image displays a musical score for a fugal passage, structured as two paired entrances. The score is written on five staves, with the first four staves grouped by a brace on the left. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and accidentals. Two specific sections are highlighted with Coprario's Rules notation, indicated by brackets and a diagonal line: the first section is labeled $[\setminus 5, \circ]$ and the second is labeled $[\setminus 5, \circ]$. A dashed line connects the end of the first section to the beginning of the second, suggesting a continuation or a specific relationship between the two. The score is presented in a clear, professional layout, typical of a musical manuscript.

Example 2.8: A passage of 'free imitation' structured as two paired entrances, from Coprario's *Rules how to Compose*

structures his four entrances as two similar pairs, as in a true imitative duo: in Example 2.8, the third and fourth entrances repeat the imitative relationship of the first and second entrances, the following part entering each time a fifth below the leading part after two semibreves. Although there is no repeated module as such in Example 2.8, a repeated *melodic* combination emerges from the polyphonic texture as a consequence of the regular pattern of entrances, as illustrated on the lowest staff of the example.⁵² Evidently, the principle that a four-voice point of imitation could be constructed from two repetitions of a two-voice cell could continue to operate even in the absence of interlocking between successive entrances.

Milsom describes separated imitative entrances like those of Example 2.8 as 'singletons', since they do not interlock with any other repeated thematic material, and Schubert describes passages made up of successive singletons as 'free imitation' (*FI*). It should be noted that the successive singleton entrances in a passage of 'free' imitation, in this sense, may well be 'strict', in the sense that they preserve the subject's intervallic and rhythmic structure unchanged: this is the case, for example, with the four entrances of Example 2.8. Such imitation is 'free' in the sense that it imposes no further restrictions on the melodic structure of the subject, and repeats none of the contrapuntal combinations in which it takes part. The use of free imitation does not necessarily simplify the task of composition: it might, arguably, demand greater creativity, since no contrapuntal combinations are repeated, and the chosen subject determines less of the finished musical fabric. (Coprario's two references to 'forcing' the free voices to agree with the following entrances of the subject suggest that a composer had to expend more effort on this kind of exposition). Compared

⁵²Grimshaw describes a similar device in the opening of Taverner's *Mean* mass, in which 'the constituent parts within each [repeated] cell do not overlap [...] not only are the two cells adjacent, but the voices within the cell are also adjacent. This device is not used in the *Mean* Mass besides the head-motif, and, to the best of my knowledge, this particular kind of imitation does not occur anywhere else in music of this period.' Grimshaw, 'Imitative Counterpoint in Sixteenth-Century English Music', 73.

to the close imitation involved in the preceding examples, however, free imitation represents a qualitatively different kind of compositional process, which arguably requires less pre-compositional planning and 'research'.

Coprario regards free imitation without any interlocking of entrances as inferior to other types, at least at the opening of a composition. He justifies this preference not on the basis of imitation's intrinsic value, but rather because it avoids the bare texture that results when long subjects are imitated without any overlapping of entrances:

This [i.e. free imitation] is now to be observed, when the fuge is not long, nor tedious, for other it would be too single before all the parts be brought in.⁵³

If the chosen subject does not permit interlocking in an imitative duo, Coprario prefers 'double fuge', or non-imitative duo, over free imitation. The advantage of this method is that it allows two parts to enter with little separation in time, avoiding both the bare or 'single' texture created by free entrances and the standard interval progressions required by very close imitation:

This fashion of maintayning of double fuges is most vsd of excellent authors, for in single fuges there can no such great art be shewed, butt onlie in the invention thereof: Besides there hath so many bene made alreadie, as that hardlie one shall invente a single reporte to be easilie, and sweetlie brought in, butt it hath alreadie bene invented before.⁵⁴

Manfred Bukofzer thought this sentence reflected Coprario's historical position, and commented that it 'strikes a somewhat nostalgic tone revealing that the end of a certain musical phase had been reached'.⁵⁵ Yet the idea is neither original to Coprario nor unique to his historical position. On the contrary, both this statement and the preceding claim that close imitation produces a better effect echo a sentiment which goes back at least to Zarlino:

⁵³Coprario, *Rules how to Compose*, ed. Wilson, 113.

⁵⁴Ibid. 115.

⁵⁵Manfred Bukofzer, introduction to *Rules how to compose: a facsimile edition of a manuscript from the library of the Earl of Bridgewater* (Los Angeles: E. E. Gottlieb, 1952), 16–17.

The ear comprehends [an imitative] relationship best when the voices are close together in time, and for this reason composers strive to keep them so, if possible, in fugal writing. But constant practice of this close imitation has resulted in such a common idiom that a fugal pattern cannot be found that has not been used thousands of times by various composers.⁵⁶

Of Coprario’s four-part fantasias, only no. 5 opens with free imitation, avoiding overlapping between its first four entrances almost entirely. The first three entrances of the fantasia resemble the example from the *Rules* in having a minimal overlap of one note between leading and following parts. Unlike the example in the *Rules*, they are not arranged symmetrically to form two similar cells, as the fourth entrance enters after a greater time separation than the others. Coprario creates an impression of increasing contrapuntal activity by following these four singletons with four slightly closer entrances in a loose imitative duo, but the overlap between them remains minimal, forming a module only a minim and a half in length.

Although Coprario prefers not to use free imitation at the outset of a composition, several of his fantasias use singleton entrances to space out the repetitions of an imitative or non-imitative duo, creating a more complex imitative structure in which the construction from repeated modules is less apparent. Fantasia no. 2 opens with two presentations of an imitative duo separated by a singleton entrance and followed by three more singletons (Example 2.9; the final three entrances in free imitation are not shown). The second presentation of the imitative duo in this example is inverted at the octave. In these analyses, I follow Schubert in denoting invertible counterpoint using the abbreviations ‘ic8’, ‘ic10’, and ‘ic12’. I use a slightly different notation to represent uses of these operations in a varied repetition of a module: the letter representing the original module is enclosed in parentheses with the operation written to the

⁵⁶Zarlino, *The Art of Counterpoint*, trans. Marco and Palisca, 127–9. The ‘common idiom’ which Zarlino criticises here is essentially the same phenomenon which was given a more positive interpretation as ‘intertextuality’ in the previous chapter of this thesis.

X

1	3	3	3	6	3	3
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

... singleton...

ic8(X)

8	6	6	6	3	6	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

(... three more singleton entrances follow)

Example 2.9: Two presentations of an imitative duo separated by a singleton entrance in the opening of Coprario's four-part fantasia no. 2

left of it, so that the transformation of module 'X' by inversion at the octave is written as 'ic8(X)'.

Alternative interlocks and multiple time intervals

The three imitative layouts considered so far have only a single entrance in each voice, and each (excepting free imitation) represents a single module presentation type. The remaining example in Coprario's *Rules* is more complex. Its stated purpose is to demonstrate the construction of an imitative section with two entrances per voice instead of one: 'if you will twice vse the fuge in all the parts'. The wording of this instruction implies a principle also evident in the openings of Coprario's four-part fantasias: a point of imitation should have either one or two entrances of the subject in each part – not, for example, two entrances in some parts and only one in others. Although this suggests a concern for symmetry, Coprario's example (Example 2.10) is superficially rather asymmetrical, particularly by comparison with the extremely regular repeated expositions of earlier sixteenth-century music.⁵⁷ Its eight entrances can be separated into two groups: the first four in a close four-part stretto, the second four more widely and unevenly spaced. Two of the latter group of entrances are apparently truncated 'reports' or false entrances: the fifth entrance (voice II, b. 4) breaks into free counterpoint after its seventh note, and the seventh entrance (voice III, b. 5) is even shorter, stating only six notes of the original subject. Despite this seeming irregularity, examining the intervals at which imitation occurs suggests a structural plan: the most prominent imitative relationships in the opening stretto are at the upper fifth or the lower octave, while the later entrances involve imitation at the fourth above or below. A modular analysis reveals further structure, including modules at multiple time intervals (*MTI*), semi-imitative modules (*Sim*), and the varying of modules through invertible counterpoint (a technique otherwise notable by its absence from the *Rules how to Compose*). This analysis suggests how Coprario realised a structural plan when the melodic content of the subject caused contrapun-

⁵⁷Kerman, 'Byrd, Tallis and the Art of Imitation', 91–5, describes highly symmetrical repeated expositions in Tallis and White.

C + D

8	7	6	5
1	2	3	4

ic8(C) + ic8(D)

1	2	3	4
8	7	6	5

B'

6	5		
4	3	3	4

C

8	7	6	5
1	2	3	4

B

3	6	6	5
3	5	6	8

A

3	5	6	8
3	5	6	8

alternative interlock

5	6	5	3	3	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Example 2.10: 'if you will twice use the fuge in all the parts', from Coprario's *Rules how to Compose*

tal difficulties, and raises methodological issues about the distinction between modules and interlocks which are relevant for the analysis of real compositions.

The image displays four staves of musical notation, labeled A, B, C, and D, representing different imitative relationships in a four-part stretto. Each staff consists of a treble and a bass clef line. Brackets and Roman numerals (i, ii, iii) indicate specific portions of the music that are repeated as modules. Fingerings are indicated by numbers 1 through 10 below the notes.

- Staff A:** Features a bracket labeled 'i' over the first two measures of the treble line. The bass line has a bracket labeled 'ii' under the first two measures. Fingerings: 5, 6, 8, 6, 3, 3, 5, 8, 6, 5, 3, 4.
- Staff B:** Features a bracket labeled 'ii' over the first two measures of the treble line. The bass line has a bracket labeled 'i' under the first two measures. Fingerings: 3, 4, 5, 4, 3, 3, (5)6, 6, 5.
- Staff C:** Features a bracket labeled 'ii' over the first two measures of the treble line. The bass line has a bracket labeled 'i' under the first two measures. Fingerings: 8, 7, 6, 5, 6, 8, 10.
- Staff D:** Features a bracket labeled 'iii' over the first two measures of the treble line. The bass line has a bracket labeled 'i' under the first two measures. Fingerings: 1, 2, 3.

Example 2.11: Interlocks required by the four-part stretto of Example 2.10, with brackets indicating the portions which are repeated as modules.

The four-part stretto at the beginning of Example 2.10 requires a subject which can combine with itself in four different imitative relationships, or in Milsom's terminology 'alternative interlocks'.⁵⁸ The number of simultaneously sounding voice pairs makes it difficult to show all these relationships clearly on the score itself, so they are displayed on separate staves in Example 2.11. Two of these combinations appear twice within the four-part lattice of the stretto: interlock A and interlock C.⁵⁹ Interlock A consists of imitation at the upper

⁵⁸See Milsom, 'Crecquillon, Clemens and Four-Voiced *Fuga*', 298, n. 23.

⁵⁹Grimshaw defines a 'lattice' as 'the contrapuntal complex produced by the piling up of overlapping entries', noting that it may describe 'as few as two imitating voices', but 'by its nature [...] implies an interlocking structure [...] it would not be an appropriate term to describe an imitative exposition in which there was no overlap' – that is, a texture made up of singletons in free imitation. See Grimshaw, 'Imitative Counterpoint in Sixteenth-Century

fifth after one minim. Of the four interlocks, it is the most similar to the close imitative duos of previous examples, having the shortest separation between the entrances and the longest overlap. It is also the easiest relationship to hear in the finished stretto, sounding first in the upper and then in the lower two voices. Interlock C consists of imitation at the lower octave after four minims. It, too, appears twice in the finished complex, but is harder to hear, since it is created by the overlap between the first and third entrances (on G) and then between the second and fourth entrances (on D). At its first appearance in voices I and II the parts overlap for three minims, but only the initial portion of this overlap is repeated by the second pair of entrances. The remaining two interlocks each appear only once in the stretto lattice. Interlock B consists of imitation at the lower fifth after three minims: it is formed by the overlap between the second entrance (on D in voice I) and the third entrance (on G in voice IV). Finally, interlock D consists of imitation at the lower fourth after five minims. It is formed by the two most distant entrances of the stretto – the first (on G in voice II) and the fourth (on D in voice III) – and has the shortest overlap at only two minims in length.

In order to compose a subject that permits all four of these imitative relationships, it seems likely that Coprario drew on the interval stocks and patterns described in the previous chapter. On the level of the minim, the subject consists of a 'hold', two descending steps, and then rising thirds and falling fourths in alternation. These intervals – falling second, falling fourth, rising third – belong to the interval stock of stretto imitation at the upper fifth, as they must for interlock A to succeed. In addition, the falling stepwise descent of the first half of the subject combines well in counterpoint with the descending sequence formed by the alternating thirds and fourths in its second half. Although simply drawing on the appropriate stretto interval stock would not guarantee a subject capable of such multiple combinations, it seems probable that Coprario could

English Music', 18. I use the term principally in reference to complexes with at least three imitative entrances.

have used his knowledge of these typical patterns to compose a close imitative duo which would, in addition, be capable of overlapping with itself at the distance of four minims.⁶⁰

Because Coprario repeats portions of the opening stretto in the following four entrances of Example 2.10, this passage also constitutes an example of what Schubert describes as a module presentation in 'multiple time intervals'.⁶¹ Interlock C provides the clearest instance of a module presented both within the opening stretto and also in the later entrances. The voices of this interlock overlap for three minims at its first appearance, but only the first half of this overlap, with interval sequence 8–7–6–5, is repeated by later entrances. It appears twice more in Example 2.10 in places where successive entrances are related by imitation at the octave or unison after four minims (bb. 3 and 5). Its original form is repeated in b. 5, where the end of the sixth entrance in voice I overlaps with the beginning of the seventh entrance in voice III an octave below. Inverted at the octave, it is also presented in b. 3, where the end of the fourth entrance in voice III overlaps with the beginning of the fifth entrance in voice II. The repeated contrapuntal material in this short segment also includes a third voice – the figure in the bass labelled 'iii' – in addition to the two voices of module C. The combination of melody i and melody iii forms interlock D, the most distant imitative relationship in the stretto, and one which is not repeated within the four-voice stretto lattice. Another way of saying this is that b. 3 contains a rotation (to use Dreyfus's term) of the three-voice complex formed

⁶⁰Coprario's *Rules* includes another example of similarly patterned writing within its section on 'division', in an example where the use of a falling fourth–rising third–rising third pattern generates a brief four-part stretto in imitation at the fifth. The text accompanying this example is somewhat unclear by comparison with the rest of Coprario's instructions and does not mention or explain the imitative relationship between the parts:

if the Bass vse semibreves some of the parts maie divide, and goe from the 3 in the 5, or from the 5 into the 8, or from the 8 into the 5, or from the 5 into the 3, or rise from the 8 vnto the 15, and so they maie divide their semibreves either into crochets, or quavers.

See Coprario, *Rules how to Compose*, ed. Wilson, 94.

⁶¹Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 505–510; Schubert, 'Musical Commonplaces in the Renaissance', 181–2.

by the combination of modules C and D in b. 2.⁶² It is awkward to illustrate the interval content of such three-voice rotations in modular notation, since there are potentially three simultaneous voice pairs whose interval sequences must be shown. In this example, I have chosen to show only the intervals of module C (melodies i and ii) and module D (melodies i and iii), both of which are inverted at the octave when the three-voice cell is rotated. Melodies ii and iii of this three-part complex also simultaneously sound a portion of interlock A, which is unchanged by the rotation, but these have been omitted from the score for clarity.

Interlock B, which occurs only once within the opening stretto of Example 2.10, is also presented twice in partial form as a module by later entrances. The first partial presentation occurs in b. 4, where Coprario has attempted to invert interlock B at the octave in order to bring in an entrance at the upper fourth. The inversion is less contrapuntally well-behaved than the original, containing three potentially dissonant fourths between the voices (Example 2.12). The latter two of these are in weak metrical positions, and are easily dealt with through the addition of a free voice; even so, Coprario alters the rhythm of the upper voice in b. 4 in order to shorten the duration of the last passing fourth from a crotchet to a quaver. The accented and improperly resolved fourth on the second minim beat is more problematic, and Coprario opted to avoid the difficulties by splicing in a brief segment of free counterpoint at the point where it would otherwise occur (shown in small notes between vertical brackets). As a result, only the first two and the last four intervals of interlock B are preserved in this inverted presentation. An even briefer partial presentation of the same module occurs in voices II and IV of b. 6, where only the tail of the original interlock is preserved.

The final two entrances of Example 2.10 represent a facet of imitative composition which is less easily captured by a strictly modular analysis. In bb. 5–7, Coprario has 'fixed' a problematic entrance at the lower fourth in much

⁶²Dreyfus, 'Bach and the Patterns of Invention', 14, 18.

ic8(B)

The image shows two systems of musical notation, (a) and (b), for a two-voice setting. System (a) features a treble staff with a melodic line labeled 'i' and a bass staff with a counterpoint line labeled 'ii'. The counterpoint line 'ii' is a partially successful inversion of the melodic line 'i' at the octave. System (b) shows a similar setup but with a different counterpoint line 'ii'.

Example 2.12: A partially successful inversion of interlock B at the octave corrected through splicing of free counterpoint

the same way as the problematic entrance at the upper fourth in b. 4, by splicing a cadential figure into the subject. As a result, the apparently truncated entrance of the subject on G in b. 5 is completed, after the inserted material, by the appearance of its tail motive in bb. 6–7. The resulting partial interlock in the lower two voices represents imitation at the fourth below at the distance of two minims, a combination which runs into problems almost immediately if attempted with the full subject (Example 2.13(a)). If this partial interlock were repeated at least once in the point of imitation, it could be described in Schubert's terms as a 'semi-imitative' (*Sim*) module presentation:

a melodic fragment [...] presented out of context and sounded alone (i.e., not preceded or followed by the linear companions that usually sound before or after it). Thus a countersubject (melody ii) [...] can be sounded anytime against an entry of melody i, even when it does not follow melody i as it normally should in an imitative situation.⁶³

Since no other entrances in this point of imitation are separated by two minims, however, the partial interlock in b. 6 cannot be considered a module: it cannot be derived from previous contrapuntal combinations by inversion or the other variation operations, but only through 'time shifting', which Schubert excludes

⁶³Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 511.

from modular analysis.⁶⁴ By contrast, the rising stepwise figures in voice II that appear in the same bars (bb. 6–7) could be analysed as semi-imitative presentations of material extracted from interlocks B and A, respectively, although they are arguably less significant and thematic than the tail motive which appears in voice III as part of the partial interlock.

Although it appears only once, the partial interlock in the second half of b. 6 seems to represent the result of some compositional 'research', since it suggests that Coprario must have experimented with the possible imitative combinations of his subject. Upon finding that the interlock in Example 2.13(a) had an unacceptable beginning but an attractive conclusion, he elected to 'take the best and leave the worst', in Morley's phrase, using only the conclusion, and papering over the splice with a brief cadential fragment.⁶⁵ Alternative interlocks such as this deserve analytical attention as a facet of compositional invention, even when they do not function as modules articulating a larger form. In the analyses to follow, alternative interlocks will be shown where relevant using the same square brackets that indicate modules, but without the 'i' and 'ii' labels. (Since interlocks that do not form modules are by definition not repeated, there is no need to distinguish the relative position of their component melodies in later appearances). The interval sequences of alternative interlocks are shown above or below the score like those of modules, but enclosed in dashed boxes instead of solid boxes.

Four of Coprario's four-part fantasies – nos. 1, 2, 5 and 6 – open with eight entrances of the subject, but none begins or ends with a stretto lattice like the one which opens the example of 'twice using the fuge' in the *Rules*. Fantasia no. 1 comes closest in beginning with four entrances in close imitation at two different time intervals, followed by four more widely spaced entrances (Example 2.14). Although it lacks the four-part stretto lattice of the example

⁶⁴Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 500, n. 32. Schubert writes that the 'exclusion of time-shifting from modular analysis makes it both more rigorous and easier to use [...] although its use in stretto and other free counterpoint must not be overlooked.'

⁶⁵See Morley, 162; Morley, ed. Harman, 270–271.

The image shows two musical staves, (a) and (b), illustrating a failed interlock and its correction. Staff (a) shows a sequence of notes and rests with a sequence of numbers 3 1 2 3 5 6 5 3 3 3 4 5 6 written below. Staff (b) shows the corrected version with splicing of free counterpoint.

Example 2.13: A failed interlock at the lower fourth corrected through splicing of free counterpoint

from the *Rules*, it contains two repeated modules at different time intervals: not only is the lengthy imitative duo (module 'X') formed by the first two entrances repeated by the third and fourth entrances, but in addition, the short cadential module ('Y') formed by the second and third entrances (b. 4) is repeated by the fifth and sixth (b. 9).⁶⁶ Some flexing of the sixth entrance is required in b. 9 to form the second repetition of the latter module.

Of Coprario's four-part fantasies with one entrance per part, only no. 3 uses alternative interlocks of the subject in its opening point of imitation. Its subject is longer than that of the example in the *Rules*, but considerably simpler in melodic content and harmonic implications, consisting almost entirely of triadic figures (Example 2.15). All four entrances begin on C, entering at successive time intervals of one semibreve (voice II, b. 1), three semibreves (voice IV, b. 3) and again three semibreves (voice I, b. 5). The use of a consistent interval of imitation (unison or octave) and time separation (three semibreves) might lead one to expect a repeated module in the form of Schubert's 'periodic entries' (*PE_n*), but Coprario's alteration of the second and third entrances of the subject means that all three interlocks create different contrapuntal rela-

⁶⁶Strictly speaking, the first interval of module 'Y' is missing at its second appearance, since the sixth entrance does not begin until the second minim of the bar; the presence of the A in the bass, however, provides the missing lower note of the module.

Y 4 3 4

X 5 1 5 3 7 6 2 1 3 5 5 6

The first system of music consists of four staves. The top staff is in treble clef, and the bottom three are in bass clef. The music features various rhythmic values, including eighth and sixteenth notes, and rests. Above the staves, there are two boxes: the first contains 'Y 4 3 4' and the second contains 'X 5 1 5 3 7 6 2 1 3 5 5 6'. Brackets and vertical lines connect these boxes to specific measures in the music, indicating time intervals. The notation includes many accidentals (sharps and flats) and complex phrasing.

Y 4 3 4

9 ii

new subject

free imitation (singletons)

The second system of music continues the piece with four staves. It includes a measure rest marked '9' and a section labeled 'new subject' with a wavy line above it. A section labeled 'free imitation (singletons)' is also indicated with a bracket. The notation continues with complex rhythmic patterns and accidentals, maintaining the 'fuge' structure.

Example 2.14: Modules presented at multiple time intervals in the opening of Coprario's four-part fantasia no. 1

[illegible]

Example 2.15: Imitation using alternative interlocks in the opening of Coprario's four-part fantasia no. 3

tionships, none of which is repeated as a module. The 'joint' in the subject occurs between its fourth and fifth notes, which are altered either rhythmically or intervallically in subsequent entrances. The second entrance (voice III, b. 2) contains a rhythmic alteration: Coprario shortens its fourth note from a semibreve to a minim, thus shortening the time interval of imitation between the first and second entrances from a semibreve to a minim. Consequently, the third entrance, which begins in b. 3 four semibreves (eight minims) after the second entrance, really represents imitation at the distance of nine minims, since the second entrance has been effectively shifted one minim earlier; it also simultaneously interlocks with the first entrance at the distance of ten minims, creating a brief three-part stretto in the latter half of b. 3. The third entrance itself is altered by intervallic flexing, in which a G–C falling fifth in bb. 4–5 replaces the expected G–G falling octave. As a consequence, the fourth entrance (voice I, b. 5), although it begins an octave higher than the third entrance (voice IV, b. 3), really represents imitation at the fifth, since the portion of the previous entrance with which it overlaps has been shifted up by a fourth. The imitative structure resulting from these operations is perhaps trickier to describe in detail than it was to compose: the triadic structure of Coprario's subject means that its different segments combine quite easily in alternating consonances.

Since none of the combinations created by the entrances of the subject in Example 2.15 is repeated, these alternative interlocks do not form a multiple time interval presentation in Schubert's sense. Coprario's goal in this passage seems to have been not consistency but variety of imitative combination – a practical necessity given the harmonic simplicity of the subject. The small amount of modular repetition within this excerpt is not created by the imitative interlocks of the subject, but by its non-imitative combination with a secondary motive, indicated here using wavy brackets. The new motive first appears in fragmentary form in b. 5, and then in a longer form in the lower voices of bb. 7–8, where it is treated in brief strettos at the unison. The combination of the

new motive with the tail of the first subject forms two brief, four-note modules, 'X' and 'Y', which are varied through inversion. Although the shorter form of the new melodic idea appears first, it is unlikely that the order of these events represents the order in which they were composed, since the new motive is clearly devised to combine in counterpoint with the tail of the original subject and with itself in simultaneous stretto, as it does in bb. 6–7. It seems likely that Coprario worked out the four-part complex of bb. 6–7 first, and then extracted from it the two shorter modules which could also be made to work in the more complex contrapuntal situation of b. 5, where the presence of the subject in voice I imposes restrictions. As this example suggests, it is frequently fruitful in analysing this music to look not only for the modules which arise as a consequence of the most obvious imitative structure, but also for smaller non-imitative modules consisting of secondary ideas added in counterpoint to it.

Periodic entrances

One module presentation type which Coprario does not discuss in the *Rules* is periodic entries (*PEn*), in which the same time interval separates each successive entrance from its predecessor, creating several presentations of the same module (or varied repetitions of it).⁶⁷ Coprario does not make frequent use of periodic entries in the openings of his four-part fantasies, but the opening of fantasia no. 6 is a striking exception which also provides an example of a repeated module or complex in three voices (Example 2.16). The eight entrances that open this fantasy all begin with the same four-note head motive, but the use of different continuations in the first four and second four means that they are best regarded as two separate sections. Periodic entries appear in the first group of four entrances. In keeping with Coprario's advice to bring in the following part as quickly as possible, the second entrance follows the first after four minims of rest. The third and fourth entrances are more widely spaced, each one following its predecessor after eight minims, and form two repeated modules, labelled 'X' and 'Y'. Both are essentially three-voice combinations, although the overlap of the first and second entrances in b. 3 also contains a partial presentation of module 'X' in only two voices. Because one statement enters at the fifth and the other at the fourth, flexing of intervals is required in order to form the same modules each time. The closest specific term for this in Schubert's typology would seem to be 'periodic entries with tonal answer' or *PEn(tonal)*, although this seems dubious as a description of imitation in which a sixth is answered by a diminished fifth: perhaps 'periodic entries with flexing' would be preferable. Coprario varies these repeated three-voice complexes in an unusual way, splitting up the original melodies ii and iii into even shorter motives and distributing them to different voices. In the second presentation of module 'Y' (b. 6), the two cadential figures that make up melody iii are split between voice I and voice II, while in the second presentation of module

⁶⁷Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 503.

(X) $\boxed{6\ 5\ 3\ 3\ 6}$ Y $\boxed{4\ 5\ -\ 3\ 8\ 10\ 4\ 3\ -\ 3}$ X $\boxed{6\ 5\ 3\ 3\ 5\ 4\ 3}$

Y $\boxed{4\ 5\ -\ 3\ 8\ 10\ 4\ 3\ -\ 3}$ X $\boxed{6\ 5\ 3\ 3\ 5\ 4\ 3}$

ic12(Z) $\boxed{10\ 8\ 7\ 5\ 8}$

X $\boxed{6\ 5\ 3\ 3\ 5\ 4\ 3}$ Z $\boxed{3\ 5\ 6\ 8\ 5}$ X $\boxed{6\ 5\ 3\ 3\ 5\ 4\ 3}$

Example 2.16: Opening of Coprario's four-part fantasia no. 6

Z
3 5 6 8 5

15

The musical score consists of four staves. The first staff is in treble clef and contains a melodic line with a dotted quarter note, an eighth note, and a quarter note. The second staff is in alto clef (C-clef on the third line) and contains a melodic line with a dotted quarter note, an eighth note, and a quarter note. The third staff is in alto clef (C-clef on the third line) and contains a melodic line with a dotted quarter note, an eighth note, and a quarter note. The fourth staff is in bass clef and contains a melodic line with a dotted quarter note, an eighth note, and a quarter note. The score includes various musical notations such as notes, rests, and brackets, indicating a complex fugue structure.

'X' (b. 7), the descending line of melody ii begins in voice III but finishes in voice II, where voice III takes over melody iii.

The second four entrances of fantasia no. 6 contain a repeated non-imitative module where one might not expect it. In this group of entrances, the four-note head motive is joined to a cadential tail motive to form a complete subject of nine minims in length. One might expect the overlap between the head and tail motives in b. 10 to form a module, but Coprario never repeats this combination. Instead, a repeated non-imitative module (labelled 'Z') is formed in b. 10 by the combination of the cadential figure, in voice I, with a descending figure in voice III: this combination is repeated with the parts exchanged in b. 13, and again in its original form in bb. 15–16. Schubert's comment that 'modules are often so short, and consist of counterpoint that seems so generic, that one might sometimes be tempted to doubt that they have any significance at all' certainly applies to this example.⁶⁸ There is, perhaps, an element of playfulness in this opening section as a whole, in which the contrapuntal combinations which might be expected to repeat do not, the repeated combinations are not those which would be expected, and figures can be split up between different parts at will.

⁶⁸Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 513.

Summary

The examples in Coprario's *Rules how to Compose* suggest a strongly modular approach to the composition of imitative passages, in which points of imitation are built up by repeating either an imitative or a non-imitative duo. All of the module presentation types illustrated in the *Rules* are also evident in Coprario's four-part fantasies, with the imitative duo being the most common. Coprario occasionally uses invertible counterpoint to vary later presentations of a module, but it is at least as common to find two almost identical presentations of a module in succession. In the absence of invertible counterpoint, Coprario sometimes obtains variety through minor rhythmic variations (no. 4), or by breaking the voices of a module up between the parts (no. 6). The imitative passages that result are often gratifyingly straightforward to analyse and indeed to hear, in keeping with Coprario's stated preference for easily perceptible imitation: 'to sooner you bring in your parts with the fuge, to more better will it shewe'.⁶⁹ Yet the correspondence between Coprario's theory and practice is not quite as rigid as this summary might suggest. Even within the examples in the *Rules* there is evidence of principles which Coprario does not discuss, including the construction of close imitative duos and four-part strettos, and the use of 'splicing' within an imitative entrance to avoid contrapuntal errors that would otherwise occur. Applying modular analysis to the openings of Coprario's four-part fantasies reveals the use of further procedures which are neither described nor exemplified in the *Rules*, including the use of periodic entrances at the unison (no. 6) and semi-imitative modules (no. 3). Modular analysis also reveals the presence of repeated contrapuntal combinations which are not generated by the most obvious imitative structure but rather added to it (no. 6).

Other compositionally relevant attributes of these fantasies – in particular the use of multiple alternative interlocks – are resistant to a purely modular

⁶⁹Coprario, *Rules how to Compose*, ed. Wilson, 112;

analysis, and require a closer examination of the individual imitative relationships that make up a point of imitation. This is the case with the example of 'twice using the fuge' in the *Rules*, for which Coprario evidently experimented with alternative interlocks of the subject in order to realise the planned imitative layout, and also of the less sophisticated alternative interlocks of fantasia no. 3. Furthermore, there are sometimes structural similarities between passages with different module presentation types. The examples in the *Rules* of imitative duo, four-part stretto and free imitation differ in module presentation type and contrapuntal complexity, yet all three share a pattern of time intervals between entrances, in which the imitative relationship between the first and second entrances is replicated by the third and fourth. A complete analysis of imitative practice in the fantasia style requires attention to both modular and non-modular aspects of its imitative construction.

2.4 Imitation in three-part fantasies by Gibbons and Coprario

Coprario and Gibbons were near-contemporaries who shared a common court milieu and whose compositions appear in many of the same sources, yet their imitative techniques show clearly marked differences of approach. There are several historical connections between the two, beginning with their employment at the same time as instrumental musicians in Prince Charles's band of court musicians. Compositions by Coprario and Gibbons appear together in several manuscript and printed sources, most notably in a set of part-books and an associated organ part containing music for strings and organ.⁷⁰ This collection seems to have been assembled for a specific purpose, since it contains only music by Coprario and Gibbons, and is described in a seventeenth-century account book as 'a whole sett of Musicke Books [...] prickt with all Coperaries & Orlando Gibbons their musique, by his [Majesties] speciall command & [warrant]'.⁷¹ Its first half contains fantasia-suites by Coprario for one and two treble instruments with bass and organ; the second half consists of six fantasies with a 'Double Base' by Gibbons, four in three parts and two in four parts.⁷²

A comparison of Coprario's and Gibbons's approaches to imitation could be made with respect to any of the genres to which both contributed, or any of the sources in which both composers' works appear. One possible starting point would be to compare Coprario's fantasia-suites and Gibbons's pieces for the double bass, which are gathered together in the set of partbooks named above. However, these works do not focus on imitative writing to the same extent as other fantasies by the two composers, and the difference of instrumentation also complicates matters. A direct comparison of Coprario's and Gibbons's four-part fantasias is also difficult for the same reason. The three-part fantasies of

⁷⁰The partbooks are now held in Oxford, Christ Church as Mus. 732–735; the organ book in London, British Library as R.M. 24.k.3.

⁷¹Charteris, introduction to *John Coprario: The Three-Part Consort Music*, iv, n. 5; Harley, *Orlando Gibbons*, 61.

⁷²Harper, introduction to *Musica Britannica* 48 (London: 1982), xxi.

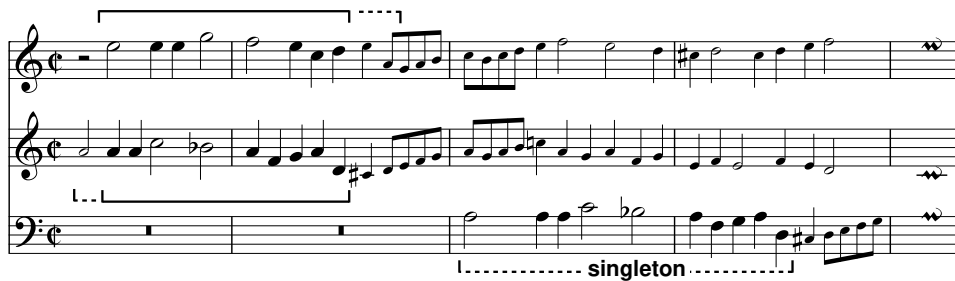
the two composers provide a better basis for comparison: they are closer in scoring and style, and there are comparable numbers of known works by each composer (nine by Gibbons and ten by Coprario). Furthermore, two concrete similarities of material and technique between the sets suggest either deliberate modelling or common inspiration.

Table 2.2: Keys and entrance pitches of Coprario’s three-part fantasies

	No.	Final	Sig.	Entrances	Layout
C7	1	A	-	{A, E}, A	(ID+1)
C8	2	A	-	{A, E}, A, E, A, E	(ID+FI)
C9	3	A	-	{A, E}, E, {A, E}, A	ID
C10	4	A	-	{A, <A>, E>	(AI), SIm
C11	5	G	-	{D, G}, D	(ID+1)
C12	6	G	-	G, D, D	FI
C13	7	G	-	{D, G}, D	(ID+1)
C14	8	G	-	{G, D}, {D, A}, {D, <A>, {E>, G}	ID, (AI)
C15	9	G	b	{G, D}, {D, D}, {G, <D>, G>, D, A...	ID, (AI)
C16	10	D	b	{A, D}, D	(ID+1)

Coprario’s opening points of imitation in his three-part fantasies are broadly similar in several respects to those in the four-part fantasies and the *Rules how to Compose*. These similarities begin with the number and pitch levels of the entrances, as shown in Table 2.2. Like their four-part counterparts, the three-part fantasies almost invariably begin with opening entrances on the final and fifth: on A and E in A-final pieces, G and D in G-final pieces, and D and A in D-final pieces. Even the unusual sequential opening of fantasia no. 8 begins with three entrances on G and D before introducing entrances on other pitches. As in the four-part works, too, Coprario prefers to begin the three-part fantasies with overlapping entrances when possible: fantasia no. 6, which begins in free imitation, is the main exception. With the exceptions of no. 8 and no. 9, Coprario also maintains his practice of distributing imitative entrances equally among the parts. In three-part texture, this results in points of imitation with either three or six entrances of the subject, compared to four or eight entrances in the four-part fantasies. This restriction makes it difficult to use the repeated

imitative or non-imitative duos Coprario favours in four-part writing, which require four entrances of the subject. Coprario most commonly replaces them with a 'pair plus one' pattern in which an initial imitative interlock is followed by a singleton entrance in the third part. As a result, the openings of Coprario's three-part fantasias tend to have less use of repeated modules than his four-part pieces. The 'pair plus one' layout is symbolised in the table as (ID+1), with the parentheses serving to indicate that this layout creates no repeated modules and is thus not a presentation type.



Example 2.17: An imitative duo followed by a singleton entrance in the opening of Coprario's three-part fantasia no. 1

The opening of Coprario's four-part fantasia no. 1 provides a typical example of the pair-plus-one layout (Example 2.17). Its first two entrances are in imitation at the upper fifth after one minim, forming an interlock with an interface of five and a half minims which is followed by a singleton entrance in the bass voice. Because Coprario then moves on to a new subject, there is no repetition of the imitative interlock, and hence no module. The six entrances that open fantasia no. 2, similarly, consist of a single imitative interlock followed by four singleton entrances (Example 2.18). There is plenty of scope here to introduce a repeated module if it were desired, but Coprario chose not to do so, although there is a brief hint of an alternative stretto interlock in b. 5 (voices II and III). Fantasias no. 5, no. 7 and no. 10 similarly begin with a single imitative interlock followed by entrances in free imitation, though none of them brings the two parts of the initial imitative duo as close together as fantasia no. 1. (In no. 5 the initial pair and singleton are followed by more

Example 2.18: An initial imitative duo followed by singleton entrances and reports in the opening of Coprario's three-part fantasia no. 2.

interlocked stretto entrances, but the subject is altered so freely in this second group of entrances that they are best thought of as a new imitative section.)

Coprario's fantasia no. 3 and fantasia no. 9 are significant exceptions to the general absence of repeated modules in his three-part fantasia openings. Both begin with an imitative duo which is repeated and varied, in one case through double counterpoint and in the other through the addition of an alternative interlock. Fantasia no. 3's opening six entrances are laid out in two parallel pair-plus-one arrangements (Example 2.19). The imitative duo is inverted at the octave in its second appearance, as in the structurally similar opening of four-part fantasia no. 2 (Example 2.9 above).

Fantasia no. 9 is, in several ways, the most unusual of all Coprario's fantasias: a monothematic fantasia whose even and flowing motion, mostly on the level of the minim, seems intended to suggest an earlier sixteenth-century *ricercar* style. It opens with a more sophisticated use of varied modular repetition to build a larger structure (Example 2.20). Coprario forms its opening section from a repeated imitative duo in alternation and combination with alternative interlocks. The first alternative interlock sounds in a separate pair of voices from the opening duo (bb. 6–8), while the second is formed by the upper voice of the repeated duo and an independent treble entrance which combines briefly with both voices of the duo (bb. 11–12). In its use of an additional imitative entrance to vary the second presentation of a module, this passage represents a small-scale instance of the form Schubert describes as 'heightening', by which a repeated contrapuntal complex is intensified at its second appearance through one of a variety of techniques:

increasing the number of voices, adding dissonance, sounding melodic fragments in a higher register, expanding the overall range of the parts, and/or increasing contrapuntal intensity (adding entries or introducing entries with greater frequency, varying the module by invertible counterpoint, etc.).⁷³

⁷³Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 486. The term 'heightening' comes originally from Joel Lester, 'Heightening Levels of Activity and J. S. Bach's Parallel-Section Constructions', *Journal of the American Musicological Society* 54 (2001), 49–96.

X

ic8(X)

8 4 8 10 4 8 6

singleton.....J

singleton.....J

Example 2.19: A repeated imitative duo in alternation with singleton entrances, from the opening of Coprario's three-part fantasia no. 3.

X

5 4 3 6 6 3 3 (5) 6 8 (7) 6 3

alternative interlock

6 5 7 8 10

shadow

X

10 13 13 10 10

alternative interlock

1 2 3 4 3 3

X

5 4 3 6 6 3 3 6 8 6 3

(more entrances continue)

9

The musical score consists of three systems, each with three staves (treble, alto, and bass clef). The first system includes a boxed fingering '5 4 3 6 6 3 3 (5) 6 8 (7) 6 3' above the first staff, an 'alternative interlock' box with '6 5 7 8 10' above the second staff, and a 'shadow' bracket under the second staff. The second system includes a boxed fingering '10 13 13 10 10' above the first staff, an 'alternative interlock' box with '1 2 3 4 3 3' above the second staff, and a boxed fingering '5 4 3 6 6 3 3 6 8 6 3' above the third staff. The third system includes a '(more entrances continue)' bracket above the first staff and a '9' above the first staff. Various musical notations such as notes, rests, and brackets are used throughout the score.

Example 2.20: Imitative duos, alternative interlocks and a semi-imitative module in the opening of Coprario's monothematic three-part fantasia no. 9.

Coprario finishes this opening section with a semi-imitative module extracted from the middle of the original duo (bb. 13–14), the final appearance of this imitative combination in the fantasy. Although the rest of the fantasy focuses on the same subject, it does not use the same imitative combinations; instead, Coprario fashions the middle section principally from singleton entrances arrayed on a gradually widening set of entrance pitches (D, A, C, F, B $\flat$). In one place closer entrances bring about a brief three-part stretto (bb. 31–33), and towards the end there is a brief set of periodic entries (bb. 50–55).

Gibbons's typical practice in the beginnings of his three-part fantasies is rather different from Coprario's. Differences are evident first of all in the pitch layout of the entrances, as illustrated in Table 2.3. Where Coprario places the initial entrances of his fantasies almost without exception on the final and fifth above, Gibbons is considerably less restrictive in this respect. Gibbons's fantasia no. 2, for instance, ends on G, but opens with eight entrances on D and A, where Coprario would probably have begun on G and D. Fantasia no. 9 is also anomalous by comparison with Coprario's strict regularity, ending in D, but beginning with entrances on D and G, rather than D and A. Gibbons also seems less concerned than Coprario with restricting the number of entrances to either one or two per part: fantasia no. 9 begins with four entrances, in the form of an imitative duo, while fantasia no. 2 begins with eight entrances. Most significantly, the two composers favour very different imitative layouts. None of Gibbons's three-part fantasies opens with the 'pair-plus-one' pattern common to Coprario's fantasies, in which a closely interlocked pair of entrances are followed by a free singleton entrance. Instead, as O. W. Neighbour observes, Gibbons's fantasies are notable for their use of periodically spaced entries, an arrangement which is absent from Coprario's *Rules* and uncommon in the openings of his fantasies: it appears prominently only in his four-part fantasia no. 6 (Example 2.16) and three-part fantasia no. 8 (Example 2.26, discussed further below).⁷⁴

⁷⁴See Neighbour, 'Orlando Gibbons: The Consort Music', 352. The brief set of periodic

Table 2.3: Keys and entrance pitches of Gibbons’s three-part fantasies. Lowercase letters represent incomplete reports.

MB	Inst.	No.	Final	Sig.	Entrances	Layout
7	Tr/T/B	1	G	b	{D, <D>, {G>, <c>, {C>, <C>, f>, d, d, a	PEn(inv)
8		2	G	b	a, {D, <D>, D>, {A, <A>, {d>, d}	PEn(@1); MTI
9		3	G	b	{D, <D>, D>	PEn(@1)
10		4	D	b	{D, <D>, A>	MTI
11	Tr/Tr/B	5	D	b	{D, <D>, D>	PEn(@1)
12		6	D	b	D, D, A	-
13		7	D	b	D, D, D	-
14		8	D	b	D, A, G, D, A, E, F, C ...	-
15		9	D	b	{D, G}, {G, G}	ID
16	Tr/B/db	1	G	b	{D, G}, D, {D, <G>, {C>, <G>, {D>, G}	ID; PEn
17		2	G	b	{G, D}, {D/C, <C>, {G>, D}	ID; MTI
18		3	D	b	{D, <D/G>, G>, {A/D, D}	PEn; ID
19		4	D	b	D, A, D, D, A, A, C, ...	-

Periodic entries and alternative interlocks

Four of Gibbons’s three-part fantasies – no. 1, no. 2, no. 3 and no. 5 – open with points of imitation featuring periodic entries. The most straightforward examples are no. 3 and no. 5, both of which open with three overlapping entrances of a single subject imitated at the octave (Example 2.21, Example 2.22). The length and complexity of their subjects differs dramatically, but the essential imitative structure is similar. The subject of no. 5 is eight minims long, creating a concise periodic structure consisting of a repeated module of four minims in length (Example 2.21). The subject of fantasia no. 3 is much more substantial: 19 minims in length, creating a repeated module seven minims long (Example 2.22). It might be more useful to think of the imitated melodic material in this piece as a 12-minim subject followed by a 7-minim countersubject, particularly since the countersubject is omitted from the final entrance. Formally, both expositions can be described in Schubert’s terms as ‘periodic entries at the unison’, or *PE_n(@1)*: an imitative layout which appears neither in the *Rules how to Compose* nor in Coprario’s three- or four-part fantasy openings.

Example 2.21: Periodic entries at the unison and octave in Gibbons’s three-part fantasia no. 5

Gibbons’s fantasia no. 2 (*MB* 48 no. 8) opens with a more complex point of imitation, combining two groups of periodic entries with an alternative in-
 entrances near the end of Coprario’s three-part fantasia no. 9 (bb. 50–55) creates a module of only two minims in length.

8	3	2	3	3	1	2	3	4	5	6	6	7	5	5	6	6	8
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

8	3	2	3	3	1	2	3	4	5	6	6	7	5	5	6	6	8
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Example 2.22: Periodic entries at the octave in Gibbons's three-part fantasia no. 3

terlock. In total, it contains eight entries of a subject seven minims in length (Example 2.23). Most of the entries are complete, but the first and last are truncated, with the last including only the first three notes of the subject. The first four entrances are separated by a consistent time interval of four minims, but the very first entrance, on A, is something of a red herring since neither its melodic continuation nor its combination with the following entrance repeats.⁷⁵ The second, third and fourth entrances all begin on D, forming another example of periodic entrances at the unison or octave, similar to the opening of *fantasia* no. 5, but varied through the use of inversion at the octave at the module's second appearance (bb. 7–8). The fifth, sixth and partial seventh entrances (voice III, b. 10; voice II, b. 12; and voice III, b. 14) present a partial repetition of this periodic structure, in which the second presentation of the module is instead varied via inversion at the twelfth, in order to bring in a closing entrance on D. This inversion is only successful for the first three notes of the following part, after which Gibbons breaks off into free imitation. This second group of periodic entries is combined simultaneously with an alternative stretto interlock of the subject in voice I, which follows the preceding entrance in voice II at the upper fourth after a single minim, and must also combine in counterpoint with the following entrance at the lower octave after three minims. The parallelism between the first and second groups of periodic entries, together with the addition of the extra stretto entrance above the second group, represents a striking example of Lester's and Schubert's 'heightening'.

Gibbons's use of periodic entries in *fantasia* no. 2 may be compared most usefully not to any of Coprario's three-part fantasias but to his four-part *fantasia* no. 6 (Example 2.16 above). Both pieces feature three periodic entries preceded by an initial entrance lying outside the periodic scheme. In some respects, Coprario's periodic entries are more contrapuntally complex than Gib-

⁷⁵Schubert describes similar 'red herring' entrances in Palestrina's motets, which likewise function to disguise the presence of the repeated contrapuntal combination that follows. See Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 510, 514.

X
3 5 5 6 3

ic8(X)
6 4 4 3 (3)

X
3 5 5 6 3

ic12(X)
10 8 8

Example 2.23: Two groups of periodic entries, the second 'heightened' through the use of an alternative interlock, in the opening of Gibbons's three-part fantasia no. 2

bons's: they involve entrances on two different pitch levels (D and A), which are accommodated through flexing of the joints between portions of the subject, and they create repeated three-voice complexes, where Gibbons's entries have only two entrances overlapping at a time. In most other respects, however, Gibbons's point of imitation is more sophisticated: Coprario does not use invertible counterpoint to vary the interval of imitation between successive entrances as Gibbons does, and his fantasia has no equivalent for the 'heightening' which Gibbons accomplishes through the introduction of an alternative interlock.

Gibbons's use of 'heightening' in fantasia no. 2 has some structural similarities to the beginning of Coprario's monothematic fantasia no. 9 (Example 2.20), but the resemblance is only general. The repeated complex in Coprario's fantasia no. 9 is an imitative duo with parts in imitation at the fifth after a semibreve. At its second appearance, its last two minims are overlaid with a more distant entrance in the treble, beginning four semibreves after the upper voice of the duo. The amount of overlap between the three entrances is small – a minim and a half – and Coprario has to alter the rhythm of the imitative duo's upper voice in order to accommodate the extra entrance. By contrast, Gibbons's repeated complex in fantasia no. 2 is a set of periodic entries at the semibreve, and the extra entrance superimposed on its second presentation represents a closer interlock, at the distance of a minim. The extra entrance overlaps with the periodic entries in the lower voices for five minims, in three-part stretto for most of that time, and requires no alteration of the subject's rhythm or intervals (although both the final periodic entry and the alternative interlock are cut short in b. 15).

Although it is difficult to understand how Gibbons composed the subject of fantasy no. 2 so as to allow multiple imitative relationships, it seems improbable that the ordering of contrapuntal combinations in the finished passage reflects the order in which they were conceived, as would be implied by the simple methods of maintaining a fuge described by Coprario and (later) by Simpson.

It is not technically difficult to compose a subject whose two halves combine together in good counterpoint, as in bb. 3–9 of Example 2.23, and the preceding two examples (fantasia no. 5, Example 2.21, and fantasia no. 3, Example 2.22): the task is essentially one of ‘unpacking the box’ by composing the duo portion first, and then joining the two halves together. It is less easy to compose a subject which allows both this combination and a closer interlock at the distance of one minim. Drawing on an interval stock would be one way to produce a subject capable of such multiple interlocks, but Gibbons did not do so in this case, since the finished subject contains both rising and falling thirds as well as falling seconds. At a minimum, Gibbons must have had the closer alternative interlock of bb. 12–15 in mind while he worked out the more regular periodic entries of the subject. However this was accomplished, it is clear that the melodic content of the subject and the structure of the imitative section in which it appears exerted a mutual influence on each other.

Sequential imitation

Imitative sections at the opening of a composition are typically associated with modal or tonal stability, as is evident in Coprario’s restriction of entrance pitches to the final and fifth scale degree in almost all of his fantasia openings. One three-part fantasia by Coprario and one by Gibbons, however, abandon this principle in favour of a spiralling point of imitation where the repeated use of imitation at a single interval (either fourth or fifth) brings in entrances on a series of pitches proceeding sequentially away from the starting point. Coprario’s fantasia no. 8 begins with a point of imitation in which consistent use of an interlock at the fifth brings in successive entrances on G, D, A, and E, requiring progressively more sharps with each step around the circle of fifths. Gibbons’s fantasia no. 1 (*MB* 48 no. 7) begins with a spiral of entrances which moves in the opposite direction, using imitation by fourths to bring in successive entrances on D, G, C, and F, and requiring progressively more remote flat inflections. These spiralling points of imitation demonstrate

that the relationship between imitative structure and harmonic regions is not limited to establishing the most important notes of the key at the beginning of a composition, as in Coprario's strictly structured opening points of imitation, nor is a point of imitation that deviates from the standard alternation of two pitch levels always an error or impropriety. Rather, sequential imitative structures like these can provide a way of charting a harmonic course through the remoter regions of pitch space.

Although neither Morley nor Coprario explicitly describes the construction of a point of imitation with sequentially arranged entrances, Morley describes a closely related technique in the form of a continuously repeating canon which descends by one step with each repetition. According to Edward Lowinsky, Morley was the first author to describe such a *canon per tonos*, in which the pitch level of the entrances moves progressively further from the starting point with each repetition.⁷⁶ This instruction appears in the same section of the *Introduction* which describes the composition of catches by 'unpacking the box'. The compositional trick involved, as Morley describes it, is simply to ensure that the canonic subject ends with a cadence on the note below its starting pitch:

to make two partes in one, to be repeated as oft as you will, and at euerie repetition to fall a note [...] though it seeme strange, yet it is performed by taking your finall Cadence one note lower then your first note was, making your first the close⁷⁷

Morley's canonic subject is shown in Example 2.24; a partial resolution of the canon, based on Alec Harman's in his edition of the *Introduction*, is shown in Example 2.25, together with a modular analysis.⁷⁸ Morley describes the effect

⁷⁶Edward E. Lowinsky, 'Music in Titian's Bacchanal of Andrians: Origin and History of the *canon per tonos*', in *Music and Culture of the Renaissance and Other Essays*, ed. Bonnie J. Blackburn, Chicago & London, 1989, cited in Denis Collins, 'Thomas Tomkins's Canonic Additions to Thomas Morley's "A Plaine and Easie Introduction to Practicall Musicke"', *Music & Letters* 76 (Aug., 1995), 350–1.

⁷⁷Morley, 175; Morley, ed. Harman, 287

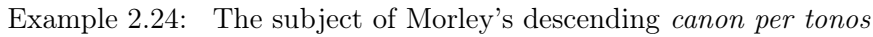
⁷⁸The fourth note in this example (B $\flat$) does not have a flat sign in Morley's text or in Harman's resolution, but the canon becomes considerably more logical if it is assumed. I am grateful to Alan Howard for this suggestion.

of this spiral canon in linear terms, saying that each repetition of the canonic subject falls one step: in the upper voice, the first entrance begins on D, the second on C, and the third (not shown) on B $\flat$, while in the lower voice the entrances begin successively on G, F and so on. Considered as an imitative structure, the canon can alternatively be thought of as a continual succession of periodic entrances at the upper fourth or lower fifth, creating a repeated module which is inverted at the octave at every second appearance. From this perspective, the canon consists of successive periodic entries of a single subject on D, G, C, and F. One can imagine separating out the successive entrances of the subject into different voices, creating the module presentation type which Schubert describes as 'periodic entries in stacked canon' or *PEn(sta)*.⁷⁹ If the imitation in such a stacked canon is intervallically strict, each successive entry will typically use more flat pitches, creating a sequential motion through the circle of fifths: the F entrance in Example 2.25 already requires a D $\flat$, and a hypothetical entrance on B $\flat$ would require a G $\flat$. This may partially explain why Morley presents no resolution of the falling canon, as he does for most of the other canons in this section. If the sequential motion of Example 2.25 were continued much further, it would produce unusual pitches like D $\flat$ and G $\flat$, which are seldom notated in music of this period (Morley even objects to the use of a two-flat signature). Some seventeenth-century English composers notated similar sequential progressions enharmonically, replacing remote flats with their sharp equivalents (C $\sharp$ and F $\sharp$ instead of D $\flat$ and G $\flat$), but this notation, which reflects the use of fretted instruments on which each fret represents one semitone, was probably unattractive to a more conservative and vocally-minded musician like Morley.⁸⁰

The point of imitation that opens Coprario's three-part fantasia no. 8

⁷⁹The term 'stacked canon' comes originally from Alan Gosman, 'Stacked Canon and Renaissance Compositional Procedure', *Journal of Music Theory* 41 (1997), 289–317.

⁸⁰Christopher D. S. Field, 'Jenkins and the Cosmography of Harmony', in *John Jenkins and His Time: Studies in English Consort Music*, ed. Andrew Ashbee and Peter Holman (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1996), 13–29.



In modular terms, Coprario's three-part fantasia no. 8 (Example 2.26) opens with four presentations of a single module, initially in imitative duos (bb. 1–8) and then in a group of three periodic entries (bb. 10–14). Of these four presentations, the first three all involve imitation at the upper fifth after six minims, creating entrances at four different pitch levels: the first pair of entrances begin on G and D (bb. 1–4), the second on D and A (bb. 5–8), and the third on A and E (bb. 10–13). At the final repetition of this imitative relationship, Coprario inverts the parts at the tenth to create an entrance at the sixth below, closing the circle and restoring a measure of harmonic equilibrium by returning to an entrance on G (b. 13). Because the final three entrances on A, E, and G are separated by the constant time interval of four minims, they form a set of periodic entries, in which the first and second entrances are

[illegible]

Example 2.25: Resolution of Morley's *canon per tonos*, after Harman's edition, with modular annotations

X

6 5 6 7 8

D

X

6 5 6 7 8

A

X

6 5 6 7 8

G

[5]

G# avoided

D

ii

9

X

5 6 7 8

E

X

5 6 7 8

D

X

5 6 7 8

A

[4]

D# omitted

ic10(X)

ii

D

G

Example 2.26: A sequential spiral of entrances created by imitation at the upper fifth in the opening of Coprario's three-part fantasia no. 8

related by different intervals of imitation. This is a refinement of the 'stacked canon' demonstrated above: an 'invertible canon' or, in Schubert's terminology, *PEn(inv)*. Schubert identifies the use of invertible canons in Palestrina's music primarily with passages in which inversion is used to maintain modal propriety, by beginning entries 'on two important notes of the mode', and avoiding the continuous sequential motion implied by the stacked canon.⁸¹ Coprario has used a similar technique here for a somewhat different purpose, to halt a sequential process which has already moved well beyond the usual bounds of his own imitative procedures.

A compositional problem inherent to sequential imitative structures like these is the necessity for increasing numbers of flat or sharp inflections as the sequence progresses. Where Morley's continuous canon requires successively more remote flat inflections, Coprario's point of imitation requires successively more sharps with each step around the circle of fifths. Some method of spacing out the entrances in order to extend their arrival at the outer limits of the sequence is required, and Coprario accomplishes this in Example 2.26 in two ways.

First, he begins each successive presentation of the imitative duo with an entrance on the same pitch-class as the previous duo's following part: the second imitative duo begins with an entrance on D (b. 5), and the third with an entrance on A (b. 10). As a result, what could have been a rapid progression through the four different entrance pitches – as would occur in a stacked canon, or if the opening imitative duo were followed by one with entrances on A and E – is replaced by a more leisurely progress, with entrances on G and D (bb. 1–4); D and A (bb. 5–8); and finally A and E (bb. 10–13). Second, Coprario introduces an 'extra' entrance lying outside the principal imitative scheme: the D entrance in bb. 9–10 of voice II, which forms an alternative interlock with the following A entrance in imitation at the fourth below after four minims. The introduction of this D entrance between the D–A interlock of bb. 5–8

⁸¹Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 500.

and the A–E interlock of bb. 10–13 effectively takes one step backward in the sequence before allowing the process to run on to its final conclusion. A final detail which suggests Coprario's compositional control over this process is his delayed introduction of G♯, the most remote sharp pitch used in the passage. A crotchet G♯ leading to a cadence in A might be expected on the downbeat of b. 8 as part of the A entrance in the treble, but Coprario replaces it with a G♮, delaying the introduction of the G♯ for the second entrance on A, in the bass of b. 10. At the parallel place in the E entrance of bar 11, Coprario similarly substitutes a D♮ for D♯ in order to allow the final entrance to return to G and close the sequential circle.

Coprario revisits the use of sequential imitation in the closing bars of fantasy no. 8, whose similarity to the opening bars in imitative structure suggests an intentional attempt to create a structural parallel between the beginning and end of the fantasy. The attempt is barely successful in musical terms: the wayward chromaticism of the resulting passage (Example 2.27) is extremely peculiar, to say the least, both contrapuntally and harmonically. Yet a structural parallel is evidently intended. Like the opening point of imitation, the passage begins and ends with entrances on G and uses repeated imitation at the upper fifth to create a sequence of entrances beginning successively on G, D, A, and finally E, where the progress toward increasingly remote sharp degrees again has to be halted. The later passage does not space out its sequential entrances like the opening: the second presentation of its imitative duo begins with an entrance on A (b. 46), so that the limit of the sequence is reached already with the fourth entrance, on E (b. 47). Coprario then returns to the starting point of the sequence using a simpler expedient than the invertible periodic entries of the opening, restoring a measure of harmonic control by flexing the tail of the fourth entrance, replacing the expected A cadence with a C cadence, and preparing the way for the following bass entrance to begin on C. A final entrance in the same imitative relationship at the fifth returns the sequence to its starting pitch of G to close.

43

3 6 3 4 5 3 5

3 6 3 4 5 3

D

E

G

A

[5]

(4)

49

3 6 3 4 5 3 5

G

C

[5]

Example 2.27: A structural parallel to the opening spiral of entrances near the close of Coprario's three-part fantasia no. 8

The opening of Gibbons's three-part fantasia no. 1 (*MB* 48 no. 7) solves the problems of the sequential stacked canon in a considerably more elegant way by using periodic entries in invertible canon throughout. Its opening section (Example 2.29) resembles the opening of Coprario's no. 8 inasmuch as it uses a repeated imitative interlock to create a sequential structure with entrances on four increasingly remote pitches, but is even more similar to Morley's descending canon in structure. Where Coprario's sequential opening is constructed from imitation at the fifth, requiring increasingly remote sharp inflections, Gibbons's fantasy uses imitation at the fourth, creating a sequence with successive entrances on D, G, C, and F, and requiring increasingly remote flat pitches (B $\flat$, E $\flat$, and finally A $\flat$). Gibbons's sequence progresses more smoothly than Coprario's, moving from 'sharp' toward 'flat' regions of pitch space, the same direction of motion as is produced by cadential progressions. By comparison, Coprario's sequential progression towards sharper regions sounds rather forced, particularly since his subject ends with a cadential figure whose tendency is to move in the opposite direction. In its use of imitation at the fourth, motion towards flats rather than sharps, and periodic entries, Gibbons's point of imitation is much closer to Morley's continuously descending canon and the hypothetical stacked canon which can be extracted from it.

Like Coprario, Gibbons extends his imitative sequence by employing entrances at the octave or unison, but he goes beyond Coprario in structuring the entire point of imitation using periodic entries in invertible counterpoint. Coprario uses a similar technique only at the conclusion of Example 2.26 to close the circle in the last three entrances. Gibbons, by contrast, has composed a subject which allows him to construct the entire lattice of seven periodic entries using varied forms of a single interlock (Example 2.28). When this subject is imitated at the upper octave at the distance of four minims, it produces a short module (six crotchets in length) in double counterpoint at the twelfth. This imitative relationship can be inverted to produce imitation at the lower fifth, and the inverted form can itself be inverted at the octave to produce

The image displays five systems of musical notation, each consisting of two staves (treble and bass clef). The systems are labeled with inversion types and fingerings:

- System 1:** Labeled 'X'. The first staff has a whole rest, and the second staff has a half note G4, quarter notes F#4, E4, D4, and a half note C4. A bracket above the second staff indicates fingerings 3, 5, 3, 3, 3, 8.
- System 2:** Labeled 'ic12(X)'. The first staff has a whole rest, and the second staff has a half note G4, quarter notes F#4, E4, D4, and a half note C4. A bracket above the second staff indicates fingerings 3, 8, 3, 3, 3, 5.
- System 3:** Labeled 'ic8(ic12(X))'. The first staff has a whole rest, and the second staff has a half note G4, quarter notes F#4, E4, D4, and a half note C4. A bracket above the second staff indicates fingerings 6, 8, 6, 6, 6, 4.
- System 4:** Labeled 'ic8(X)'. The first staff has a whole rest, and the second staff has a half note G4, quarter notes F#4, E4, D4, and a half note C4. A bracket above the second staff indicates fingerings 6, 4, 6, 6, 6, 8.
- System 5:** Labeled 'ic10(X)'. The first staff has a whole rest, and the second staff has a half note G4, quarter notes F#4, E4, D4, and a half note C4. A bracket above the second staff indicates fingerings 8, 6, 8, 8, 8, 8.

Each system also includes a third staff with a whole rest, and a fourth staff with a half note G4, quarter notes F#4, E4, D4, and a half note C4. The notation includes various accidentals (sharps, flats) and a key signature of one flat (Bb).

Example 2.28: Successful and unsuccessful inversions of the opening interlock from Gibbons, three-part fantasia no. 1

imitation at the upper fourth. (This operation can alternatively be conceptualised as 'uninverted double counterpoint at the fourth' or 'dc4').⁸² In the finished lattice, the original form of the module is presented twice: once by the first and second entrances (bb. 3–4) and once by the fifth and sixth entrances (bb. 11–12). Its inversion at the twelfth is presented once in complete form (bb. 7–8) and once altered by splicing a cadential figure into melody ii (bb. 13–14). (It is noteworthy that this alteration is necessitated only by the need for some partial harmonic closure to end the sequence of entrances, not by any contrapuntal difficulty.) The variant of the module treated in uninverted double counterpoint at the fourth is presented once, by the second and third entrances (bb. 5–6). One other transformation does not work out: the parts of the interlock formed by imitation at the upper octave cannot be exchanged without creating a dissonant fourth on the second beat (Example 2.28, fourth staff). For this reason, the C entrance in bb. 7–8 of voice II has to be truncated, omitting melody ii from this entrance alone.

Unlike the subject of Coprario's fantasia no. 8, Gibbons's subject cannot return to its starting entrance pitch within the invertible canon: to do so would require inverting the original imitative interlock at the tenth to produce imitation at the lower third or upper sixth, an operation which results in parallel octaves (Example 2.28, lowest staff). Instead, Gibbons returns from the F entrance of b. 13 to the D entrance of b. 17 via a transitional passage based on the four-note descending scale motive in quavers which joins the two halves of the subject. This figure lies outside the module whose varied repetitions

⁸²See Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 520, n. 49. Other theorists have treated double counterpoint operations with and without inversion on an equal footing, without giving priority to inversion. For example, Christopher Segall writes of the 'vertical-shifting counterpoint' defined by Sergei Taneev in 1909 that 'one of Taneev's insights is that the fundamental element of invertible counterpoint is not the registral swapping of the voices, but rather the vertical shift involved.' (Christopher Segall, 'Sergei Taneev's Vertical-Shifting Counterpoint: An Introduction', *Music Theory Online* 20 (2014)). Since invertible counterpoint is better-attested in historical sources than double counterpoint without inversion, it is arguably easier to imagine sixteenth- and seventeenth-century composers conceptualising this operation as two successive inversions, as Alan Howard has pointed out to me (private communication).

X
 $\boxed{3 \ 5 \ 3 \ 3 \ 3 \ 3 \ 8}$

ic8(ic12(X)) = dc4(X)
 $\boxed{6 \ 8 \ 6 \ 6 \ 6 \ 6}$

ic12(X)
 $\boxed{3 \ 1 \ 3 \ 3 \ 3 \ 3 \ 5}$

X
 $\boxed{3 \ 5 \ 3 \ 3 \ 3 \ 3 \ 8}$

[ic12(X)]
 $\boxed{3 \ 3 \ 3 \ 3 \ 5}$

(ii)

(D♭ omitted)

Example 2.29: Periodic entries in invertible canon in the opening of Gibbons's three-part fantasia no. 1 (MB7)

generate the opening sequential lattice of entrances: it joins melody i to melody ii, but does not itself participate in their repeated contrapuntal combination within the series of periodic entries. By drawing on this portion of the subject for the transitional episode that follows the sequence of entries, Gibbons makes use of every part of the subject in some way in the point of imitation as a whole.

Spiralling, sequential points of imitation like these were not new in the early seventeenth century, yet Gibbons's and Coprario's exploration of their sequential possibilities at the outset of a composition goes a step beyond their use in more conservative repertoires like the Palestrina motets Schubert analyses. Like the simpler stacked canon, Coprario's sequence of imitative duos and Gibbons's invertible canon create entrances on at least three pitch classes separated by fourths or fifths. As Schubert notes, this procedure contradicts the usual modal propriety of an opening point of imitation, since 'a modal center, which is normally defined by two notes (the final and the fifth), is vitiated'.⁸³ Schubert notes that Palestrina never places a stacked canon at the beginning of a composition, presumably for this reason. Furthermore, even within the body of a composition Palestrina's stacked canons seldom extend to more than three different entrance pitches: in the 1564 collection of motets on which Schubert's analyses focus, there is only one stacked canon with entrances on four different pitches (E, A, D, and G).⁸⁴ By contrast, both Gibbons and Coprario begin their fantasies with a sequential point of imitation containing entrances on four different notes. The invertible canon technique which Gibbons uses in Example 2.29 could be used to restore modal propriety, but Gibbons has not employed it to this end: instead he retains the problematic aspect of the stacked canon – its variety of different entrance pitches – and smooths over the harmonic gaps evident in Coprario's rougher sequential imitations through his skillful use of invertible counterpoint. This interest in exploiting imitative principles for har-

⁸³Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 499.

⁸⁴Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 499, n. 28.

monic ends would be taken up by later composers including Purcell, as Alan Howard describes in his analysis of Purcell's three-part fantasia no. 8:

Purcell often uses fugal entries for specific harmonic purposes. [...] Some of the more distant modulations can also be attributed to particular fugal processes, in particular the notable tendency of the section to modulate flatwards towards E♭ major and C minor. [...] Such a prominent harmonic trait has a notable impact on the remainder of the fantasia: the penultimate section strays as far as A♭ major, and the persistence of E♭s in the closing bars makes the final cadence sound more like an imperfect cadence in G minor than a full close on D.⁸⁵

Gibbons returns to sequential imitation created through the use of an invertible canon with impressive results in the opening of his first three-part fantasia with double bass (*MB* 48 no. 16, Example 2.30). Like the published three-part fantasy no. 1 analysed above (*MB* 48 no. 7), this piece has a G final and a flat signature, includes entrances in a periodic arrangement on D, G, and C, and reaches as far as A♭ in tonal compass, but no further. It differs from the published fantasy in its use of stacked canons at two different time and pitch intervals, creating a series of entries which move away from and back to the starting entrance pitch of D in continuously overlapping sequential entrances. The nine entrances of the section consist of an imitative duo (bb. 1–6); a semi-imitative presentation of the same module, together with a 'shadow' in parallel thirds (bb. 8–13); two overlapping stacked canons at different pitch and time intervals (bb. 14–25); and a final reprise of the opening imitative duo (bb. 26–29). All the contrapuntal material from which the section is constructed is contained within the opening imitative duo, in which the following part enters at the lower fifth after two semibreves. The first of the two stacked canons extends this relationship into a set of three periodic entries, comprising the treble D entrance in b. 14, the bass viol G entrance in b. 16, and the double bass C entrance in b. 18. As in the published fantasy no. 1, the C entrance brings A♭s with it, but the double-bass fantasy has no entrance corresponding

⁸⁵Howard, 'Purcell and the Poetics of Artifice', 130–131.

to the truncated F entrance in the published fantasy, possibly because an F entrance of its subject would already require a D $\flat$ at its third note. Instead, Gibbons returns to the starting point in a second stacked canon, this one in imitation at the upper fifth at a different time interval (three semibreves), and formed by the double bass C entrance, the treble G entrance (b. 21) and the bass viol D entrance (b. 24). By extending the sequential construction in this manner, Gibbons tightens the imitative logic of the sequence beyond that in the published fantasy, departing from and returning to the starting point in continuously interlocked imitation at two different time intervals. One more repetition of the opening imitative duo (bb. 26–29) closes the point of imitation.

Despite the presence of two different interlocks in the stacked canons of Example 2.30, all of this imitative working out involves only the varied repetition of a single module. This is made possible by the construction of the subject, which begins and ends with stepwise descents on the level of a semibreve (melody i), surrounding a more active central motive (melody ii). The first consequence of this construction is that the interlock at the lower fifth contains not one but two repetitions of the module, the second varied through inversion at the tenth (bb. 2–3 and 4–5). When this interlock is formed into a stacked canon starting in b. 14, the use of invertible counterpoint at the tenth allows melody ii to sound simultaneously against two copies of melody i a tenth apart on either side (bb. 18–19). In this respect, the stacked canon of the double-bass fantasy exceeds the invertible canon of the published three-part fantasy in contrapuntal concentration, since it embraces all three sounding voices. The second consequence of the subject's construction is that the more distant imitative interlock – at the upper fifth after three semibreves – reproduces a portion of the same contrapuntal combination as the closer interlock, at the lower fifth after two semibreves, since in either imitative relationship, melody ii combines in counterpoint with a descending semibreve scale in the other voice. This is most clearly seen in bb. 20–22 of Example 2.30, where the stepwise descent of

The image displays a musical score for 'The Lord's Prayer' by J. S. Bach, BWV 100. The score is written for four parts: Treble, Bass, Organ, and Double Bass. The first system of the score is shown, with the Treble and Bass parts featuring a melody and the Organ and Double Bass parts providing a figured bass accompaniment. The figured bass notation is written in a standard format, with numbers 1-7 representing the notes of the scale and letters (X, D, C, G) representing specific chords or intervals. The Organ part includes a 'shadow' notation, which is a simplified version of the figured bass. The Double Bass part includes a 'D' notation, which is a simplified version of the figured bass. The score is annotated with various musical symbols, including accidentals, slurs, and dynamic markings. The overall style is that of a classical musical score, with a focus on the harmonic structure and the relationship between the different parts.

Example 2.30: Two successive stacked canons at different pitch and time intervals in the opening of Gibbons's first fantasia for treble, bass and double bass with organ (*MB* 48 no. 16).

melody i begins in the bass viol as the tail motive of the leading part in the closer interlock, but continues in the treble as the head motive of the following part in the more distant interlock. Gibbons has compensated for the shorter overlap between the voices of the more distant interlock by introducing portions of the subject in semi-imitative fashion in the lower voices of bb. 22–23, where there would otherwise be a lacuna in imitative activity. The overall result is an unusually high degree of motivic saturation even by Gibbons's standards: every bar from b. 16 to the end of the section in b. 29 contains at least one presentation of the fundamental module, and almost every note in the three voices participates in the imitative process.

Borrowing or critique?



Example 2.31: Opening subjects of Coprario's three-part fantasia no. 4 (C10) and Gibbons's three-part fantasia no. 4 (MB 10) compared

Only one of Gibbons's published three-part fantasies closely resembles one of Coprario's in both its subject material and its imitative construction. Gibbons's fantasia no. 4 and Coprario's fantasia no. 4 are notably similar to each other in both respects, and different from either composer's typical practice in other three-part pieces, suggesting either a common inspiration or the deliberate modelling of one piece on the other.⁸⁶ The resemblance begins with their subjects, which have similar phrase structures consisting of three segments separated by rests, and several motives in common (Example 2.31). There is a particularly strong resemblance between their first segments, which are near-inversions of each other. Although the inversionsal relationship is not exact, the two opening segments have identical rhythms and analogous contours, each consisting of a canzona figure followed by a leap of a fourth and a return to the starting note. Similarities between the remaining segments of the two subjects are equally notable. Although no portion of Gibbons's subject corresponds to Coprario's second segment in contour, the two subjects' respective second segments have virtually the same rhythm, and Gibbons's subject includes not one but two segments with similar melodic contours to Coprario's segment 'z', with its zigzag of falling fourths separated by a rising second. Another figure with a close resemblance to this motive also follows the initial entrances of the

⁸⁶The fact that both pieces are numbered fourth in their respective sets is coincidental: the numbering of Gibbons's fantasies is historical, deriving from their order in the 1620 publication, but Coprario's fantasies appear in many different orders in their manuscript copies, and the modern numbering is based on grouping them by key.

main subject in Gibbons's fantasy, in the upper parts of bb. 13–15 (Example 2.33).

The resemblance between the imitative layout of the two fantasies' opening points is equally striking. Coprario's piece (Example 2.32) is set in A; Gibbons's (Example 2.33) in D. Both fantasies begin with a tenor entrance on the final of the key, followed by a bass entrance at the lower octave, and then, after a somewhat longer separation, by a treble entrance at the upper fifth. Gibbons's arrangement of entrances is more metrically regular than Coprario's, in keeping with his general preference for evenly spaced entrances: where Coprario's second and third entrances are separated by three and nine minims respectively from the preceding entrances, the corresponding entrances in Gibbons's fantasy come in after four and six minims.

In both fantasies, the arrangement of entrances requires a subject capable of multiple alternative interlocks, but Gibbons's point of imitation is considerably more involved than Coprario's. The three alternative interlocks of Coprario's subject are displayed on separate staves in Example 2.34, those of Gibbons's subject in Example 2.35. The closest interlock of Coprario's subject involves ten minims of overlap, while the parts of the next closest interlock overlap for four minims, and those of the most distant imitative relationship only for a single minim. By contrast, all three interlocks in Gibbons's fantasy involve significant contrapuntal interaction between the parts: the parts of the closest interlock overlap for 13 minims, those of the next longest for 11 minims, and of the most distant interlock for seven minims. In the completed points of imitation fashioned from these interlocks, Coprario's three entrances overlap only very briefly in a three-part complex (Example 2.32, first minim beat of b. 4), but Gibbons brings all three parts together in strict stretto for seven minims (Example 2.33, bb. 6–9). If Gibbons's fantasia indeed represents a response to Coprario's, then, it appears to also be an attempt to improve on its model, and perhaps to demonstrate superior skill.

M 6 3 3 3 6 3 0 3

ic8(M) 3 6 6 3 6 0 6

5

Example 2.32: Opening point of imitation from Coprario's three-part fantasia no. 4

N 3 3 3 4 5 6 8

P 10 9 8 3 3 4 5 6

ic12(N) 3 3 8 7 5

ic12(P) 3 4 5 6 3 2 1 3

new subject

Example 2.33: Opening point of imitation from Gibbons's three-part fantasia no. 4

The musical score is presented in three systems, each containing two staves. The first system consists of a treble clef staff and a bass clef staff. The second system also consists of a treble clef staff and a bass clef staff. The third system consists of a treble clef staff and a bass clef staff. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, accidentals, and brackets, with letters x, y, z, and j marking specific points of interest.

Example 2.34: Alternative interlocks of the subject in Coprario's three-part fantasia no. 4

The musical score is presented in three systems, each with two staves (treble and bass clef). The first system features a bracketed section labeled 'N' with two boxes: one containing '3 3 (4) 5 6 8' and another labeled 'ic12(N)' containing '3 3 8 7 5'. The second system includes a bracketed section labeled 'x'' and a sequence of notes '3 6 8 6 8 7 6'. The third system includes a bracketed section labeled 'x'' and a sequence of notes '10 6 5 8 9 10 10 9 8'. The fourth system includes a bracketed section labeled 'x'' and a sequence of notes '10 6 5 8 9 10 10 9 8'. The fifth system includes a bracketed section labeled 'x'' and a sequence of notes '10 6 5 8 9 10 10 9 8'. The sixth system includes a bracketed section labeled 'x'' and a sequence of notes '10 6 5 8 9 10 10 9 8'. The score includes various musical notations such as notes, rests, and brackets.

Example 2.35: Alternative interlocks of the subject in Gibbons's three-part fantasia no. 4

Comparing the modular structure of the two opening points strengthens the impression of greater contrapuntal artifice in Gibbons's fantasy. Although neither Gibbons nor Coprario repeats more than one of their subjects' interlocks in full as a module, both fantasies' opening sections include varied modular repetition, either as part of the imitative framework or in addition to it. Coprario's point of imitation has one repeated module, labelled 'M' in Example 2.32. At its first appearance, in bb. 3–4, it is formed by the overlap of motive 'z' in voice II with the tail of motive 'y' and the first note of motive 'z' in voice III. The module is repeated in voices I and III in bb. 5–6, where it is inverted at the octave. This is a semi-imitative (*Sim*) presentation, since one of the melodies of the module appears outside of its usual melodic context at the second repetition: in this case Coprario has introduced an extra copy of motive 'z' in the bass without the two preceding motives that make up the subject as a whole.⁸⁷

Where Coprario's point of imitation has one repeated module, Gibbons's has two, both varied through inversion at the twelfth. The shorter of the two modules, labelled 'N' in Example 2.33, occurs within the closest imitative interlock of the subject. Because motive 'z' occurs twice within the subject, it combines with the first four notes of motive 'w' twice, once below them (bb. 6–7) and once above (bb. 8–9), and because it is transposed a fifth higher at its second appearance, the second presentation of the module is inverted at the twelfth. This is reminiscent of the construction of the subject from the first three-part fantasy with double bass, which interlocks with itself to produce two presentations of a single module which is inverted at the tenth at its second appearance. A further slight change results from the alteration of the motive's rhythm to omit the passing dissonant fourth at its second appearance.

The second repeated module in Gibbons's fantasy, labelled 'P', is analogous to the single repeated module 'M' in Coprario's fantasia. The two modules share a similar motive (melody i in each) and appear in the same pairs of

⁸⁷Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 511–513.

voices: first in voice II and III (bb. 3–4 in Coprario, bb. 9–11 in Gibbons), then inverted in voice I and III (bb. 5–6 in Coprario, bb. 12–14 in Gibbons). Coprario's module is semi-imitative, repeating a portion of the initial imitative interlock, while Gibbons's module is a non-imitative duo formed by the combination of a new motive (melody i) with the tail of the original subject (melody ii). The new motive first appears immediately following voice II's entrance, in b. 9. It is closely related to motive 'z', but altered slightly in rhythm and melodic intervals. The other voice of the module is provided by the tail of the subject in voice III. Gibbons repeats the module in inversion where voice I has the corresponding portion of the subject in bb. 12–14, placing melody i in the bass. Where Coprario inverts his module at the octave, Gibbons uses inversion at the twelfth – perhaps another attempt to improve upon the work of his colleague.

Although a modular analysis of the two fantasies' opening sections suggests several ways in which Gibbons's fantasy exceeds Coprario's in imitative concentration, a purely modular analysis of either passage would miss its most interesting feature: in both pieces, the artifice consists not primarily in the varied repetition of structural units, but in the construction of a substantial subject which allows three different imitative relationships, and (in Gibbons's case) a significant passage of three-part stretto. How was this accomplished? The division of both subjects into three segments whose lengths roughly parallel the separation between entrances suggests the hypothesis that they were somehow composed incrementally, segment by segment. Closer analysis shows that this hypothesis might indeed account for Coprario's fantasia, but is more problematic when applied to Gibbons.

Example 2.36 shows one conjecture as to how Coprario might have worked out the first imitative section of his fantasia. As the first stage, I hypothesise that Coprario could have begun in the manner later described by Simpson: choosing a head motive (segment 'x') and laying it out in fugal 'platforms', arranging the three entrances in their final positions with respect to time,

The musical score is divided into three stages, each with three staves (Treble, Middle, Bass).
Stage 1: The Treble staff has a whole rest followed by a quarter rest, then a half note G4. The Middle staff has a half note G4, then a quarter note A4, then a half note B4. The Bass staff has a half note G2, then a quarter note A2, then a half note B2.
Stage 2: The Treble staff has a whole rest followed by a quarter rest, then a half note G4. The Middle staff has a half note G4, then a quarter note A4, then a half note B4. The Bass staff has a half note G2, then a quarter note A2, then a half note B2. A bracket labeled 'new' is under the middle staff's half note B4.
Stage 3: The Treble staff has a whole rest followed by a quarter rest, then a half note G4. The Middle staff has a half note G4, then a quarter note A4, then a half note B4. The Bass staff has a half note G2, then a quarter note A2, then a half note B2. A bracket labeled 'new' is under the middle staff's half note B4. A bracket labeled 'ii' is under the middle staff's half note B4. A bracket labeled 'new' is under the middle staff's half note B4.

Example 2.36: Conjectural compositional process for the opening of Coprario's fantasia no. 4

pitch, and voice. Coprario might have continued filling out this structure in one of at least two ways: either by composing segment 'y' of the subject as a counterpoint to the bass entrance, or by composing segment 'z' in counterpoint to the treble entrance. As shown in stage 2 of the example, I suggest that the second possibility is easier to accept as a hypothesis, for several reasons. First, segment 'x' in the treble lines up neatly with segment 'z' in the bass, and the relationship between the two is very close, with all but the last two notes of segment 'z' shadowing segment 'x' in tenths. Second, segment 'z' is more distinctive than segment 'y', and is treated thematically later, where it forms one voice of the semi-imitative module 'M'. Finally, this order of composition makes the final addition of segment 'y' relatively straightforward, as shown in Stage 3 of the example. The first half of segment 'y' (middle voice, b. 2) must combine in counterpoint with the tail of segment 'x' in the bass, and the second half (bass, b. 3) with the head of segment 'z' in the middle voice, but very little

of the segment – or of the subject as a whole – must be constructed explicitly to satisfy more than one imitative relationship.

The musical score is divided into four stages, each consisting of three staves (Soprano, Alto, Bass). Stage 1 shows the initial subject in the Soprano. Stage 2 shows the subject in the Alto and Bass. Stage 3 shows the subject in the Soprano and Bass. Stage 4 shows the subject in the Alto and Bass. The score includes various musical notations such as rests, eighth notes, and sixteenth notes, as well as labels 'x' and 'z' indicating specific points of interest.

Example 2.37: Conjectural compositional process for the opening of Gibbons's fantasia no. 4

Although the process outlined in Example 2.36 is probably too mechanistic to be an accurate representation of Coprario's empirical actions, it illustrates

how the subject of Coprario's fantasy could have been constructed without needing to consider relationships of more than two voices at a time. It is more difficult to imagine a similar process by which Gibbons could have composed the subject of his fantasy, as is attempted in Example 2.37. Once the initial platforms of Gibbons's fantasy are laid down, it does not make much difference whether we posit first adding the third segment ('w') or the second segment ('z'): in either case, the arrangement of the entrances means that it will very shortly be necessary to consider any newly-added segments in two different imitative contexts. It is perhaps slightly easier to imagine the addition of segment 'z' first, as shown in Stage 2; if Gibbons was indeed drawing on the materials of Coprario's fantasy, it would make sense to try to incorporate the borrowed motive early on in the inventive process, when there are fewer contrapuntal restrictions on what may be done. Even at this early stage, the newly added segment has to satisfy two different relationships: its second half has to combine satisfactorily both with the second half of motive 'x' in b. 4, and with its first half in b. 6. At the putative Stage 3, matters would become even more complex, with the newly-added segment 'w' having to combine either with the existing framework of 'x' and 'z' (in bb. 6–7) and in a different relationship with 'z' alone (in bb. 8–10). Although none of this is inconceivable, it does not greatly simplify the task of working out the subject.

An alternative explanation for Gibbons's compositional process in these bars draws on the concept of 'unpacking the box' hinted at in Morley's discussion of composing a catch. As Example 2.38 shows, the completed three-part stretto of fantasia no. 4 can be broken down into three related complexes presenting different permutations of four different melodic segments: first melodies i and ii together; then melody i above melodies iii and iv; and finally melody ii above melodies iv and iii, which are inverted at the tenth. (Melody i corresponds to motive x; melodies ii and iii to the first and second half of motive z, respectively; and melody iv to motive w). The existence of these three different permutations – i and ii together, followed by i and ii separately, each with a

The image displays a musical score for the opening of Gibbons's fantasia no. 4, featuring three staves (treble, alto, and bass clefs) with imitative relationships labeled i, ii, iii, and iv. The score is written in a single system with a large bracket on the left. The first staff (treble clef) begins with a rest, followed by a melodic line starting on G4. The second staff (alto clef) begins with a rest, followed by a melodic line starting on E4. The third staff (bass clef) begins with a rest, followed by a melodic line starting on C4. The melodic lines are connected by horizontal lines, indicating imitative relationships. The labels i, ii, iii, and iv are placed above the staves, indicating the order of the imitative entries. The score is written in a single system with a large bracket on the left.

Example 2.38: The opening of Gibbons's fantasia no. 4 analysed as three presentations of a single four-voice imitative relationship.

different arrangement of iii and iv – suggests that all three might be drawn from a single four-part complex in which all four melodies are combined. According to this method, Gibbons could first have worked out the combination of all four melodies together, and then extracted the three concrete combinations from it. Unfortunately, this explanation is not entirely plausible, as shown in Example 2.39: the combination of all four melodies together produces sonorities like the minor seventh chord in the first bar which would not be acceptable in an actual composition. Even so, it seems possible that Gibbons had something like this four-part combination in mind while working out the combinations of his subject. John Milsom has described a method hinted at in Morley's text, by which a subject can be composed which will allow combination with either one of two different pre-existing plainchant subjects, even if they are not capable of combining with each other. For this purpose, the student is to imagine superimposing the two segments of plainchant on each other; the intervals produced by this hypothetical superposition, whether consonant or dissonant, then determine which pitches may be used to form a subject which will combine with either segment. Although this exact method would not have availed Gibbons in his composition of a free fantasia subject, it suggests that a combination of melodies which is unusable as it stands, such as Example 2.39, might nevertheless play a role in the compositional process. What can be asserted with confidence is that Gibbons's choice of imitative layout in his fantasy no. 4 committed him to a more complex inventive process than would have been required by Coprario's fantasy no. 4.

The surface similarities between Gibbons's fantasia no. 4 and Coprario's fantasia no. 4 are clear, both in subject matter and imitative construction. More detailed analysis shows that Gibbons has improved upon Coprario's work by increasing the amount of modular repetition, by using double counterpoint at the twelfth instead of at the octave, and by employing an imitative scheme which places more complex restrictions on the subject. As with many cases of contrapuntal artifice, the difference in complexity between Gibbons's and



Example 2.39: Hypothetical combination of all four melodies from Example 2.38, with contrapuntal problems

Coprario's expositions is not immediately apprehended by the ear: it may be more for the satisfaction of the composer (and perhaps the players) than for any other listener. If Gibbons's piece is indeed a response to Coprario's, its evident intention to go beyond its model suggests that it represents not simple borrowing or influence but an implicit critique.

2.5 Varieties of imitation

Examining only the opening points of imitation in Gibbons's and Coprario's three-part fantasies is already sufficient to give a clear impression of two distinctive approaches. A fuller stylistic comparison should also consider the kinds of imitative writing used in the later sections of their fantasies, which differ even more substantially. Although there is not space to explore this topic in full here, a brief examination shows that in this area the two composers' practices differ even more than in their opening points.

The subjects and the imitative structures of later sections in Coprario's three- and four-part fantasies typically resemble those of his opening sections. In some pieces this resemblance is so close as to create a structural parallelism between different sections. One example of this has already been presented in Coprario's three-part fantasia no. 8, where the sequential process of the opening is revisited in another imitative section near the close (Examples 2.26 and 2.27 above). Another comes from Coprario's three-part fantasia no. 1, which can be divided into four main imitative sections separated by free transitions. Of these four sections, the first and the third (Example 2.40(a) and (c)) are both structured in the pair-plus-one arrangement typical of Coprario's three-part writing: a single imitative interlock of the subject followed by a separate singleton entrance in the third part. The second section (Example 2.40(b)) resembles this pattern if attention is paid only to the motive labelled 'ii', which appears twice in overlapping entries (bb. 6–7) followed by a third, non-overlapping appearance in a different voice (b. 10). The real structure of this section is a repeated non-imitative duo, formed by the upper voices in b. 7 and repeated in partial form in bb. 10 and 11. These module presentations are separated by a singleton entrance of the module's melody i in b. 9, and by what might be called a 'hybrid singleton' composed of the head of melody i with the tail of melody ii, in b. 7–8. Coprario returns to the non-imitative duo structure in the fourth and final section of the fantasy, where a repeated module

is extracted from counterpoint based on the interval stock of rising thirds and falling fourths in combination with a slower stepwise descent (Example 2.41). It is in the nature of such sequential patterns to create repeated sequences of intervals, but here Coprario initially holds the combinatorial possibilities of the interval stock in reserve. The first two presentations of the module (bb. 31–32) consist solely of the rising-third/falling-fourth figure in thirds and fourths in counterpoint against the descending line; only in the later, inverted presentations (bb. 36–39) does Coprario add additional counterpoints based on the same interval stock. This technique resembles Gibbons's use of standard division figures to prefigure the arrival of a stretto sequence in the five-part *In nomine* discussed in the previous chapter (*MB* 48 no. 27). For Gibbons and Coprario alike, sequential stretto patterns like this seem to be associated with the formal function of concluding, and would sound out of place as an opening gesture.

Other Coprario fantasies show more diversity of imitative structure, but still generally use similar kinds of subjects and layouts throughout. This is the case with four-part fantasia no. 2, four of whose five imitative sections are constructed from imitative duos and singleton entrances, in varying combinations. The first section consists of two repetitions of an imitative duo, separated by a singleton entrance and followed by three more singletons, as described above. The second section contains only singleton entrances (bb. 21–25), while the third section contains only repetitions of an imitative duo (bb. 26–38). The third section is unusually long, containing four repetitions of the module, the third one varied through inversion. The fourth section more closely resembles the opening, once again consisting of two repetitions of an imitative duo separated and followed by singleton entrances (bb. 38–48). Finally, as in the three-part fantasy, the closing imitative section beginning in b. 48 uses a different kind of imitative structure, which could be loosely described as 'double fuge', though with less repetition of contrapuntal combinations than is typical.

(a)

(b)

(c)

Example 2.40: Parallel imitative structures in three points of imitation from Copratio's three-part fantasia no. 1. (Intervening non-imitative sections are not shown).

X
ic8(ic10(X))

30 (d)

ic12(X)
ic12(X)

36

Example 2.41: Sequential imitation in the last imitative section from Coprario's three-part fantasia no. 1.

As with the three-part piece, with the exception of this final section, the bulk of the fantasy consists of subjects of similar length, imitated using similar means.

By contrast, the later sections of Gibbons's fantasies are very different from their opening points of imitation. As Neighbour observes, the imitation of long, clearly-defined melodic subjects generally defines only the first point of imitation, after which later sections turn to other kinds of polyphony:

Only the opening point is likely to be worked out at all fully; later ones will be very short, so that a brief exposition will serve merely as one means of articulating the flow of three-part writing. The part-writing itself is very closely coordinated by dense motivic exchange; sometimes one part will be played off against the others, but it will soon rejoin them, or another will take its place. The brevity of the motives and the quick responsiveness of the parts to each other's initiatives give rise to a musical continuum of extraordinary flexibility.⁸⁸

One exception to this observation is Gibbons's three-part fantasia no. 4, whose opening point of imitation is followed by at least six successive sections on related subjects, all laid out in overlapping entrances whose layout in terms of pitch and time-separation roughly parallels the opening. Motivic and sequential writing takes over this fantasy only in b. 49, rather later than in most of the other three-part fantasies for the same combination of instruments. This resemblance with Coprario's typical procedures once again suggests a connection to Coprario's fantasia no. 4. A more general exception to Neighbour's characterisation is that its references to Gibbons's 'brief motives' omit a striking aspect of later sections of Gibbons's fantasies, whose motivic repetitions frequently fall into very strict canon or *stretto fuga* based on sequential patterns. The musical texture of these segments could just as well be described as one of extraordinary strictness as one of extraordinary flexibility.

Gibbons's third three-part fantasia (*MB* 48 no. 9) is a good illustration of how he employs imitative variety to structure a composition. Its opening point of imitation, as described above, consists of a substantial subject presented in

⁸⁸Neighbour, 'Orlando Gibbons: The Consort Music', 352.

periodic entries. The contrast between this opening and the imitative writing which follows it could hardly be more plain. In the three imitative sections between b. 20 and b. 35, the longest motive is only 2 minims in length (bb. 20–27), and the other two motives are even shorter. All three of these points are treated in close imitation, generally in all three parts, with results often resembling the sequential patterns of the previous chapter: the three-part stretto exchange of bb. 28–29, for instance, consists essentially of embellished rising thirds and falling fourths, while bb. 31–33 are an embellishment of descending scalar figures in crotchets. The subject of the following section (bb. 36–45) is slightly longer and more melodically defined, but still flexible enough to permit multiple interlocks: its two groups of entrances could be described as small-scale instances of multiple time intervals (bb. 36–40) and periodic entrances (bb. 42–45). All of these later sections are very different from the lengthy melodic imitation used in the opening bars, and from the later sections of Coprario's fantasies.

The next two sections of the fantasia are different again: from b. 47 onward, Gibbons extends the brief motivic strettos of earlier sections into two longer passages of strict three-part stretto (bb. 47–51 and 52–61). The relationship between the parts in each of these two segments is almost identical: in each case the bass enters first, followed after one minim by the treble, and after a second minim by the tenor, one at the octave above the bass, and the other at the fourth or fifth. Like the shorter motives of preceding sections, the subjects of these longer stretto passages come from divisions on simple counterpoint patterns, now drawn out to considerably greater length, and their evenly-spaced entrances create the typical voice-leading structure of such patterned strettos: the lower parts move together in parallel thirds or tenths, out of phase with the treble, which rests or holds when the lower parts move, and moves when they rest. The subject of bars 47–51 is essentially a descending scale in minims in which every second note is embellished with divisions. In imitation, it forms a faburden-like texture of descending 6/3 chords, in which only the divisions

which appear alternately in the lower and upper parts preserve the impression of independent voices in imitation. The subject of bb. 52–61 is also based on descending lines, now in crotchets rather than minims. In outline, it consists of several repetitions of a three-note descending figure, some plain and some decorated, each one beginning one note higher than the previous. The interlocked parts move exclusively in parallel thirds; Gibbons avoids parallel fifths by placing rests between successive descending figures, so that only two parts ever move together at one time.

Following the extended three-part canons, Gibbons finishes fantasy no. 3 with a return to short motivic points. The motivic kernel of these closing bars is a short dotted figure with a strong implication of triple meter, repeated sequentially in ascending chains which increase in length from b. 62 to the end. Its first entrances gesture toward a synthesis of motivic and melodic imitation, combining short motivic chains with longer melodic ideas in the other parts (bb. 62–65, bb. 68–72). Once again, Gibbons seems to have considered sequential and motivic writing more suited to the formal function of concluding. The fantasy finishes with a motivically saturated texture based on the imitation of longer motivic chains, whose conflicting metrical implications are played off against each and against the prevailing duple time. This rhythmic activity reaches its high point just before the final close, in b. 78, where all three parts have overlapping entrances of the motive with different subjective accents.

The imitation of motivic chains like this represents a distinctive type of polyphony, in which the rhythmic or metrical effects of imitation often seem as significant as the harmonic combinations it produces. Similar passages can be identified in several other Gibbons fantasies. Three-part fantasia no. 8 (*MB* 48, no. 14) begins with the imitation of a motive almost identical to the closing figure of no. 3, creating a similarly polymetrical feeling in which triple and duple time compete. The same figure produces a more extended and striking effect in the final imitative section of six-part fantasy no. 4 (*MB* 48, no. 34), in which Gibbons draws it into much longer motivic chains, combining them with

descending scales in other parts in a sequence of false closes. As in three-part fantasia no. 3, the turn to sequential, motivic writing in the six-part fantasy has the function of bringing the fantasia to a close. By contrast, three-part fantasia no. 8 inverts the common structural functions of these different types of imitation, beginning with a type of writing which more typically indicates a conclusion. Three-part fantasia no. 6 (*MB* 48 no. 12) also begins with sequential and motivic writing, and ends with the imitation of a longer, more traditionally melodic subject (bb. 39–48). It seems likely that these formal inversions are connected to different conceptions of the fantasia genre: the fantasias in which motivic, sequential writing appears as a closing gesture are scored for traditional ensembles of equal viols, while the fantasias which open with motivic writing are scored for the more 'modern' combination of two trebles and bass.

2.6 Conclusion

In the conclusion of his study of modular structure in Palestrina's motets, Peter Schubert writes that 'modular analysis gives us a tool we can use in benchmarking stylistic mannerisms in other collections of pieces, in pieces for more voices, in pieces in other genres, and in pieces by other composers.'⁸⁹ Similarly, in one of the first articles to develop the theoretical vocabulary of *fuga* and interlocks at length, John Milsom poses the question of whether composers' varying approaches to imitative composition might be likened to the distinctive technical approaches of visual artists: 'individually distinctive brushstroke techniques and other strategies [...] developed partly through different traditions of apprenticeship or idiosyncrasy of approach, partly in an attempt to achieve desired effects.'⁹⁰ Milsom answers this question in the affirmative, arguing that subtle differences between the imitative techniques of Clemens and Crecquillon are sufficiently distinctive to resolve a long-standing problem of attribution in the

⁸⁹Schubert, 'Hidden Forms in Palestrina', 537.

⁹⁰Milsom, 'Crecquillon, Clemens and Four-Voiced *Fuga*', 295–6.

latter's favour.⁹¹ An analogous question about individual imitative style could be posed with respect to the fantasies of Gibbons and Coprario, and again answered in the affirmative. Coprario constructs his opening points of imitation principally out of imitative duos and singleton entrances; Gibbons avoids these schemes almost entirely, preferring continuous overlapping of entrances, most commonly in a periodic arrangement. Coprario also adheres strictly to formal principles concerning the number and pitch levels of initial entrances, where Gibbons is considerably more free. Finally, the types of imitative writing which appear in the later sections of their compositions differ thoroughly from each other.

Although Gibbons and Coprario may not sound as similar on the surface as Clemens and Crecquillon, the analysis of their imitative approaches helps to strengthen the attribution of three fantasias with conflicting attributions to Coprario, rather than Gibbons. All three are for treble, bass, double bass, and organ, an instrumental combination otherwise found in this period only in Gibbons's music.⁹² The evidence of the sources would also seem to favour Gibbons, since the single complete source attributes these pieces to him, while only a fragmentary source of the third fantasy attributes it to Coprario. Neighbour notes, however, that the style of these pieces – particularly in their later imitative sections – does not support Gibbons's authorship:

The internal evidence strongly favours Coprario as the composer. The music is too consistently imitative for Gibbons, each point being kept in play for longer than is usual for him, sometimes with more than one exposition, while expositions on later points are as amply spaced as the initial one.⁹³

Neighbour's implication that Coprario is more 'consistently imitative' than Gibbons might be questioned in light of this chapter's investigation. It is true that

⁹¹Ibid. 297.

⁹²These pieces appear both in the *Musica Britannica* edition of Gibbons's consort music (vol. 48, nos. 20–22) and in Richard Charteris's edition of Coprario's three-part consort music (nos. 11–13). *MB* provides an alternative editorial opening for Example 2.42; the example quoted here is the original text as it also appears in Charteris's edition.

⁹³Neighbour, 'Orlando Gibbons: The Consort Music', 355.

Coprario tends to keep to the imitation of substantial subjects throughout his fantasies where Gibbons employs a greater diversity of technique and material; but it is also true that in the passages where Gibbons uses this kind of writing, he often carries it out with greater sophistication than Coprario. This point aside, Neighbour's claim that the imitative style of the disputed pieces is closer to Coprario's than Gibbons's is only strengthened by a more detailed analysis of the three fantasies' opening points of imitation (Examples 2.42–2.44). In each one of the dubious pieces, only the first two entrances overlap, with the remaining entrances being singletons. (In Example 2.42 and 2.43 this initial imitative duo involves an independent entrance in the organ part, shown on a separate stave in the examples for clarity.) This pair-plus-one arrangement – an imitative duo followed by singletons – is typical of Coprario's three-part pieces, and almost unknown in Gibbons's.

It is especially revealing to compare the third disputed piece (Example 2.44) with the more securely ascribed Gibbons fantasia it closely resembles: three-part fantasia with double-bass no. 3 (*MB* 48 no. 18), whose opening is shown in Example 2.45. As Neighbour notes, the opening motives of these two fantasias' subjects are related by inversion.⁹⁴ The imitative layouts in which they appear, however, are tellingly different. Like the two other disputed pieces, Example 2.44 begins with a single pair of overlapping entrances, followed by several singletons. By contrast, Gibbons arranges the first three entries of Example 2.45 in a periodic formation closely resembling the opening of published three-part fantasia no. 5 (Example 2.21 above). The pitches emphasised by

⁹⁴Neighbour writes that the three doubtful pieces 'undoubtedly have some connection with nos. 1–3, because their opening points are all related, nos. 1 and 4 by their general rhythmic formation, nos. 2 and 5 by interval and nos. 3 and 7 most precisely of all by inversion.' (Neighbour, 'Orlando Gibbons: The Consort Music', 355). The references to no. 4 and no. 5 seem to be off by one: Neighbour's nos. 1–7 correspond to *MB* nos. 16–22, with the three dubious pieces being nos. 5–7 (*MB* nos. 20–22). Possibly the intended comparisons are between no. 1 and no. 5 (not no. 4, which is securely attributed to Gibbons), no. 2 and no. 6, and no. 3 and no. 7. In either case, the claimed connections between the other two doubtful pieces are considerably looser than the resemblance between no. 3 (*MB* no. 18) and no. 7 (*MB* no. 22).

[Treble Viol]

[Organ]

[Bass Viol]

[Double Bass Viol]

9

(..three more singleton entrances follow on D, E, and D)

Example 2.42: Opening of a three-part fantasia with conflicting attributions to Coprario and Gibbons (Coprario no. 11 [C17], Gibbons MB 48 no. 20)

[Treble Viol]

[Organ]

[Bass Viol]

[Double Bass Viol]

(two more singleton entrances follow...)

Example 2.43: Opening of a three-part fantasia with conflicting attributions to Coprario and Gibbons (Coprario no. 12 [C18], Gibbons MB 48 no. 21)

the imitation in Example 2.44 also suggest Coprario's practice rather than Gibbons's. All four entrances begin on D and A, the first and fifth degrees of the scale, with the intervals of the second entrance flexed so that the first entrance's D–A–D is answered by A–D–A, instead of the A–E–A which strict imitation would produce. By contrast, the first three entrances of the securely attributed Gibbons composition (Example 2.45) begin on the first and fourth degrees of D and G, like several other Gibbons fantasias with a D final. Their intervals are not flexed, and consequently outline successively the fifths of D–A and G–D, in contrast to the quasi-modal propriety of Example 2.44. In summary, the arrangement of entrances both in time and in pitch strongly suggest Coprario's authorship rather than Gibbons's. If this is true, these two fantasias would stand in a similar relationship to one another as Coprario's and Gibbons's respective fantasias no. 4, whose opening gestures are also loosely related by inversion.

Three overall conclusions may be drawn from this investigation. First, analysing fantasia-style imitation in terms of its construction from repeated modules reveals elements of imitative design which are less easily described by focusing strictly on individual subjects. Some of these common structures may be distinctive features of a particular composer's style, such as Gibbons's periodic entries and Coprario's pair-plus-one arrangement. Although space prevents pursuing this topic further here, the method proves even more revealing in Gibbons's six-part fantasias, which make frequent use of 'double fuges' or non-imitative duos: fantasias nos. 3–5 (*MB* 48 nos. 33–35) all begin with opening expositions constructed from non-imitative modules of this type. Furthermore, modular analysis can also be extended to the description of passages which would not usually be thought of as 'imitative' at all: for example, the passage from Gibbons's three-part fantasia no. 1 in Example 2.46 consists principally of a short repeated two-part cell, presented twice in its original form and twice with the parts exchanged, in various pairs of voices. This passage is not imitative, but it resembles more conventionally imitative passages in its construction

This musical score consists of three staves. The top staff is in treble clef and contains a series of eighth and sixteenth notes, some beamed together, with a bracket above a section. The bottom two staves are in bass clef. The first bass staff has a whole note followed by a dotted line, then a series of eighth notes. The second bass staff has a whole note followed by a dotted line, then a series of eighth notes. The third bass staff has a whole note followed by a dotted line, then a series of eighth notes. The score is marked with various accidentals, including flats and sharps, and includes a key signature change to one flat.

This musical score consists of three staves. The top staff is in treble clef and contains a series of eighth and sixteenth notes, some beamed together, with a bracket above a section. The bottom two staves are in bass clef. The first bass staff has a whole note followed by a dotted line, then a series of eighth notes. The second bass staff has a whole note followed by a dotted line, then a series of eighth notes. The third bass staff has a whole note followed by a dotted line, then a series of eighth notes. The score is marked with various accidentals, including flats and sharps, and includes a key signature change to one flat.

Example 2.44: Opening of a three-part fantasia with conflicting attributions to Coprario and Gibbons (Coprario no. 13 [C19], Gibbons MB 48 no. 22)

3 3 5 3 3 5 3

3 3 5 3 3 5 3

3 1 3

3 3 5 3 3 5 3

3 3 5 3 3 5 3

3 3 5 3 3 5 3

Example 2.45: Opening of Gibbons's three-part fantasia with double bass, *MB* 48 no. 18

from a repeated two-part module. Similar passages occur in Gibbons’s six-part fantasia no. 2 (bb. 36–44, bb. 80–87) and throughout the first five-part *In Nomine*, which alternates between the overlapping imitation of longer melodic ideas and the re-iteration of short figures in parallel sixths and tenths (bb. 44–47, bb. 63–69; bb. 59–61). By providing a unified framework for the analysis of both imitative and non-imitative polyphony, modular analysis also suggests how composers trained in imitative technique might have transferred their skills to composition in other styles – such as those of Gibbons’s three-part fantasias with two treble instruments – in which imitation as such plays a lesser role.

The image shows a musical score for three staves (treble, alto, and bass) in a three-part fantasia. Above the staves, there are four modular analysis labels in boxes: 'X' (6 6 3 3 6 8), 'X' (6 6 3 3 5 8), 'ic8(X)' (3 3 6 6 3 [3]), and 'ic8(X)' (3 3 6 6 3 [3]). The score includes various musical notations such as notes, rests, and accidentals, with some notes marked with 'i' or 'ii' indicating specific intervals or positions.

Example 2.46: Short non-imitative duos in Gibbons’s three-part fantasia no. 1 (*MB* 48 no. 7), bb. 50–56

Second, the comparison between Coprario and Gibbons shows that the technical analysis of imitation can demonstrate clear distinctions between individual composers’ methods and values. It would be interesting to know how these two composers’ habits of mind compare with those of their contemporaries and predecessors, and a more wide-ranging analysis of imitative procedures along these lines might suggest some of the networks through which these ideas and techniques were transmitted and re-interpreted, including the ‘traditions of apprenticeship’ to which Milsom refers. It is striking, for instance, that Coprario adheres so rigidly to the principle of emphasising the first and fifth scale degrees in the opening of his fantasias, where Gibbons is comparatively unpredictable. Could this represent the influence of modal theory on Coprario’s practice, perhaps from his hypothesised contact with Italian music and musicians? If this

is so, the greater harmonic freedom of Gibbons's expositions compared to Coprario's seems to parallel Alan Howard's observation about the wider harmonic range of Purcell's sonatas compared to Corelli's:

Purcell seems more diffident towards the restrictions of classical tonality. In particular, the range of modulation in a typical sonata movement by Purcell is far wider than that of Corelli's sonatas [...]
Purcell's *fugeing* is able to account for his range of modulation far better than the restricted schemes of later classical tonality.⁹⁵

The question is all the more curious since, subjectively, Gibbons's expositions often sound more smooth and natural than Coprario's in harmonic terms.

Finally, several different types of imitative and quasi-imitative polyphony can be distinguished in Gibbons's fantasias, and seem to be associated with different formal roles. Imitation of long, melodically well-defined subjects is only one type, which Gibbons employs mainly for opening gestures. Imitation of brief motives is a second type, often associated with middle sections. Patterned writing based on interval stocks represents a third type, often associated with ending sections. Finally, densely motivic passages like the conclusion of fantasia no. 3 represent yet a fourth type, related to the previous two, but distinguished by its emphasis on sequential treatment and polymetrical cross-rhythms. Together with the technical terminology of interlocks and modular analysis, these distinctions provide the basic elements of a vocabulary for describing how Gibbons and other English composers 'wrested and turned' the points of their fantasies.

⁹⁵Howard, 'Purcell and the Poetics of Artifice', 104–5.

Chapter 3

Imitative artifice at the keyboard

3.1 Introduction

A recurring theme in discussions of Gibbons's instrumental music is that of a serious style, reserved or even austere in its consistent use of imitative counterpoint rather than a more diverse assortment of techniques. In the preface to the *Musica Britannica* volume of Gibbons's keyboard music, Gerald Hendrie writes that Gibbons's keyboard music is 'notable for its restraint', adding that 'the portrait of Gibbons in the Faculty of Music at Oxford confirms the impression made by so much of his music: that he was an austere and essentially serious person.'¹ When compared to the more stylistically diverse compositions of other 'virginalists' like William Byrd, Gibbons's keyboard fantasies, in particular, are often most easily defined by what they lack. As noted in the introduction of this thesis, Willi Apel wrote that in Gibbons's music lacks 'the multiplicity and variety of ideas [...] characteristic of Byrd and even of Farnaby', as well as their 'dance-like, song-like, playful, and virtuosic features'.² Without wishing to question Gibbons's seriousness of musical purpose in these pieces, however, a closer examination of their imitative techniques reveals that the style is much less uniform than it initially appears. Even in his most thoroughly contrapuntal pieces for keyboard, Gibbons obtains a rich diversity of

¹Gerald Hendrie, introduction to Orlando Gibbons, *Keyboard Music*, 2nd ed., *Musica Britannica* 20 (Stainer & Bell, 2010).

²Apel, *History of Keyboard Music*, 320.

textures and affects from his imitative techniques, and this diversity of imitative manners fills the role taken by contrasting stylistic allusions in Byrd's music. At its best, this style also represents a kind of compositional virtuosity in its defiance of the difficulty of transferring such polyphonic techniques from the consort to the keyboard.

No composition demonstrates Gibbons's use of imitative variety to structure an abstract musical narrative better than the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' (*MB* 20, no. 9), one of his most beautiful and impressive achievements in the realm of keyboard music. The generically descriptive title of this piece is taken from the index of Benjamin Cosyn's virginal book, its sole surviving source.³ 'Gamut Flatt' describes the key or tonality of the fantasy, with a final on G ('Gam ut') and a minor ('flat') third scale degree. At ninety-five breves in length, the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' is not merely the longest of Gibbons's surviving keyboard fantasies, but is also exceptional for the intensity with which it sustains a single broad narrative from beginning to end, traversing a range of affective realms from the seriousness of the opening to the lightness and exuberant virtuosity of the second half. Imitative construction provides the essential technical means by which Gibbons sustains this narrative coherence. Successive sections of the fantasy are linked together not only by intervallic similarities between their subjects, but also by the quotation of contrapuntal combinations from the opening in later passages, and through more abstract links by which one subject is extracted from the contrapuntal combinations of a previous section. Gibbons obtains variety from his small number of subjects through the use of a wide range of contrapuntal techniques, including imitative and non-imitative duos, stacked canons, sequential imitation, and, finally, freely paraphrased declamation. This focus on continuously imitative writing is in notable contrast with the less formal design of many keyboard fantasies by other composers, in which a strictly-worked opening gives way to more flexible forms, or to episodes drawn from dance or division styles. In the 'Fancy in

³London, British Library, Royal Music Library MS 23.1.4.

Gamut Flatt', by contrast, Gibbons seems to have challenged himself to compose a long and varied fantasy in which a high level of contrapuntal artifice is maintained throughout.

The fantasia falls broadly into four large sections distinguished both by musical material and by imitative method. Example 3.1 shows the imitative subjects of the first three sections and some of the relationships between them; the fourth section lacks a single well-defined subject of its own, instead freely paraphrasing the subject and the contrapuntal combinations of the opening. The first section features an unusual subject with strong cadential implications which are gradually strengthened but continually held back over the course of the section; in fact, this subject can be thought of as extracted from the final cadence of the section by a process of 'unpacking the box'. Gibbons first presents it in periodic entries, and then heightens the contrapuntal density through the addition of concealed stretto entrances. The next four imitative sections are based on an apparently distinct 'rising-third' subject, which can nevertheless be seen as deriving from the material of the opening section through the same process of 'unpacking'. Throughout these variations, Gibbons maintains a connection to the opening section by inserting recollections of its stretto complexes at cadential points. This final version of the rising-third subject links the second large section with the third, since it appears in diminished form near the end of the subject of the following section (bb. 60–64). Like the second section, the third large section works through four motivically related versions of its single basic idea, maintaining momentum by combining the points in closely overlapping periodic entries, drawing them into an extended sequence and culminating in a brief three-part canon at the octave (bb. 76–82). Following this burst of exuberance, the subject and the contrapuntal combinations of the opening section reappear in freely paraphrased form in the fourth section, now transfigured in affect by the course of the intervening events.

The image displays a musical score for a piece titled 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' by John Gibbons. The score is organized into nine staves, each representing a different section of the piece. The staves are labeled as follows:

- 1**: bb. 1–19
- 2a**: bb. 19–25
- 2b**: bb. 26–36
- 2c**: bb. 36–41
- 2d**: bb. 41–60
- 3a**: bb. 60–64
- 3b**: bb. 64–66
- 3c**: bb. 68–75
- 3d**: bb. 76–82

The notation is in treble clef with a key signature of one flat (B-flat). The music features various rhythmic patterns, including eighth and sixteenth notes, and rests. A dashed line with an arrow indicates a connection between the end of section 2d and the beginning of section 3a.

Example 3.1: Subjects of the successive sections of Gibbons's 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' (*MB* 20, no. 9).

3.2 Unpacking and re-packing the box

The most immediately noticeable feature of the fantasy's opening section (Example 3.2) is its distinctive five-note head motive, G–B $\flat$ –F $\sharp$ –G–D. This angular motive is quite unlike the subjects of Gibbons's other fantasies: John Caldwell writes that the diminished fourth between B $\flat$ and F $\sharp$ lends it 'something of the character of a Frescobaldi *ricercare*'.⁴ The contour of this motive is so distinctive, in fact, that it may easily distract attention from more subtle aspects of imitative construction in this opening point. The motive appears in six clear imitative entrances, all intervallically exact, and beginning alternately on G and D (bb. 1, 3, 5, 8, 12, and 15). If these six entrances constituted the extent of the contrapuntal artifice, the opening section would consist only of free imitation without overlap between statements of the subject – a puzzling mismatch between the seriousness of the subject and the simplicity of its imitative treatment. In actuality, the construction of this opening section is considerably more intricate than is immediately apparent. To begin with, the full subject consists not only of the distinctive head motive, but also a tail motive which begins an octave higher and comprises a rising third, a stepwise descent, and a return to the starting note (D–F–E–D–C–D). Some form of this tail motive follows the head motive in each of the subject's six principal entrances, although it is disguised by passing scale figures at its first appearance (b. 2–3) and altered by flexing of intervals in its second and final appearances (bb. 5 and 17). (I regard the form of the tail motive that appears in the tenor of bb. 7–8 and the bass of bb. 10–11 and 14–15 as the 'unflexed' or 'prime' form, since it is presented three times).

With this longer subject in mind, the fantasy's second, third and fourth entrances (beginning in b. 3, b. 5, and b. 8) can be seen to represent another instance of the 'periodic entries' arrangement which Gibbons favours in his consort fantasies: five semibreves separate the second entrance from the third,

⁴Caldwell, *English Keyboard Music*, 63.

and the third from the fourth. These periodic entries begin alternately on D and G, requiring some flexing of the subject's tail motive in order to avoid errors: in b. 8 the combination of the third and fourth entrances succeeds without any alteration, but in b. 5 the tail motive in the alto must be flexed to avoid an unprepared seventh on the first beat of b. 6. The first entrance of the subject lies outside this periodic scheme, being separated from the following entrance by only four semibreves, and forming with it a different contrapuntal combination which is not repeated; this interlock, too, requires flexing of the tail motive to avoid an unprepared ninth on the downbeat of b. 4.

Beginning with the third imitative entrance in bb. 5–8 and the fourth entrance in bb. 8–11, Gibbons combines the fantasy's main subject with two simple countersubjects, shown in the analysis with diamond noteheads, bracketed, and marked 'ii' and 'iii' (the portion of the subject that overlaps with these countersubjects is labelled 'i'). Countersubject 'ii', a descending scalar figure, appears for the first time in the alto of b. 6, where it combines with the third entrance of the subject (in the bass) and is itself briefly imitated at the unison by the treble. Countersubject iii, a *cantizans* cadential figure, is added to this two-voice combination at the subject's fourth entrance, in b. 9.⁵ The three-voice module that results from the combination of all three motives together strongly reinforces the latent cadential implications of the subject's head motive.

Following the fourth entrance of the subject and the first appearance of this complete three-voice cadential module in b. 9, Gibbons heightens the level of contrapuntal activity with the fifth and sixth entrances by introducing additional stretto entrances in the treble of bb. 11–14 and the tenor of bb. 15–16. These entrances are more difficult to hear than the six principal entrances of the subject due to their use of flexing, passing-note ornamentation, and rhy-

⁵Morley would call this figure simply a 'cadence'; see the next chapter. On the *cantizans* terminology, see Bernhard Meier, *The Modes of Classical Vocal Polyphony*, trans. Ellen S. Beebe (New York: Broude Brothers, 1988), 91–3.

The image displays a musical score for a piece titled 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' (MB 20 no. 9). The score is written for a keyboard instrument, featuring two staves (treble and bass clef) joined by a brace. The key signature is one flat (B-flat), and the time signature is common time (C). The score is divided into two systems. The first system contains measures 1 through 5. Measure 1 begins with a treble clef and a key signature of one flat. Measures 2 through 5 show a melodic line in the treble staff and a bass line in the bass staff. The second system contains measures 6 through 10. Measures 6 through 9 show a melodic line in the treble staff and a bass line in the bass staff. Measure 10 shows a melodic line in the treble staff and a bass line in the bass staff. The score includes various musical notations such as notes, rests, and accidentals. There are also some markings like 'ii' and 'iii' above the staves in measures 8 and 9, and 'i' below the staff in measure 10.

Example 3.2: Opening of the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' (MB 20 no. 9)

11 12 13 14

flexed stretto entrance

15 16 17 18 19

partial stretto entrance

mic alteration. The treble entrance in b. 11 begins one semibreve earlier than the strict bass entrance that follows, but in b. 12 Gibbons has the treble hold the second note of its entrance one minim longer, decreasing the time interval of imitation to a minim, and freely alters the following intervals, changing the original head motive (G–B♭–F♯–G–D) into the less immediately recognisable G–B♭–F♯–G–A–D. It is not immediately obvious here why Gibbons avoided the four-voice combination that would result if the treble entrance had continued its interlock with the bass at the original time interval of one semibreve (Example 3.3(a)). The obvious contrapuntal difficulty is the presence of an augmented triad (B♭–D–F♯) above the bass entrance's second note, yet Gibbons uses this sonority elsewhere in the fantasy: for example, in the B♯–D♯–G♯ chord on the downbeat of b. 29 in Example 3.8, below. I believe Gibbons avoided it in b. 12 not due to contrapuntal necessity, but because he wanted to hold this sonority in reserve for the stretto complex that follows, in which an F♯–C♯ augmented fifth sounds between the treble and tenor on the first beat of b. 16. In this second stretto complex, the additional copy of the head motive enters at the lower octave one semibreve later than the 'main' entrance that participates in the three-voice module, rather than one semibreve before it as in bb. 11–13. In this case, it is quite clear why Gibbons only includes the first two notes of the stretto entrance, since continuing it any further would create unusable dissonances between the lowest two voices (Example 3.3(b)). Evidently Gibbons's desire for two different, symmetrically heightened four-part complexes – and perhaps an appreciation of the pungent augmented interval produced by this stretto combination – took precedence over any need for fully workable imitative combinations. The 'failed' four-part complex of bb. 15–16 turns out to have a surprising structural significance in the remainder of the fantasy, for several later sections quote precisely this segment, including bb. 21–23 (Example 3.7), bb. 27–30 (Example 3.8) and bb. 39–40 (Example 3.9).

Although the entrances of the subject in Example 3.2 create successively stronger implications of a forthcoming cadence, final harmonic closure arrives,

The image displays two musical examples, (a) and (b), each consisting of a treble and bass staff. Example (a) spans measures 11 to 15. In the treble staff, measures 12 and 13 are bracketed together and labeled 'iv' above them. In the bass staff, measures 12 and 13 are bracketed together and labeled 'ii' below them. Example (b) spans measures 15 to 19. In the treble staff, measures 15 and 16 are bracketed together and labeled 'i' above them. In the bass staff, measures 15 and 16 are bracketed together and labeled 'ii' below them. Measures 17 and 18 in the bass staff are bracketed together and labeled 'iv' above them. Measures 17 and 18 in the treble staff are bracketed together and labeled 'iii' below them. There are also some 'x' marks in the bass staff of example (b) in measures 17 and 18.

Example 3.3: Hypothetical four-part complexes produced by continuing the stretto entrances of (a) bb. 11–13; (b) bb. 15–19, in strict imitation. The added stretto entrance is labelled ‘iv’ in each case.

in b. 19, only after the conclusion of the imitative work. Or does it? As shown by the notes enclosed within square brackets within the reduction of these bars, it is conceivable that Gibbons concealed one more subject entrance within this final close, disguised with passing notes and crossing between tenor and bass. Like the flexed stretto entrance in the treble of bb. 11–13, this entrance is heavily filled in with passing notes; furthermore, it is not set off as an entrance by a preceding rest, but tied over from a weak beat in b. 17, and further concealed by the apparent voice crossing between tenor and bass on the first note of b. 19. Yet other factors suggest that these bars should indeed be thought of as the final entrance of the subject. To begin with, this hypothetical entrance in b. 17 would stand in the same temporal relationship to the treble D entrance of bb. 15–17 as the entrances in the opening set of

periodic entries, following after five semibreves. Furthermore, it is combined with the same two countersubjects in the upper voices, with the descending scale of countersubject ii once again treated in brief imitation at the unison, as at its first appearance in bb. 6–7. If this interpretation is accepted, one can imagine Gibbons composing this cadential progression first, as the starting point of the inventive process, and then extracting from it the fantasy’s unusual and strongly cadential subject, as well as the two countersubjects, via a subtle use of ‘unpacking the box’.⁶ The successive entrances of the subject during the opening point of imitation can then be thought of as a process of ‘re-packing the box’ which progressively reconstructs the original progression in a manner similar to (but vastly more subtle than) the four-part ‘catch’ described by Morley.⁷ The final full close of bb. 18–19 then represents the simultaneous conclusion of both harmonic and imitative processes.

There is an intriguing relationship between this opening section of Gibbons’s fantasy and one of Frescobaldi’s keyboard compositions – not a *ricercar*, as Caldwell suggests, but the first *fantasia* from Frescobaldi’s *Primo Libro Delle Fantasie a Quattro* of 1608 (Example 3.4). The contour of Frescobaldi’s subject, G–B $\flat$ –F–G–A–D, resembles the head motive of Gibbons’s fantasy, though it differs in rhythm and in rising one step higher (to A instead of G) before falling to D. At least as notated, Frescobaldi’s subject also lacks the distinctive B $\flat$ –F $\sharp$ that characterises Gibbons’s subject, and the contexts in which it appears do not strongly suggest the necessity of a *ficta* inflection of the F $\sharp$. As a result, it has little of the cadential implication which animates Gibbons’s point of imitation. Yet other details also suggest a potential connection between the two pieces. One of these is the presence of the flexed and ornamented treble entrance in bb. 11–14 of Gibbons’s fantasy – an entrance which is, as

⁶Massimiliano Guido and Peter Schubert postulate a similar compositional process for the subjects of Frescobaldi’s 1615 *Ricercari*, and hypothesise that the presence of so many example closes in Diruta’s 1609 keyboard treatise, *Il Transilvano*, is intended in part to provide a fund of material for this kind of inventive process. See Guido and Schubert, ‘Unpacking the Box in Frescobaldi’s *Ricercari* of 1615’, *Music Theory Online* 20 (2014).

⁷Morley, 176; Morley, ed. Harman, 289. See Chapter 2 of this thesis for further discussion.

argued above, seemingly altered despite the lack of contrapuntal necessity. The contour of this flexed entrance (G–B $\flat$ –F $\sharp$ –G–A–D) comes close to replicating the contour of Frescobaldi's subject, although it still differs in rhythm: could Gibbons here have concealed a reference to a piece that inspired him?

There are further similarities of detail in the imitative layout of the two fantasies' respective opening entrances, and in the melodic continuations that follow each entrance of the head motive. Like Gibbons, Frescobaldi arranges the second, third and fourth entrances of his subject in a periodic arrangement, with a different time interval separating the first entrance from the second. Frescobaldi's time intervals of imitation are the reverse of Gibbons's: where Gibbons separates his first two entrances by four semibreves and continues with periodic entries separated by five semibreves, Frescobaldi brings in his second entrance five semibreves after the first, and continues with periodic entries separated by four semibreves. The module created by the overlap of Frescobaldi's first two periodic entrances (Example 3.4, bb. 5–6) also resembles the interlock formed by Gibbons's first two entrances (Example 3.2, b. 3): on the level of counterpoint in minims, both begin with the interval sequence 8–10–8–6. The second presentation of this module in Frescobaldi's fantasy (Example 3.4, bb. 7–8) is harder to recognise, due to the flexing of the subject's head interval and the splitting of the module's upper voice between tenor and alto.⁸ This voice-crossing can be seen in Frescobaldi's open-score notation, however, much more easily than it can be heard (or felt by the fingers), and the composite melody formed by the two voices in these bars (D–E–F–E–D) is close to the tail motive of Gibbons's subject. To be sure, both motives are generic fragments of counterpoint, which two composers could easily have arrived at

⁸Specifically, the subject in these bars (and frequently throughout Frescobaldi's fantasy) is altered using the special type of flexing known as *inganno*, whereby note(s) are replaced with other note(s) having the same solmisation in a different hexachord. In this place, Frescobaldi substitutes D (*re* in the natural hexachord) for G (*re* in the soft hexachord), so that a rising sixth (D–B $\flat$) replaces a rising third (G–B $\flat$) as the subject's head interval. As a result, the second half of the module is varied through uninverted double counterpoint at the fourth. On Frescobaldi's use of *inganno*, see, e.g., John Harper, 'Frescobaldi's Early "Inganni" and Their Background', *Proceedings of the Royal Musical Association* 105 (1978–1979), 1–12.

separately: in this case, they would represent an instance of ‘intertextuality’ in the unintentional sense discussed in Chapter 1.

Following their similar opening gestures, Frescobaldi’s and Gibbons’s fantasies develop subsequently in significantly different ways. Frescobaldi’s fantasy is concerned above all with flexibility of imitative combination, achieved through *inganno* and other forms of alteration to the subject. One result of this is that the subject of this first section does not generally maintain the contour of its first entrance. More commonly, its second interval is altered from a fourth to a fifth, forming a triadic figure, as in the treble entrance of bb. 3–4. The form altered through *inganno* at the first note, resulting in a contour of a rising sixth followed by a falling fourth, also appears more frequently than the original form, as in the bass entrance of bb. 7–8. By contrast, Gibbons maintains strict intervallic exactness throughout the first section of his fantasy (the treble entrance of bb. 11–13 excepted), and focuses increasingly on the cadential implications that result. In this respect, Gibbons’s opening point of imitation arguably creates a greater sense of harmonic forward motion than Frescobaldi’s.

There is little direct connection between the respective later sections of Frescobaldi’s fantasy and of Gibbons’s, but both pieces fall into four large sections connected by the re-use and transformation of contrapuntal material. Because Frescobaldi treats his subjects with greater freedom within a section, he is able to construct all four large sections of his fantasy from variations on the opening subject (Example 3.5): bb. 26–38 are based on a version diminished to half its value, bb. 39–58 on a *tripla* proportion, and the closing section (bb. 58–68) on a version diminished to one-quarter its original value, combined with a chromatically altered version of the original subject. By contrast, Gibbons normally maintains the contour of his subjects quite strictly within a section, and the relationships between the successive subjects of his fantasy are accordingly somewhat looser than those of Frescobaldi’s fantasy. Nevertheless, there

M

8	10	8	6	10
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5

4

3

2

cf. Gibbons b. 11–12

L.... cf. Gibbons b. 14 ...J

M

8	10	5	3	6
---	----	---	---	---

dc4(M)

8

9

10

7

ii

ii

(inganno)

Example 3.4: Opening of Frescobaldi, ‘Fantasia Prima sopra un soggetto’ from *Il Primo Libro Delle Fantasie a Quattro* (1608).



Example 3.5: Subjects of the four sections of Frescobaldi's *Fantasia Prima*

is more motivic connection between them than is usual in Gibbons's other fantasies, whether for keyboard or for consort: all the subjects used in the first half are related by the presence of a rising-third head interval; the subjects of bb. 41–60 and 60–64 are partly related by diminution; and the final section returns to material from the opening point of imitation. Gibbons also connects different sections of his fantasy through quotations of previous contrapuntal combinations, a technique not used in Frescobaldi's fantasy. If Gibbons was indeed inspired by Frescobaldi in the composition of the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt', he evidently took from his model a general approach to unifying a large-scale imitative composition, as much as any specific contrapuntal materials.

To know if the similarities between Gibbons's and Frescobaldi's fantasies represent more than coincidence, it would of course be necessary to find out whether, and from what source, Gibbons could have encountered Frescobaldi's fantasy during the seventeen years between its publication in 1608 and Gibbons's untimely death in 1625. Several seventeenth-century English manuscript sources contain music by Frescobaldi, at least one of which – Christ Church Mus. 1113 – is also a source for several Gibbons keyboard fantasies.⁹ The

⁹See the description by John Milsom in the *Christ Church Library Music Catalogue*, online at <<http://library.chch.ox.ac.uk/music/page.php?set=Mus.+1113>>. The Gibbons fantasias included in the manuscript are nos. 10, 11, and 12 in *Musica Britannica* 20. Also included are two more fantasias of more doubtful authorship (nos. 48 and 59 in *MB* 20), and some

date of this manuscript is disputed, but the possibility of an origin in the 1620s would suggest that Frescobaldi's music circulated in England within Gibbons's lifetime. It contains toccatas, capriccios, canzonas and dance pieces by Frescobaldi, but not his fantasias. Friedrich W. Riedel notes that Frescobaldi's 1608 *Fantasia* 'apparently came out in a small edition, which saw no wide distribution', and the *Frescobaldi Thematic Catalogue Online* lists only two manuscripts containing copies of these works.¹⁰ Neither has an obvious English connection, although they suggest that these works became known in Northern Europe shortly after their publication.¹¹ In the absence of an obvious route by which Gibbons could have encountered Frescobaldi's fantasia, the hypothesis of a connection between them must for now be considered speculative.

smaller Gibbons pieces – an Alman (no. 34 in *MB*); *The Italian Ground* (no. 27); and the 'Galliard: Lady Hatton' (no. 20).

¹⁰Friedrich W. Riedel, 'The Influence and Tradition of Frescobaldi's Works in the Transalpine Countries', in *Frescobaldi Studies*, ed. Alexander Silbiger (Duke University Press, 1987), 219; Alexander Silbiger, *Frescobaldi Thematic Catalogue Online* <<http://frescobaldi.music.duke.edu/>>, accessed Wednesday, 2 March 2016.

¹¹One manuscript (Krakow, Biblioteka Jagiellonska, Mus. ms. 40316 [formerly Berlin, Staatsbibliothek, Mus. ms. 40316]) is listed in the online Frescobaldi catalogue as having been copied in Brussels in c. 1609; the other (Vienna, Minoritenkonvent, Musikarchiv XIV, 714) is listed as being copied in c. 1624–1631. Both manuscripts contain only fantasias on two or three subjects from the latter half of Frescobaldi's 1608 publication, omitting the first fantasia discussed here. One much later English manuscript source of Frescobaldi, from c. 1700, is notable in this context only because its copyist ornamented the verses copied from Frescobaldi's 1637 second book of toccatas by filling in melodic leaps with scalar figures. Precisely the same kind of ornamentation is used in Gibbons's 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' to disguise some of the later entrances of the subject. See Brian Hodge, 'A New Frescobaldi Attribution', *The Musical Times* 122 (1981), 263–265.

3.3 Variation and development

Following the full close which ends the opening imitative section in b. 19, Gibbons's distinctive opening subject temporarily disappears from the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt'. In the second large section of the fantasy (bb. 20–60), Gibbons works principally with four variations on a simpler subject based on the interval of a rising third filled in by stepwise motion (Example 3.1, 2a–2d). Although related to the first subject by the common contour of a rising third, this new subject is more contrapuntally tractable, and the four imitative sections Gibbons constructs from it demonstrate his remarkable ability to extract variety from the imitative treatment of a simple idea.

The initial, plain form of this rising-third subject, used in bb. 19–25 (Example 3.7), consists of four notes rising and falling by step, Bb–C–D–C; in two places the last note is extended into a *cantizans* cadence figure (C–B♭–C), an embellishment which returns later in bb. 36–41 (Example 3.9). The second form of the subject shortens its first note and extends its final descent by a further step so that the subject as a whole returns to its starting note. This longer subject allows the construction of a spiralling sequence of entries traversing the entire available tonal space by fifths from a cadence on B to one in Bb (Example 3.8, bb. 26–36). The third form of the subject is almost identical to the first form, but ends with a quicker cadence in minims and crotchets, rather than the semibreves and minims of the earlier version. The imitations developed from this more lively variation (Example 3.9, bb. 36–41) foreshadow the denser interlocking and quicker harmonic tempo of the third large section, while at the same time looking backward to the contrapuntal combinations of the opening section. Before arriving at the third large section of the fantasy, Gibbons extracts one more variation from the rising-third subject, from which he constructs the fantasy's single longest imitative section (Example 3.13, bb. 41–60). This variant of the subject differs more significantly from the other three: by replacing the first two minims with a dotted minim and crotchet,

The image displays five systems of musical notation, labeled A through E, each featuring a single staff in treble clef. The notation illustrates complex interlocking patterns, likely for a single melodic line on a keyboard instrument. Each system includes specific fingerings indicated by numbers 1-5 and 6-10, as well as various musical symbols such as slurs, ties, and accidentals (sharps, flats, and naturals).

- System A:** Shows a sequence of notes with fingerings 6, 6, 5, 4, 3, 3, 4, 5. It includes a slur over the first four notes and a tie between the fifth and sixth notes.
- System B:** Features a sequence with fingerings 6, 5, 3, 3, 3, 4, 6, 6. It includes a slur over the first four notes and a tie between the fifth and sixth notes.
- System C:** Includes a sequence with fingerings 6, 5, 3, 3, 3, 4, 6, 6. It includes a slur over the first four notes and a tie between the fifth and sixth notes.
- System D:** Shows a sequence with fingerings 10, 8, 6, 8, 6, 10, 8, 6. It includes a slur over the first four notes and a tie between the fifth and sixth notes.
- System E:** Features a sequence with fingerings 5, 3, 3, 4, 6, 6. It includes a slur over the first four notes and a tie between the fifth and sixth notes.

Example 3.6: Interlocks used in the first three sections based on the rising-third subject

Gibbons makes the second note of the motive a note of ‘division’ rather than ‘counterpoint’, increasing its imitative flexibility and producing a long section of densely motivic imitation in a style approaching *stretto fuga*.

In its initial form, the rising-third subject permits interlocks both at the fourth after one note (Example 3.6, interlock A) and at the fifth after two notes (interlock B). The existence of interlocks at these two intervals permits the construction of a complete four-part lattice whose entrances alternate stably between two pitch levels. Two different four-part lattices are possible depending on the arrangement of the interlocks, and Gibbons uses both, as shown in Example 3.7. The four entrances of the first lattice descend from treble to bass, beginning alternately on B $\flat$ and E $\flat$. In this four-voice complex, the treble and alto voices form interlock A, as do the tenor and bass; the alto and tenor form interlock B. The lattice in bb. 23–24 presents the complementary arrangement in entrances on C and G. Here, it is interlock B which appears twice (in treble and alto, then in tenor and bass), while interlock A is formed only once, by alto and tenor. The neat symmetry implied by using both possible arrangements of the four voices in succession suggests an intention on Gibbons’s part to make the most of even a simple contrapuntal idea.

Gibbons separates the two imitative lattices of Example 3.7 with the first of several passages which allude to the opening imitative section by quoting portions of its contrapuntal combinations. Because the three-voice module from the first section has a cadential function, it can be re-used in later sections wherever a cadence is required, while at the same time serving to refer back to the opening section’s material. For example, I hear the upper voices of the half-close in bb. 25–26 of Example 3.7 as a partial presentation of the first section’s three-voice module – although this is perhaps debatable given that these bars omit the characteristic subject (melody i of the module), leaving only the two more generic countersubjects.¹² A much stronger case can be

¹²A ‘half close’, as used here, refers to a cadential progression which finishes with the resolution of the cadential suspension, omitting the expected return to the final note. See

made for bb. 21–23 of Example 3.7, which feature a partial repetition of the stretto complex from bb. 15–17 (Example 3.3(b)). Here, the treble voice has an ornamented fragment of the opening subject (melody i). The tenor provides the fragmentary stretto entrance (melody iv), whose combination with melody i results in the characteristic B $\flat$ –F $\sharp$ augmented fifth in b. 22. Finally, the descending countersubject of melody ii is sounded first in the alto, crossing into the tenor when it descends from C to B $\flat$. This reading of the passage requires the tenor entrance to fulfil three roles simultaneously: its first three notes belong to melody ‘iv’ of the four-part complex, its second three notes belong to melody ii, and at the same time it sounds a complete entrance of the rising-third subject which provides the main imitative material in this section. Although this might seem to place contradictory and impossible demands on the tenor, I would suggest instead that it shows the rising-third subject of these bars to be more directly related to the opening imitative material of the fantasy than is initially apparent. It can be understood as resulting from a different ‘unpacking’ of the four-part complex shown in Example 3.3(b), produced by joining the head of melody iv to the tail of melody ii.

The musical score is presented in two systems, each with a treble and bass staff joined by a brace. Measure numbers 20 through 26 are indicated above the first system. A bracket labeled 'new section' spans measures 26 through 28. The second system contains several annotations: 'allusion to bb. 15-17' with a bracket over measures 30-32, and 'allusion to opening' with a bracket over measures 32-34. Below the staves, two lattice structures are identified: 'lattice 1' (measures 27-30) and 'lattice 2' (measures 31-34). The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and accidentals, with some notes grouped by brackets and slurs.

Example 3.7: Initial imitative lattices of the rising third subject

3.4 Imitative sequence

Gibbons's second imitative variation on the rising-third subject creates the first of two extensive imitative sequences in the fantasy (Example 3.8). (The other is Example 3.14, discussed below). Caldwell describes this passage as 'a wonderful modulation . . . carried along by the persistent application of a single motive'¹³. As in most such contrapuntally motivated sequences, the subject first loses sharps and then gains flats with each successive entrance. Beginning in b. 28, interlocking imitations and cadences transport the harmony through the entire range of available accidentals, beginning with D $\sharp$ s and G $\sharp$ s and ending with E $\flat$ s and A $\flat$ s. This sequence includes a wider range of accidentally altered pitches than any other known keyboard or viol work by Gibbons, including both D $\sharp$ and E $\flat$ as well as G $\sharp$ and A $\flat$. Such enharmonic pairs are far from equivalent in keyboard mean-tone tuning, where typically one pitch or the other is usable, but not both. This might suggest that some keyboards in the early seventeenth century were more equally tempered, as is also suggested by more extreme and experimental compositions by Bull and others.¹⁴ It is also possible that Gibbons might have written the piece for an instrument with an extended range of accidentals, via split keys or a second manual in a different tuning. A final alternative possibility is that Gibbons simply intended an unusual expressive effect through stepping outside the typical well-tuned pitches of mean-tone. On a quarter-comma mean-tone keyboard with an E $\flat$ (a pitch required elsewhere in the fantasy), the augmented B $\natural$ –D $\sharp$ –G $\natural$ triad on the first beat of b. 29 – the result of another quotation from the opening stretto complexes – is especially harsh.

The analysis of this passage shown in Example 3.8 emphasises its connection to the two sections on either side, with which it shares a version of the rising-third subject. The counterpoint here requires five parts to disentangle

¹³Caldwell, *English Keyboard Music*, 63.

¹⁴Field, 'Jenkins and the Cosmography of Harmony', 22–24.

The musical score is presented in two systems, each consisting of a treble and a bass staff. The first system spans measures 26 to 36, and the second system spans measures 37 to 47. The treble staff contains a rising-third subject, while the bass staff features overlapping cadences. Roman numerals (i, ii, iii, iv) are placed above the treble staff to indicate harmonic structure. A bracket labeled "allusion to bb. 15-17" points to a specific passage in the second system.

Example 3.8: An imitative sequence constructed from the rising-third subject with overlapping cadences

consistently: the bass, two parts for the entrances of the rising-third subject, and two parts for the overlapping cadential figures. While formally satisfying in its imitative structure and the connection it makes to surrounding sections of the fantasia, this interpretation is forced to ignore how Cosyn has notated the voices in some of the bars where the parts are closest together. Cosyn's notation of the G close in b. 32 clearly depicts five simultaneously sounding parts, though it is not obvious from the notation which note belongs to which voice. In the analogous closes in bb. 30 and 34, however, the parts have seemingly become tangled up. In b. 34, the Abs and G in the right hand properly belong – according to this analysis – to the entrance of the rising-third subject on F, but Cosyn's notation mixes them up with the cadential figures on C (above the subject in bb. 33–34) and F (below the subject in bb. 33–34). Voice-leading is even more obscured in bar 30 by the passing notes connecting E and B in the right hand, since these two notes logically belong to separate voices, again according to this analysis. Such niceties of notation are, admittedly, more for the eye than for the ear. Nevertheless, they suggest that the analysis shown here might not fully capture the passage's contrapuntal underpinnings.

An alternative possible interpretation of Example 3.8 is that it should be understood as constructed from overlapping entrances of the fantasia's opening head motive. (Caldwell seems to suggest this when he writes that the diminished fourth of the first subject is 'exploited harmonically' in this passage to carry along the modulation).¹⁵ With some exercise of imagination, a concealed entrance of the first subject's head motive can be located, for example, in the alto and tenor of bb. 31–32: it begins in the alto with the crotchet G at the end of b. 31; continues with the semibreve B^b at the beginning and the minim F[♯] at the end of b. 32; and finishes with the alto's semibreve G and the tenor's following semibreve D in b. 33. Given the passage's sequential nature, multiple other similarly concealed entrances can be located throughout, though some have to be understood as undergoing octave displacement and crossing from the

¹⁵Caldwell, *English Keyboard Music*, 63.

tenor into the treble. This interpretation is attractive, given the presence in bb. 27–30 of another quotation from the opening section’s stretto interlocks. Furthermore, it implies that the cadences and imitative entrances of this passage are not separate phenomena, but both generated by the imitative interlocks of a single subject. It is difficult, however, to derive all the notes in Example 3.8 consistently from imitative interlocks of the opening head motive; attempting to do so shows that free voices are required, at least briefly, to provide the upper notes of each cadential figure. Thus neither analysis is fully satisfactory. Once again, the tension between the two interpretations can be partially resolved by the observation that the rising-third subject is related to the first subject through ‘unpacking’ the progression shown in Example 3.3(b). In this case, the apparently ‘illogical’ part-crossings in Cosyn’s book do not represent scribal inconsistency, but rather uncover an important fact about polyphony on the keyboard: given that individual voices cannot always easily be distinguished, new subjects and combinations can be produced by re-interpreting the distribution of notes to voices in a complete contrapuntal complex.

3.5 Difficulties and solutions

In the third point of imitation based on the rising-third subject (Example 3.9), Gibbons returns to the type of four-part arrangements with which he began the fantasy's second large section in b. 20. Here, I hypothesise that Gibbons attempted the arrangement of entrances shown in Example 3.10. The two four-part lattices in this arrangement have complementary structures, analogous to the two lattices of Example 3.7: the first lattice consists of two superimposed interlocks at the lower fifth, with entrances on F and B $\flat$, the second lattice of two superimposed interlocks at the lower fourth, with entrances on C and G. The contrapuntal difficulties that arise with both combinations clearly exercised Gibbons's compositional ingenuity, with results that are audible in the finished fantasy.

In the first hypothetical imitative lattice (Example 3.10, bb. 36–37), problems arise with the suspensions formed by the subject's cadential tail motive. When the interlock at the lower fifth is presented in the upper voices, the suspensions it forms in the first half of b. 37 are supported by the tenor entrance below, so that the outer voices form a chain of suspensions with interval sequence 9–8–7–6. When the same interlock is repeated in the lower voices, however, the same portion of the interlock causes an ungrammatical suspension in the second half of b. 37: a fifth which 'resolves' to an augmented fourth, followed by parallel motion to another fourth on the first beat of b. 38. In the finished version of this passage (Example 3.9), Gibbons solved this problem by removing the first three notes of the bass entrance entirely, leaving only its cadential tail in the bass of b. 38. This operation caused a further difficulty, in that the final sonority reached by the treble entrance's cadence in the middle of b. 37 would have consisted of another unsupported dissonant fourth (D–G), since it now lacks the B $\flat$ that would have been provided by the excised notes in the bass. Gibbons solved this second problem by having the treble in b. 37 leap from F $\sharp$ to B $\flat$, instead of rising to G in strict imitation. This not only

36 37 38 39 40 41

----- allusion to bb. 11–13, 15–19 -----

42 43 44 45 46 47

Example 3.9: Two altered imitative lattices of the rising-third subject followed by an allusion to the stretto interlocks of the opening

The image displays a musical score for a keyboard instrument, specifically measures 36 through 40. The score is written for two staves, treble and bass clef. The key signature is one flat (B-flat). The tempo or meter is indicated as 4/4. The score is divided into two systems. The first system covers measures 36 to 38, and the second system covers measures 39 to 40. Several contrapuntal errors are highlighted with brackets and labels:

- potential unsupported 4th**: A bracket above measure 37 indicates a potential unsupported 4th interval.
- ungrammatical suspension**: A bracket below measure 38 indicates an ungrammatical suspension.
- unprepared dissonances**: A bracket below measure 39 indicates unprepared dissonances.

The score includes various musical notations such as notes, rests, and accidentals. The notes are primarily eighth and sixteenth notes, with some quarter notes. The accidentals include flats and sharps. The brackets are used to group notes that are considered errors in the hypothetical version of the music.

Example 3.10: Hypothetical version of bb. 36–40, showing contrapuntal errors produced by the fully symmetrical four-part lattices. Notes omitted or altered in the finished passage are enclosed within vertical square brackets.

creates a fuller final sonority at the end of the cadence, but also alludes to similar ‘false closes’ in the opening of the fantasy (Example 3.2, bb. 9–10 and 13–14).

A different problem with unsupported dissonant fourths affects the second hypothetical imitative lattice (Example 3.10, bb. 38–40). Here, the first two notes of the G entrance in the alto of b. 39 would create dissonant fourths with the tenor entrance below. Although Gibbons could have fixed this by introducing a free bass voice a third below the tenor, he opted instead for a different solution which makes more use of the imitative material. In the finished version of the passage (Example 3.9), the alto entrance is shifted earlier in time and compressed, so that it begins in the last three crotchets of b. 38, and rises to B♭ above the tenor D of b. 39, replacing the problematic G of the hypothetical scheme. Another compressed and ornamented reiteration of the motive in the same voice begins on the second minim beat of b. 39, rising again to B♭ and then continuing like the other entrances. The result is that Gibbons conceals the potential contrapuntal error shown in Example 3.10 without having to resort to adding free voices: instead, the avoidance of the error allows him to bring in almost a whole extra copy of the section’s imitative subject.

Gibbons closes this section in bb. 39–40 with another allusion to the opening point of imitation, in which the treble and tenor voices quote, in rhythmically diminished form, a fragment of the stretto entrances from bb. 15–17 (Example 3.2, Example 3.3(a)). This is a double allusion, in a sense: contrapuntally, it replicates the structure of bb. 15–17, with its characteristic augmented fifth, but motivically, the treble of bb. 39–40 has a diminished version of the ‘flexed’ subject from bb. 11–13, which originally avoided the augmented fifth with the following part. The fact that this quotation from the opening section also combines flawlessly with the entrances of the rising-third subject in the lower voices suggests again that these subjects are not independently invented, but connected via different ‘unpackings’ of the four-voice complexes shown in Example 3.3.

3.6 ‘Unending melody’

Gibbons’s final transformation of the rising-third subject forms the subject matter of the more extended imitative section which crowns the first half in bb. 41–59 (Example 3.13). Willi Apel’s reference to Gibbons’s talent for ‘unending melody’, while undoubtedly a fanciful allusion to Wagnerian ideals, nevertheless captures something essential about these bars, and the way that they ‘carry on and develop a musical idea again and again, beyond its “natural” conclusion’.¹⁶ Where previous variations on this subject added and divided its notes without substantially altering their basic contour on the level of counterpoint, for this final exploration of the idea, Gibbons alters the subject in a way that substantially expands its imitative flexibility. By replacing the two even minims at the beginning of the point with a dotted minim and a crotchet, as shown in Example 3.11, Gibbons removes the second note of the point from the level of counterpoint, making it into a note of division. The essential contour of the point then consists of a rising third followed by one or two falling seconds, and can be interpreted as a segment drawn from one of the interval stocks of *stretto fuga*. The analysis in Example 3.13 shows how thoroughly imitative entrances of the point pervade the texture, and how much of the counterpoint is indeed limited to the intervals of rising third and falling second. In a sense, the possibility of combining this final version of the point in close imitation with itself is guaranteed by its interval structure. The musical effect, however, is utterly different from the plainer sequential examples of this counterpoint model explored in Chapter 1. Part of this difference depends on the rhythmic and metrical flexibility of the passage, in which the subjective accents on the longer first note of the subject seem to shift the meter between duple and triple time. At least as important as the rhythmic aspect is Gibbons’s more flexible and less patterned use of the interval stock. Although there are two places

¹⁶Apel, *History of Keyboard Music*, 320.

where Gibbons's compression together of successive entrances of the point creates a typical rising sequence of alternating thirds and seconds (bb. 44–45 and bb. 56–59), the counterpoint of the section as a whole is not restricted to this pattern, and these sequences alternate with more recognisably imitative passages in which the subject retains its identity as a self-contained figure, as in bb. 41–44 and 48–55. The final transformation of the rising-third subject not only gives it a distinctively wistful quality, but also makes it more imitatively flexible than any previous subject in the fantasy, allowing Gibbons to draw it out at length in a remarkable depiction of melancholy.

Original form (2a)

Final form (2d)

Outline of 2d on minim level

Example 3.11: The final transformation of the rising-third point in Gibbons MB9. Top staff shows the original form of the point; middle staff is the final form, with non-counterpoint notes in smaller noteheads; bottom staff extracts the contrapuntal skeleton alone.

The technique of Example 3.13 can be compared to the similar section in the *Fantazia of Foure Parts* analysed in chapter 1, in which a longer subject is similarly compressed into sequential strettos (Example 1.23). There is also a commonality of melodic material between the two sections, in the form of the repeated three-voice module in bb. 41–42 and 48–49 of Example 3.13. (Note that this is the only repeated module discussed in this chapter which is *not* related to the three-voice module of the fantasy's opening: its melodies 'i', 'ii', and 'iii' are entirely distinct from the figures with the same labels in the other module). The upper two voices of this module are imitative entrances of this

section's main subject or point, but the bass is the same figure that appears in b. 31–49 of the *Fantazia of Foure Parts* – a motive described in chapter 1 as an ‘inverted cumulative-fourth’ subject. It is striking that Gibbons should have turned to this figure for similar passages at analogous structural points in both his largest keyboard fantasies: both passages represent the culmination of the fantasy's first half, and precede the turn towards livelier and more rhythmic writing in the sections that follow.

The image displays four staves of musical notation, labeled F, G, H, and I from top to bottom. Each staff contains two musical phrases, each with fingerings indicated by numbers 3, 4, 5, and 6. The notation is in treble clef with a key signature of one flat (B-flat). The phrases are interlocking, meaning the end of one phrase leads into the beginning of the next. The first phrase on each staff is a rising third, and the second phrase is a falling third. The fingerings are as follows:

- Staff F:** First phrase (3, 4, 5, 6), Second phrase (3, 4, 5, 6).
- Staff G:** First phrase (3, 4, 5, 6), Second phrase (3, 4, 5, 6).
- Staff H:** First phrase (3, 4, 5, 6), Second phrase (3, 4, 5, 6).
- Staff I:** First phrase (3, 4, 5, 6), Second phrase (3, 4, 5, 6).

Example 3.12: Interlocks of the variant rising-third subject in its fourth and final presentation

Example 3.13: The fourth and final section based on the rising-third subject

52 53 54 55

56 57 58 59 60

3.7 Imitation and virtuosity

Having begun in solemnity and fallen into melancholy, Gibbons arrives at an entirely new affect of exuberance and virtuosity with the beginning of the fantasia's third section in b. 60. With the entrance of a new subject in b. 60 the overall pace effectively doubles, as quavers and crotchets replace crotchets and minims, and an angular, essentially instrumental idea replaces the quasi-vocal subjects of the preceding section. Imitation remains central to the musical substance of the new section, but once again differs in kind from what has gone before. The texture throughout this third section is dominated by closely-spaced periodic entries, culminating in bb. 75–78 with a brief three-part 'catch' or canon at the octave, in which the entire texture from treble to bass resounds with echoes of a single subject. Almost all the imitative entrances of these bars are separated by a semibreve from each other, and most of the interlocks are at the octave or unison. If the earlier sections' concentration on the harmonic variety and metrical ambiguity afforded by different imitative relationships might be heard as a musical analogue for introspection, the metrical and harmonic stability of the 'catch' topic creates an opposite impression of stability and resolve.

The sequential passage in bb. 67–75 of this third section (Example 3.14) again employs a 'spiralling' stacked canon of entrances, to very different effect from the structurally similar sequence earlier in the fantasy (Example 3.8). As in the openings of some of the three-part consort fantasies discussed in the previous chapter, Gibbons has devised the subject of Example 3.14 in double counterpoint at the tenth, so that it permits both a 'sequential' interlock – here, at the lower third or upper sixth – as well as a 'stable' interlock at the upper octave (Example 3.15). Unlike similar stacked canons with inversion in the consort fantasies, Gibbons does not use the the two alternative interlocks to extend a sequential progression by spacing out its entrances, but rather to construct a stable frame on either side of a continuously progressing circular

The image displays a musical score for Example 3.14, spanning measures 68 to 71. The score is written for two staves (treble and bass clef) and includes a detailed analysis of imitative sequences. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and accidentals. The analysis highlights specific intervals and sequences, with markings like [8], [3], [6], and [3] indicating the intervals between notes. A 'shadow' sequence is also indicated in measure 71. The score is divided into measures 68, 69, 70, and 71, with the analysis continuing across these measures.

Example 3.14: An imitative sequence moving by descending thirds and ascending sixths from F to F, from the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt'

72 73 74

shadow

shadow

shadow

[8] [3] [6]

[8] [3] [6]

[8] [3] [6]

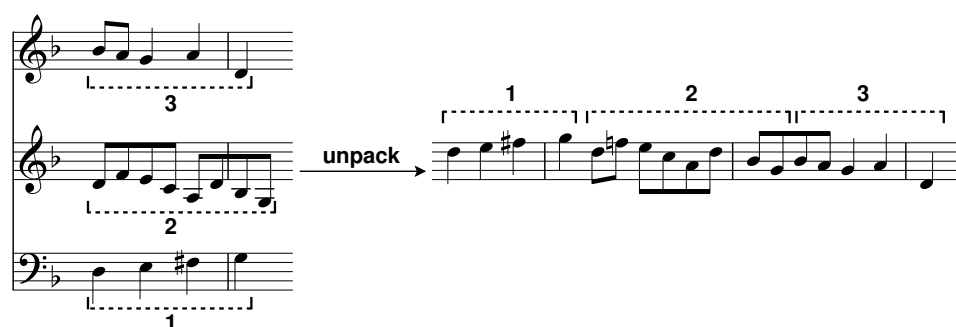
sequence. A single presentation of the interlock at the octave in alto and treble voices precedes the sequence with two F cadences (bb. 68–69), and two successive presentations following the sequence, spanning bass, alto and treble, produce three successive F cadences, as if to proclaim the successful arrival back at the starting point (bb. 72–73). These repeated cadences function like islands of stability from which the intervening sequential ‘transit of keys’ departs and to which it returns. Even without a detailed theory of areas for music from this period, it is hard not to hear a definite tonal plan in this passage: establishing a key area, departing from it in sequence and returning again.

Example 3.15: Interlocks of the sequence-generating point in bb. 68–74 of the ‘Fancy in Gamut Flatt’

Moving by third or sixth with each successive entrance of the stacked canon, rather than by fourth or fifth, offers Gibbons a rare opportunity to make a complete, closed spiral of imitative entrances, without running too quickly into unmanageable or un-tunable constellations of flats. The entrances of the point move sequentially from the A entrance of bar 68 through entries on F, D, B $\flat$, G, a partial entrance on E $\flat$, C, and back to A in bar 72, with a parallel sequence of imitatively created closes descending from the F cadences of bars 67–8 through full closes on D, B $\flat$, G, E $\flat$, C, a ‘*mi* close’ in A, and a return to the starting point of F.¹⁷ A complete entrance of the subject on E $\flat$ in the alto voice at the end of

¹⁷A ‘*mi* close’ or ‘Phrygian cadence’ features a suspension that resolves by whole tone, while another voice descends by semitone (in contrast to the more common ‘sharp cadence’ in which the suspension resolves by semitone). See the next chapter.

bar 70 would require an $A\flat$ in bar 71, which would prevent completing the closed cycle of entrances. In order to close the circle, Gibbons disguises the missing $A\flat$ with divisions, and more radically alters the following entrance on C: although all its notes are present in the texture, they migrate from the soprano into the tenor range, helping to disguise the replacement of the expected $A\flat$ cadence by an *A mi* cadence. Imitation at the third, together with some subtle sleight-of-hand enabled by the keyboard's freedom of voice-leading, allows Gibbons to make a complete 'circumnavigation' of the pitch space without running into the tuning problems that arise in a true circumnavigation of all twelve keys.



Example 3.16: Possible compositional process for the 'catch' from the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt'

Gibbons finishes the fantasy's third large section with a three-part 'catch' made up of cascading interlocks at the octave, in the culmination of the fantasy's overall development towards increasing rhythmic activity and contrapuntal density (Example 3.17). As Morley points out, this kind of 'catch' may be constructed relatively easily by first composing the interlocked section in all voices and then 'unpacking' the canonic subject from it; Example 3.16 illustrates the application of this method to the subject of Example 3.17. Compared to the subtle unpacking and re-packing processes that operate in the earlier sections of the fantasy, this is a straightforward procedure, but the resulting cascade of canonic entrances is no less impressive for knowing how it might have been constructed. Portions of the catch are repeated in slightly truncated form in bb. 78–81. Due to the nature of the canonic subject, the

sections of interlocked imitation are harmonically static, since each successive entrance follows at the octave above or below the previous one. The progression from one interlocked lattice to the next displays a sequential logic in its movement by fifths: the first lattice consists of entrances on D, the second of a single pair of entrances on G, and the final lattice of entrances on C. This imitative sequence is not entirely paralleled by the sequence of cadential degrees, which consists of cadences on G (b. 78), F (b. 79) and F again (b. 81). Following the conclusion in F in b. 81, Gibbons quickly returns to the fantasy's original key via a cadence in G (not shown here) in order to begin the closing section.

Measures 75-78 of a musical score. The score is written for two staves (treble and bass clef) and includes a keyboard diagram. The music features a near canon or 'catch' in Gamut Flatt. The notation includes various note values, accidentals, and a complex rhythmic pattern. The keyboard diagram shows the layout of the keyboard, with notes indicated by black dots on the white keys.

Measures 79-81 of a musical score. The score is written for two staves (treble and bass clef) and includes a keyboard diagram. The music continues the near canon or 'catch' in Gamut Flatt. The notation includes various note values, accidentals, and a complex rhythmic pattern. The keyboard diagram shows the layout of the keyboard, with notes indicated by black dots on the white keys.

Example 3.17: Near canon or 'catch' from the climax of the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt'

3.8 Close

At first hearing, the declamatory, expressively charged counterpoint of the fantasy's final section (bb. 82–95, Examples 3.18–3.8) might seem to consist entirely of free imitation, without any consistently maintained subjects. In the opening two phrases of the section (Example 3.18, bb. 82–84), and to a lesser extent in the following bars, Gibbons creates a striking effect without parallel elsewhere in his keyboard music by dividing the parts into a treble solo and an answering 'choir' of lower voices, in the manner of a verse anthem or a consort song. Both phrases suggest an imitative relationship between the treble and bass parts – the first in inversion at the lower fifth, the second direct at the octave – but neither imitative relationship persists strictly for more than a few notes. As in the opening of the fantasy, concentrating too much on the most immediately evident imitative structure is apt to mislead. Instead, these bars should be heard as a paraphrase of the fundamental three-voice module from the opening of the fantasy, now diminished to half its value, like the previous recollection in bb. 39–40 of Example 3.9. Recognising this thematic connection, once again, requires relaxing the assumption that every entrance of a subject must stay logically in its own notated voice part: in bb. 82–83, the head motive from the opening section begins in the alto voice (G–B $\flat$ –) but continues in the bass (–F $\sharp$ –G–D), while countersubjects ii and iii are placed more straightforwardly in the treble and alto, respectively. At the same time, one may simultaneously hear the alto part in these bars as stating the rising-third motive of the second section (G–B $\flat$ –A–G–F $\sharp$ –G), demonstrating again that these two subjects are connected by their common origin in this four-part progression. A second re-appearance of the same three-voice module in b. 84 is more straightforward: here the head motive, melody i, is in the bass throughout, embellished with a passing tone between its first and third notes; the two countersubjects are again in the upper voices.

Where the first repetition of the module in bb. 82–83 was tonally closed, ending with the promised cadence to G, the second repetition in b. 84 is tonally open due to the evaded cadence or ‘false close’ created by the bass rising from the D of melody i’s last note to E♭. It leads into motivic developments in bb. 85–90 which are more difficult to analyse and more distantly related to the material of the opening. The imitative sequence of bb. 85–87 relates to the opening subject inasmuch as the contours of the figures highlighted within brackets on the score – for instance, G–A–B♭–A–D in the alto of bb. 85–86 – can be compared to the overall contour of the head motive, which similarly rises from G to B♭ and then falls to D. (In b. 86, Gibbons strengthens the resemblance by substituting an F♯ for the expected A in the tenor part, creating a permutation of the head motive’s first three notes: G–F♯–B♭ rather than G–B♭–F♯). In bb. 87–88, too (Example 3.8), the combination of a triadic figure in the treble with a cadence figure in the bass can be loosely compared to the material from the opening section.

Following the sequential and motivic developments of these ideas, in b. 90–92 (Example 3.8) Gibbons returns to more direct paraphrases of the opening section’s material. Although countersubjects ii and iii here retain their identity, sounding in the lower voices of bb. 90–91 and the upper voices of bb. 91–92, melody i is freely altered. The alto entrance beginning on B♯ in b. 90 might be heard as another permutation of the head motive, in which the first and third notes are exchanged so that C–E♭–B♯ is replaced by B♯–E♭–C. Subsequent entrances of this motive tend to lose this distinctive contour, so that by the end of b. 93 they are transformed into brief segments from the counterpoint model of rising thirds and falling fourths.

Finally, in b. 93 Gibbons inserts a final allusion to a previous section – this time, to the motive and the evaded cadences of bb. 46–47 (Example 3.13). The ‘false close’ this produces introduces the elaborate post-cadential ‘flourish’ of bb. 94–95, with which the fantasy closes: a fitting conclusion to this most

compositionally virtuosic of Gibbons's keyboard fantasies.¹⁸

¹⁸The term 'flourish', defined in the following chapter, denotes a post-cadential segment which embellishes the final harmony of a preceding cadential progression. Typically these segments express a kind of 'plagal' harmonic motion, as this one does.

The image displays a musical score for a keyboard piece, specifically the closing section of 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' by Thomas Gibbons. The score is written for two staves, Treble and Bass, and is divided into measures 82 through 87. The key signature is one flat (B-flat), and the time signature is 4/4. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, accidentals, and dynamic markings. The score is characterized by its imitative artifice, with complex rhythmic patterns and melodic lines. The first system (measures 82-84) features a series of sixteenth-note runs in the Treble staff, which are mirrored in the Bass staff. The second system (measures 85-87) continues this pattern, with the Treble staff playing a series of sixteenth-note runs that are also mirrored in the Bass staff. The score is written in a clear, legible style, with a focus on the melodic and rhythmic details of the piece.

Example 3.18: Closing section of Gibbons, 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt'

87

88

89

90

90 91 92 93

allusion to opening

allusion to bb. 46-7

94 95 96

3.9 Conclusion

This analysis of the ‘Fancy in Gamut Flatt’ gives a rather different picture of Gibbons’s fantasia style from the restraint and austerity suggested by the quotations at the beginning of this chapter. If this fantasia lacks the ‘multiplicity and variety of ideas’ found in fantasias by Gibbons’s contemporaries, as Apel claims, it more than compensates for it in the multiplicity and variety of its imitative procedures. Similarly, if it eschews ‘virtuosity’ in the sense of finger dexterity – a claim which might be contested in its own right, given some of the figures which the player must navigate in the catches of the third large section – it is surely a fine example of *compositional* virtuosity for the skill with which its imitative entrances and the connections between them are concealed, and for the subtlety with which successive subjects are related to each other. For Gibbons, imitative procedures represent not stylistic restraint or conservatism, but an essential method for developing musical ideas, which can be employed to many different stylistic and affective ends.

The analysis of this fantasia also touches on an issue addressed by O. W. Neighbour in his assessment of Gibbons’s consort music, which Neighbour finds lacking in formal unity:

Nothing in Gibbons’s special methods of musical continuity could affect in any fundamental way the problematic nature of the open-ended, chain-like structure of the *ricercare* and madrigalian fantasia, whatever incidental advantages his flexibility of resource might bring. History has thrown up very few composers indeed capable of getting to the root of a structural problem of this order, and it does not belittle Gibbons’s great achievements to note that he was not among them.¹⁹

Neighbour’s analyses of Byrd’s consort and keyboard music argue eloquently for its formal sophistication in terms that primarily address harmonic organisation and the construction of larger formal units from shorter phrases. Neighbour writes, for example, that ‘Byrd’s propensity, shared by no other composer, to

¹⁹Neighbour, ‘Orlando Gibbons (1583–1625): The Consort Music’, 357.

introduce symmetrical periods reminiscent of secular melody into contrapuntal contexts was to have a profound effect on his structural thinking'.²⁰ He praises Byrd's four-part *In nomines* for their 'symmetrical periods and differentiated tonal areas', speaks of Byrd's 'clear paragraphing', and criticises Christopher Tye for his 'failure to plan his music in clear paragraphs'.²¹ Although it is possible that formal unity achieved through these means is a less prominent element of Gibbons's thinking, the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' demonstrates a different and highly sophisticated kind of unity in its use of quotation, paraphrase and allusion to connect the opening section to those that follow. In particular, the relationship between the opening section and the close represents a considerably more subtle kind of recapitulation than the one which Neighbour praises in Gibbons's ninth fantasia for three-part consort (*MB* 48, no. 15, bb. 1–16 and 67–80).²² These connections are obscured by a focus on large-scale harmonic structure, but revealed by searching for varied, repeated contrapuntal combinations.

The musical coherence created by the continuous use of imitation is arguably crucial to the expressivity of Gibbons's fantasias. Rather than simply juxtaposing different styles and affects, through his use of contrapuntal line and incremental development Gibbons gives the impression that one episode of a fantasy is transformed gradually into the next. In *English Chamber Music*, Ernst H. Meyer praised this overlooked aspect of Gibbons's art highly:

Gibbons is master of the art of contrast; the way he mixes tragic and gay often reminds us of Shakespeare. In Gibbons' instrumental works the technique of contrast is a clear expression of a desire ... to unite the parts of the piece in a dramatic unified whole. For to connect two movements of opposite character means to *unite* them, by giving them a functional relationship to each other.²³

²⁰Neighbour, *The Consort and Keyboard Music of William Byrd*, 38.

²¹Ibid. 41; 63; 30.

²²Neighbour, 'Orlando Gibbons (1583–1625): The Consort Music', 357.

²³Meyer, *English Chamber Music*, 155.

Few of Gibbons's compositions in any medium surpass the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' in musically uniting opposite characters into a 'dramatic unified whole'. Gibbons's decision to compose this piece in imitative style from beginning to end represents neither stylistic conservatism, nor a show of technique for technique's sake. Rather, the fantasy's contrapuntal continuity provides a musical analogue for the mingling of 'tragic and gay' in lived experience. The fantasia genre offered Gibbons a unique opportunity for this kind of musical expression, and his fascination with the almost limitless possibilities of imitation made him one of its ideal exponents.

Chapter 4

Cadences and closes

4.1 Introduction

To the student Philomathes in Morley's *Introduction*, the cadence seemed a simple idiom with limited application: 'in Cadence there is little shift or varietie,' he observes, 'and therefore it shoulde seeme not so often to be vsed, for auoiding of tediousnesse.'¹ On this view, a cadential progression is a mere grammatical marker with little scope for individuality or expression. Morley's inclusion of dozens of example cadential progressions, however, suggests that there is more to these progressions than the novice student appreciates, as does the Master's commentary on the importance of 'fine bindings' (i.e., suspensions) and 'strange closes' to the expressivity of the madrigal:

you must bring in fine bindinges and strange closes according as the words of your Dittie shal moue you²

Nor are such 'strange closes' the exclusive domain of the madrigal. Elsewhere, Morley writes that the 'strangeness' of the suspensions employed in 'Motets, and al other kinds of graue musicke' is a central component of their style, contributing to the esteem in which these works are held:

if you come to peruse the works of excellent musicians you shall finde many such bindings, the strangenesse of the inuention of which, chiefelie caused them to be had in estimation amongst the skilful.³

¹Morley, 82; Morley, ed. Harman, 160.

²Morley, 172; Morley, ed. Harman, 282.

³Morley, 170; Morley, ed. Harman, 280.

Although Morley does not say so, the expressive possibilities of cadential progressions are potentially even more important for instrumental music. In the absence of a poetic text, compositional play with conventional progressions like cadences can become a means of expression by manipulating the listener's expectations. Gibbons's fantasies for viols provide particularly rich examples of this, in passages which elevate the tonal ambiguity of linked 'passing closes' and 'false closes' to a central principle.

There are at least two distinct reasons to look for a more precise understanding of cadential progressions in English compositions of the early seventeenth century. First, cadential progressions deserve attention in their own right as an expressive element of musical language. Second, identifying cadential points is also a prerequisite for investigating the overall harmonic or tonal structure of compositions, since both modal and tonal theory posit close relationships between cadences and overall key or mode. A well-defined concept of cadence is particularly desirable for the analysis of instrumental music, which lacks the additional contextual information provided by the phrasing of the text in vocal music.

Although cadential progressions might seem familiar enough that an intuitive understanding should suffice, a more detailed analysis raises questions which cannot be answered without attempting to recover seventeenth-century concepts and assumptions. Consider Example 4.1, the opening point of imitation from Gibbons's first three-part consort fantasia (*MB* 48 no. 7), whose imitative structure was analysed in Chapter 2. (As will be done frequently throughout this chapter, the three voices of this example are compressed onto two staves in order to leave room for other notations. Analytical staves below present the essential cadential progressions, with the voices I take to be most significant indicated by beams; directional brackets ending in an arrow indicate the beginning and end of a cadential progression).⁴ The first clearly cadential

⁴The use of the arrow bracket to indicate a cadential progression, as well as several other notations explained below, are adapted from Elizabeth Eva Leach, 'Counterpoint and

progression in Example 4.1 appears in bb. 6–7: it concludes on C by means of a characteristic 4–3 suspension in an upper voice followed by a return to the upper note (C–B $\sharp$ –C), above a bass part which rises by fourth (G–C). The two-voice progression in bb. 16–17 represents an apparently different type of cadence, which concludes on G by means of a 7–6 suspension (G–F $\sharp$) above a stepwise descending bass (A–G). It is not obvious whether this two-voice progression, in a seventeenth-century context, has the same harmonic force as the C cadence of bb. 6–7, or whether it represents a less final form, as the absence of bass motion by fourth or fifth might suggest to modern ears. Still more ambiguous are the progressions in bb. 9–10, bb. 13–14, and particularly bb. 19–20. In each one, the upper parts make a two-voice progression analogous to the G cadence of bb. 16–17, suggesting conclusions on G in b. 10, C in b. 14, and A in b. 20. However, the bass provided by the imitative entrances below these progressions does not strongly support these notes as harmonic points of arrival. A strong cadence in b. 10 would have a bass which moves from D to G, analogously to the bass in bb. 6–7; instead, the bass of this progression rises by step to E $\flat$. Similarly, the bass in b. 14 rises from G to A $\flat$ instead of falling to C, and the bass in b. 20 rises from E to F. The cadence of bb. 19–20 is further set apart from all others in this passage by its intervallic structure: where the other cadential suspensions resolve by minor second (C–B $\sharp$ or G–F $\sharp$), the suspension in b. 19 resolves by major second, A–G, while the lower voice descends by semitone, B $\flat$ –A. Without a more detailed understanding of seventeenth-century cadential functions, it is not obvious whether this difference places bb. 19–20 in a separate category, or whether the diatonic progression from major sixth to octave has the same grammatical and expressive force regardless of the intervallic details.

Analysis in 14th-Century Song', *Journal of Music Theory* 44 (2000), 45–79. Leach uses this notation to indicate a 'directed progression'. One significant difference between Leach's analyses and those in this chapter is that I do not attempt to reduce these examples to a purely consonant counterpoint background, since I believe that suspension and resolution are essential to the articulation of a cadential progression in early 17th-century music.

Measures 2 through 10 of a three-part musical setting. The score is written for three staves: Treble, Bass, and Treble. The key signature has one flat (B-flat). The music features a variety of note values including eighth, sixteenth, and thirty-second notes, as well as rests. Brackets and arrows indicate specific cadential progressions and imitative entries between the parts.

Measures 11 through 20 of the same three-part musical setting. The notation continues with complex rhythmic patterns and imitative textures. Brackets and arrows highlight the cadential progressions and the opening point of imitation in the first three parts.

Example 4.1: Cadential progressions in the opening point of imitation from Gibbons's first three-part fantasia (*MB* 48, no. 7).

Analytical approaches to cadences in music of the sixteenth century and earlier often define them in terms of dyadic progression from imperfect to perfect consonance – typically major sixth to octave, or minor third to unison. A naive application of this principle might suggest that all the cadences in Example 4.1 have similar significance and harmonic force, since each one contains such a progression (though in bb. 6–7 the progression is from major third to octave, G–B $\sharp$ to C–C). However, I will argue that this definition is inadequate for understanding the harmonic nuances of early seventeenth-century cadential procedures. Instead, in this chapter I develop an alternative set of theoretical categories based on the discussion of ‘full’, ‘middle’, ‘passing’ and ‘false’ closes in English theory texts. English sources from Morley onward strongly suggest a concept of cadential function based primarily on the relationship between the voice with the suspension and the bass. Bass motion by fourth or fifth is considered the norm, and progressions in which the bass departs from this expectation – as in b. 10 or b. 14 of Example 4.1 – are ‘imperfect’ or ‘false’, even if the upper parts happen to conclude ‘perfectly’ on an octave. In addition, progressions such as b. 20 of the example, in which the suspension resolves by major second rather than minor second, form a different, less common, and less final category than other cadences. An analysis of cadential procedures along these lines allows a closer approach to seventeenth-century harmonic thought, and provides insight into Gibbons’s unusual way of fashioning stereotyped cadential procedures into longer expressive passages.

4.2 The grammaticalization of cadence

The sixteenth and seventeenth centuries saw substantial changes in both the musical function and the theoretical understanding of cadence. In older counterpoint theory, ‘cadence’ had a simple definition as the succession of an imperfect and a perfect consonance – typically either a major sixth followed by an octave, or a minor third followed by a unison. Margaret Bent has described

this ‘dyadic’ cadence as an essential component of musical ‘grammar’ from the fourteenth to the sixteenth centuries.⁵ Musical grammar, however, is no more static than the grammar of natural language. Although English writers on music around 1600 have a diversity of opinions about cadential progressions, none of them gives a clear explanation in terms of a dyadic phenomenon from imperfect to perfect consonance. Instead, they increasingly define cadential progressions in terms of suspensions against the bass, and consider the polyphonic texture as a whole to determine the finality of a particular progression.

Bent’s concept of musical grammar suggests an analogy to the linguistic process of *grammaticalization* as a description of how previously optional features of the cadence became essential while aspects that had been definitional became less important. A particularly striking example of grammaticalization in natural language is the evolution of the constructions which express negation:

The history of negative expressions in various languages makes us witness the following curious fluctuation: the original negative adverb is first weakened, then found insufficient and therefore strengthened, generally through some additional word, and this in its turn may be felt as the negative proper and may then in course of time be subject to the same development as the original word.⁶

A well-known instance of this process is the history of the negative construction *ne ... pas* in French, which can be very broadly summarised as follows. Negation in Old French was accomplished simply by prefacing the verb with a single negative particle, *ne*. In the case of verbs of motion, a negative statement could be further strengthened by following the verb with the noun *pas* (literally, ‘step’): the simple statement *je ne vais* (‘I don’t go’) might be expressed more strongly as *je ne vais pas*, ‘I don’t go a (single) step’. Once this usage became sufficiently conventional, however, the word *pas* began to lose its

⁵Margaret Bent, *Counterpoint, Composition and Musica Ficta* (New York: Routledge, 2002), 13–15.

⁶Otto Jespersen, *Negation in English and Other Languages*, (Copenhagen: Høst, 1917), 4, quoted in Bart Geurts, ‘Explaining grammaticalization (the standard way)’, *Linguistics* 38 (2000), 781.

specific lexical meaning, undergoing reanalysis as a generic negative particle, and the construction *ne . . . pas* became a general way of negating any verb.⁷ This newly grammaticalized construction itself then became the subject of further grammatical change, to the point that in modern spoken French, where the short syllable *ne* is easily dropped, *pas* can function effectively as the sole marker of negation.⁸ This historical process is summarised in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: The grammaticalization of negation in French, from Ashby, ‘The Loss of the Negative Particle *ne* in French’

Classical Latin	<i>non</i>	Verb	
Old and Middle French	<i>ne</i>	Verb	(<i>pas</i> etc.)
Classical French	<i>ne</i>	Verb	<i>pas</i> etc.
Modern French:	(<i>ne</i>)	Verb	<i>pas</i>
Future French:		Verb	<i>pas</i>

An analogy may be drawn between the history of French negation and the evolution of the polyphonic cadence from a progression defined by imperfect and perfect consonance to one defined by suspension and resolution. In both cases, grammatical features which had been optional intensifiers became obligatory through grammaticalization, while previously obligatory features declined in importance to the point where they can be omitted without loss of meaning. In this analogy, dyadic progression from imperfect to perfect consonance is analogous to *ne*, while cadential suspensions are analogous to *pas*: an optional intensifier which becomes obligatory over time, supplanting the original grammatical marker in importance. As with the development of negation, this process is set in motion by the weakening of the original grammatical feature. In the case of the cadence, the ubiquitous usage of ‘imperfect’ thirds and sixths in sixteenth-century polyphony lessened the articulative force of progression from imperfect to perfect consonance:

⁷Paul J. Hopper and Elizabeth C. Traugott, *Grammaticalization*, 2nd ed. (Cambridge University Press, 2003), 65–66.

⁸William J. Ashby, ‘The Loss of the Negative Particle “ne” in French: A Syntactic Change in Progress’, *Language*, vol. 57, no. 3 (1981), 674–687.

by the 1540s [...] thicker and more continuous textures had become the norm [...] the pre-cadential suspension appears to have served an essential articulative function, rather than a decorative one, by helping composers segment and articulate their counterpoint without disrupting its seamless flow⁹

The addition of a suspension to the cadence restores the significant contrast between unstable and stable sonorities, replacing motion from imperfect to perfect consonance with motion from dissonance to consonance. Once this usage was established as conventional, however – a process well underway by the time of Zarlino's *Istitutioni Harmoniche* in 1558 – the original grammatical marker of progression to perfect consonance declined in importance. English theoretical sources of the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries bear witness to this changed grammatical emphasis: Morley's *Introduction* baldly defines 'cadence' as a suspension figure, while later seventeenth-century authors including Campion and Coprario discuss closes only in terms of suspensions above a rising-fourth or falling-fifth bass.

Cadences in Zarlino's *Istitutioni Harmoniche*

The first stages of the grammaticalization of cadence are already evident in Zarlino's *Istitutioni Harmoniche* of 1558. Zarlino's initial discussion of the cadence conforms closely to the dyadic definition, presenting examples in two parts only, and classifying cadences as 'absolute' or 'imperfect' depending on their final interval. Cadences which end on the most perfect consonances of unison or octave are 'absolute', while cadences ending on other intervals such as the third or fifth are 'imperfect'.¹⁰ Both types of cadences can also be further classified as either 'simple' or 'diminished'. Simple cadences are consonant

⁹Michèle Fromson, 'Cadential structure in the mid-sixteenth century: The analysis approaches of Bernhard Meier and Karol Berger compared', *Theory and Practice* 16 (1991), 208.

¹⁰Zarlino, *The Art of Counterpoint*, tr. Marco and Palisca, 142-3. References to the original Italian text are to the facsimile edition of *Le institutioni harmoniche* (Venice, 1561), edited by Iain Fenlon and Paolo Da Col in facsimile as *Le institutioni harmoniche: Venezia, 1561* (Sala Bolognese BO: Arnaldo Forni, 1999), hereafter referred to as Zarlino, *Le institutioni*, ed. Fenlon and Da Col.

(a)

(b)

(c)

(d)

Example 4.2: Examples of Zarlino's four categories of cadences: Absolute simple cadences (a), absolute diminished cadences (b), imperfect simple cadences (c), and imperfect diminished cadences (d).

progressions in note-against-note counterpoint, while diminished cadences decorate this consonant framework with a dissonant suspension on the penultimate note. In total, this gives a four-fold classification of cadences in two voices: simple absolute, diminished absolute, simple imperfect, and diminished imperfect (Example 4.2).

Other passages from the *Istitutioni*, however, point toward the undermining of this inherited conception of cadence. First, Zarlino includes a discussion of two-part progressions in which the lower voice ascends by fourth or descends by fifth – the formula which Bernhard Meier calls the *clausula basizans* (Example 4.3).¹¹ Where earlier theory treated this bass part as an ornamental addition to the more essential dyadic progression, Zarlino recognises it as a cadential form in its own right, while cautioning that it is suited mostly for compositions in more than two parts.¹² Second, Zarlino states that diminished cadences with a suspension are used much more frequently in composition than consonant simple cadences. Zarlino accounts for this by describing the cadential suspension as ornamental, a matter of taste and refinement rather than an essential part of the structure: ‘a cadence without dissonance lacks the grace and charm found in those employing it’.¹³ Nevertheless, this statement suggests the increasing importance of suspension and resolution to the concept of the cadence and the reduced cadential force of the progression from imperfect to perfect consonance alone.

Zarlino’s discussion of cadences in four parts confirms the importance of the suspension. Chapter 61 of the text states that the most important or ‘principal’ cadences must include a suspended fourth or eleventh above the bass, a statement which also implies the presence of a *basizans* formula in the lowest voice:

¹¹Bernhard Meier, *The Modes of Classical Vocal Polyphony*, trans. Ellen S. Beebe (New York: Broude Brothers, 1988), 92–3.

¹²Margaret Bent, ‘The Grammar of Early Music’, in Cristle Collins Judd (ed.), *Tonal Structures in Early Music* (Garland, 1998), 30–31.

¹³*quella Cadenza non ha gratia alcuna, o leggiadria in se, laqual sia senza la Dissonanza.* Zarlino, *The Art of Counterpoint*, trans. Marco and Palisca, 203.

(a)

(b)

Example 4.3(a) and (b) show musical notation for cadences. Each example consists of two staves. The upper staff is in treble clef and the lower staff is in bass clef. The notation includes notes, rests, and fingerings (numbers 1-8). Brackets are used to indicate specific intervals or groups of notes. In (a), the lower voice has a leap of a fourth or fifth. In (b), the lower voice has a leap of a fourth or fifth.

Example 4.3: Another type of perfect cadence, with a leap of a fourth or fifth in the lower voice, from Zarlino



Example 4.4: A ‘perfect cadence’ which would be unsuitable for a ‘principal cadence’, from Zarlino

in the principal cadences the parts should be so arranged that the dissonant second part of a syncopated note is always a fourth or eleventh above the bass¹⁴

Cadences in which the syncopated note makes a suspended seventh rather than a fourth or eleventh above the bass might be ‘absolute’ in concluding on an octave or unison, but their lack of a *basizans* bass part makes them suited only for less final or significant points. The four-voice cadence in Example 4.4, for instance, is an ‘absolute’ cadence in that its structural pair of treble and bass voices conclude on an octave, but it would be unsatisfactory as a ‘principal cadence’ because the suspended dissonance in the treble makes a seventh with the bass rather than a fourth or an eleventh. In compositions for more than two parts, the placement of the cadential suspension in relation to the bass – and, implicitly, the type of motion in the bass itself – must be considered in addition to the final interval between the structural voices in determining the

¹⁴ *nelle Cadenza principali della cantilena, le parti siano ordinate, & accomodate in tal maniera, che la seconda parte della figura sincopata, la qual si pone dissonante, sia sempre con la parte grave distante per una Quarta; overamente per una Undecima.* Zarlino, *The Art of Counterpoint*, trans. Marco and Palisca, 201; Zarlino, *Le institutioni*, ed. Fenlon and Da Col, 249.

finality of a cadential progression.

Cadences and closes in Morley's *Introduction* and Butler's *Principles*

On the surface, Morley's discussion of cadences and closes in the *Introduction* closely resembles Zarlino's. Morley agrees with Zarlino that progressions with a suspended dissonance are the best and most usual manner of 'coming to a close', and that the strongest such closes involve a suspended fourth above the bass. Morley and Zarlino differ, however, on which features of this progression are essential and which incidental. Where Zarlino's order of presentation begins with the note-against-note 'simple' cadence, and introduces the diminished cadence as an embellishment, Morley inverts this order, beginning with the features Zarlino arrives at last, and only briefly mentioning the possibility of closing without a cadential suspension.



Example 4.5: 'What a Cadence is', from Morley

Morley's definition of 'cadence' equates it with the syncopated figure typical of Zarlino's 'diminished cadence':

that, when comming to a close, two notes are bound together, and the following note descendeth thus: [see Example 4.5] or in any other keye after the same manner.¹⁵

This definition foregrounds what Zarlino had only implied: the suspension of the 'diminished cadence' has become the most important marker of a close. Moreover, where Zarlino justified the use of the dissonant diminished cadence as a matter of 'grace and charm,' Morley makes the stronger claim that 'there is no comming to a close, specialle with a Cadence, without a discord.'¹⁶ Although Morley does supply examples of two-part closes without dissonance

¹⁵Morley, 73–75; Morley, ed. Harman, 145–148.

¹⁶Morley, 73–74; Morley, ed. Harman, 145–148.

(‘formal closing without a discord or Cadence’), these are presented only after the definition of the cadence, and there is no suggestion that they represent the more fundamental progression from which the syncopated figure of Example 4.5 derives.¹⁷ Finally, Morley seems unsure how to classify two-part progressions which end in a fifth rather than an octave, such as Example 4.6(b). Philomathes is perplexed by this progression, and remarks that ‘closing in the fift [...] offendeth myne eares.’¹⁸ The Master’s response is tellingly equivocal: he acknowledges that the progression sounds ‘unpleasant,’ but justifies it based on the similarity of the fifth and the octave, presumably since both are perfect consonances: ‘though it be vnpleasant, yet is it true, and if it bee true closing in the eight, why should it not be true in the fift also?’¹⁹ Such progressions had a well-defined place in Zarlino’s theory as ‘imperfect cadences,’ but they apparently struck Morley as archaic or problematic in 1597.

My interpretation of Morley’s definition of cadence contrasts with that of Rebecca Herissone, who writes that ‘cadence’ is simply Morley’s term for a suspension.²⁰ A closer reading suggests that Morley equivocates on this point, switching between using ‘cadence’ in a general sense, in reference to any suspension whatever, and a more specific sense, in reference to the particular types of suspensions which indicate a close. This ambiguous terminology apparently caused him some frustration, as acknowledged in his passing reference to ‘parts making Syncopation (which we abusiuely call a Cadence)’.²¹ Although this indicates that the use of ‘cadence’ to refer simply to a suspension is an ‘abuse,’ not the true meaning of the word, the lack of another term forces Morley to rely on this ‘abusive’ usage in several places. The definition of cadence quoted above, for instance, is immediately followed by an example showing all the possible ways in which a ‘cadence’ can be used to introduce a dissonance above the

¹⁷Morley, 74; Morley, ed. Harman, 147.

¹⁸Morley, 74; Morley, ed. Harman, 147.

¹⁹Morley, 74; Morley, ed. Harman, 147.

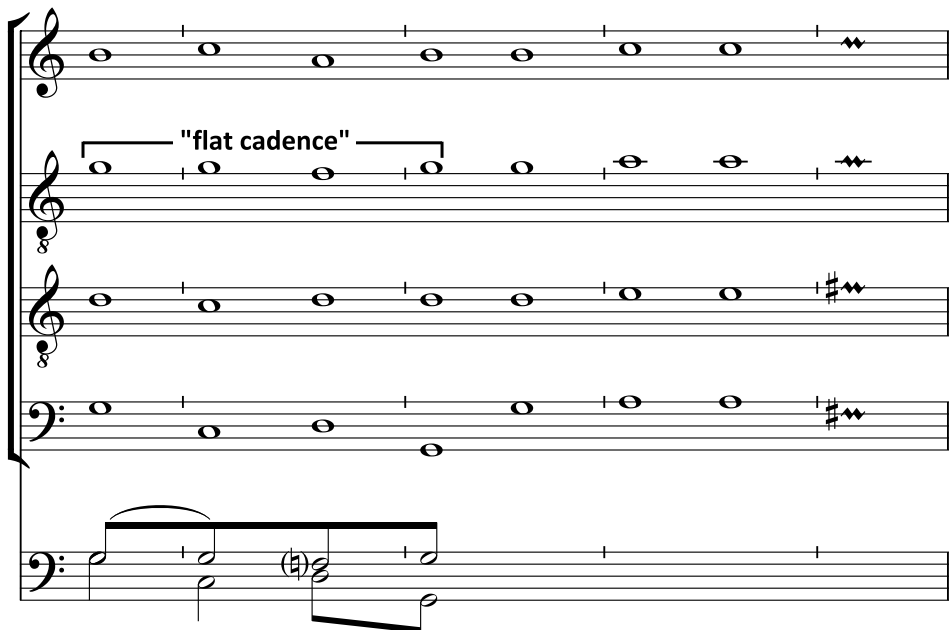
²⁰Rebecca Herissone, *Music Theory in Seventeenth-Century England* (Oxford University Press, 2000), 158.

²¹Morley, 144; Morley, ed. Harman, 245.

The image displays three musical examples, (a), (b), and (c), each consisting of a single staff with a treble clef. Example (a) shows a sequence of notes with fingerings: 5, 6, 7, 6, 8, followed by a whole note. Example (b) shows a sequence of notes with fingerings: 3, 3, 4, 4, 3, followed by a whole note. Example (c) shows a sequence of notes with fingerings: 3, 3, 4, 4, 3, followed by a whole note. Each example is separated by a double bar line.

Example 4.6: Examples of using a ‘cadence’ (in the sense of ‘suspension’) to introduce dissonances, from Morley

given cantus firmus (Example 4.6). Here, ‘cadence’ clearly refers simply to a suspension, for only Example 4.6(a) conforms to the definition of cadence just given, while the other two examples depart from it significantly. In Example 4.6(b) and (c), the suspension falls a major second to its resolution, rather than a semitone as in Example 4.5. (Morley later describes this as a ‘flat’ cadence, distinguishing it from the ‘sharp’ cadences of the other examples). Furthermore, the upper part in Example 4.6(c) does not return by rising step to its original pitch following the resolution of the suspension, as in the original definition of ‘cadence’ and the other examples: instead, it falls a second step. These three examples accord with Herissone’s reading of ‘cadence’ as a synonym for ‘suspension’, and do not have a strongly cadential implication in the modern sense.



Example 4.7: An informal ‘flat cadence’, from Morley

In other parts of Morley’s text, however, ‘cadence’ clearly has a more specific meaning than ‘suspension’. This sense of ‘cadence’ requires two features which are present in Examples 4.5 and 4.6(a) but absent from Examples 4.6(b) and (c). First, the resolution of the suspension should be followed by a return to

the starting pitch (C–B–C, E–D–E); in other words, this sense of ‘cadence’ refers to the melodic formula which Meier, among others, names the *clausula cantizans*.²² Second, the cadence should preferably have a ‘sharp’ resolution: that is, its upper note should fall to the note a minor second below (G–F♯–G, C–B–C), not a major second (G–F♭–G, C–B♭–C). Morley uses ‘cadence’ in this more restrictive sense, for instance, when he criticises a student exercise (Example 4.7), in which the G–F♭–G progression of the second part is described as ‘a flat Cadence [...] which is a thing against nature, for euerie Cadence is sharpe’.²³ In another passage, Morley justifies the diminished fifth between F♯ and C♭ in an example (Example 4.8) on the same grounds: ‘... the base being a Cadence, the nature thereof requireth a sharp’.²⁴ Unless Morley uses ‘cadence’ in two different senses, this statement is clearly contradicted by the ‘flat’ resolutions of Example 4.6(b) and (c).

Several of Morley’s example closes demonstrate a further distinction between a cadence and a suspension: as a melodic-rhythmic figure, a ‘cadence’ may be present without any suspended dissonance at all. In two parts, Morley praises as ‘very good’ the progression shown in Example 4.9, in which the step-wise rising motion of the lower voice avoids the 4–3 suspension which would otherwise exist.²⁵ Several examples of closes in three parts (Example 4.11) also demonstrate that a cadence need not create a dissonance at all, as Morley implies:

of all other closes the Cadence is the most vsuall ... for without a Cadence in some one of the parts, *either with a discord or without it*, it is vnpossible formallie to close [my emphasis].²⁶

Even when the dissonance is omitted, however, Morley evidently still finds it necessary to include the syncopated cadence figure to mark the passage as a

²²Meier, *The Modes of Classical Vocal Polyphony*, 91.

²³Morley, 143; Morley, ed. Harman, 243.

²⁴Morley, 94; Morley, ed. Harman, 175.

²⁵Morley, 75; Morley, ed. Harman, 148.

²⁶Morley, 127; Morley, ed. Harman, 223.

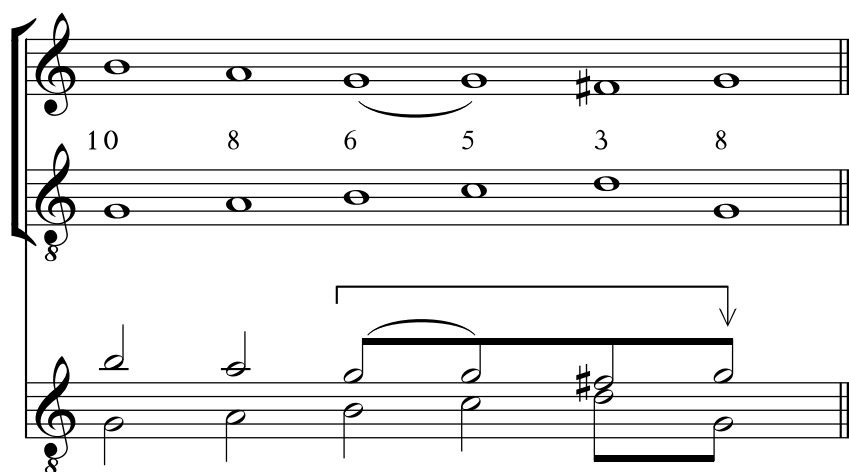
The image displays a musical score for Example 4.8, consisting of four staves. The first two staves are in treble clef, and the last two are in bass clef. The first staff contains a melodic line with a half note G4, a quarter note A4, a quarter note B4, a half note C5, and a quarter note D5. The second staff contains a harmonic line with a half note G4, a half note A4, a half note B4, a half note C5, and a half note D5. The third staff is labeled 'cadence' and contains a half note G4, a half note A4, a half note B4, a half note C5, and a half note D5. The fourth staff contains a half note G4, a half note A4, a half note B4, a half note C5, and a half note D5. The score is written in a style that suggests a specific key signature and time signature, though they are not explicitly stated.

Example 4.8: A bass cadence which requires a sharp, from Morley

close. This represents another step in the grammaticalization of cadence: the characteristic syncopation of the cadence figure, originally motivated by the voice-leading of the dissonant suspension, is now so commonly associated with the formal function of closing that it functions as a syntactic marker in its own right.

Although Morley does not emphasise the dyadic relationship between the voices of a cadential progression to the same extent as Zarlino or earlier theorists, his examples make it clear that this is more a change of theoretical emphasis than a break in practice. In the section on composition for three or more voices, for instance, Morley praises the four-voice progression shown in Example 4.10 as ‘the best manner of closing, and the onelie waie of taking the fifth and sixth together’.²⁷ Here, the alto and tenor provide the cadential suspension (D–E) and resolution (C♯–E), and no voice is dissonant to the bass. Where an earlier theorist might have emphasised the alto and tenor as the structural pair that provide the essential cadential function of this progression, however, Morley discusses them only in relation to the lowest part: he does not say that the second between them resolves to a third, but rather that they independently make a fifth and a sixth with the bass. Yet at the same time, as Morley implies by singling this progression out as ‘the best manner of closing’, the presence of a dissonant second or seventh between the *cantizans* cadence and another part nevertheless contributes powerfully to the finality of a cadential progression. In the analyses in this chapter and the next, the voices singled out as ‘structural’ using beams on the analytical staff will typically be the *cantizans* cadence figure and the bass – an approach which I believe reflects early seventeenth-century priorities. Nevertheless, the presence of an upper voice that forms a dissonant suspension with the *cantizans* cadence remains a powerful (though not obligatory) component of these cadential progression, and these voices will also be indicated in the analyses using unbeamed notes, as in Example 4.10.

²⁷Morley, 143; Morley, ed. Harman 243.



Example 4.9: A two-part close with a cadence but no dissonance, from Morley.

Example 4.10: The 'best way of closing', using a fifth and sixth above the bass together, from Morley

(a) (b) (c)

The image displays three musical examples, (a), (b), and (c), illustrating different types of three-part closes. Each example consists of three staves (treble, alto, and bass clefs) and a 'cadence' bracket indicating the final chord.

- (a)** Shows a three-part close with a cadence but no suspension. The final chord is a triad (C-E-G).
- (b)** Shows a three-part close with a cadence and suspension. The final chord is a triad (C-E-G) with a suspension (F#) on the bass staff.
- (c)** Shows a three-part close with a cadence and suspension, with fingerings indicated by numbers 1-10. The final chord is a triad (C-E-G) with a suspension (F#) on the bass staff. The fingerings are: Treble (1, 2, 3), Alto (4, 5, 6), Bass (7, 8, 9, 10).

Example 4.11: Three-part closes with a cadence but no suspension, from Morley.

Morley distinguishes between the ‘cadence’, which is the *cantizans* melodic formula, and the ‘close’, which is a progression of two or more voices in which a cadence usually, but not necessarily, features. Closes may be classified on the basis of their finality into *full closes*, *middle closes*, and *passing* or *false closes*. Morley’s commentary on Examples 4.9 and 4.10 implies that a strong full close involves a (*cantizans*) cadence in an upper voice and a bass part which falls by fifth or rises by fourth to its final note – the formula which Meier describes as the *clausula basizans*.²⁸ Despite this implication, Morley does not provide a term by which to distinguish clearly between this case and the main alternative possibility, in which the lowest voice descends by step to its lowest note (the formula Meier calls *clausula tenorizans*). Nevertheless, it is clear that – outside of the special context of two-part music – progressions without the *basizans* formula were recognised as less final and perfect by musicians and theorists throughout the sixteenth century. Moreover, for two slightly later English authors – Campion and Coprario, discussed below – the *basizans* formula becomes the defining feature of a close. In the absence of a historical English term to distinguish between these two types, I will adapt Meier’s terminology and refer to all closes lacking the *basizans* formula as *semi-perfect closes*. In addition to closes with the descending-step *tenorizans* figure in the bass, this category also includes closes in which the ‘cadence’ itself, i.e. the *cantizans*, is placed in the bass. I will reserve Morley’s term ‘full close’ for progressions which have a complete *cantizans* cadence in an upper voice and which conclude with a *basizans* rising fourth or falling fifth figure in the lowest voice. Table 4.2 compares the terms used by the three English authors cited here with each other and with some modern equivalents. (Terms not yet defined are discussed below).

Charles Butler’s treatment of close and cadence in his *Principles of Musik* of 1636 closely resembles Morley’s. Like Morley, Butler distinguishes a ‘cadence’

²⁸Meier, *The Modes of Classical Vocal Polyphony*, 92–3.

Table 4.2: Cadential terminology from Morley, Coprario, and Butler compared with some modern equivalent terms. Terms used in this thesis are shown in bold type.

Morley	Coprario	Butler	Modern equivalents
Full close	Close	Perfect cadence	Perfect cadence Authentic cadence
-	-	-	Semi-perfect cadence Inverted authentic cadence
Flat cadence	-	<i>La</i> cadence	<i>mi</i> cadence/close Phrygian half-cadence Descending-semitone cadence
Middle close	Stay	-	Half close Half cadence Plagal cadence
Passing close False close	'defer a close'	Imperfect cadence	Deceptive cadence Interrupted cadence

from a ‘close’, defining ‘cadence’ primarily in terms of syncopation and suspension; and he requires it to have a ‘sharp’ resolution, in which the suspended note descends by semitone. He notes that the cadence figure defined by these melodic and rhythmic characteristics tends to create some degree of rest both in the ‘Harmoni’ and the words (the ‘Ditti’):

a Cadence [...] is an Alligation, whose Binding semitone falleth into the next key always sharp: of which falling the Cadence hath his name: by which the Harmoni and soom parte of the Ditti inclineth to rest.²⁹

Butler further agrees with Morley that the majority of closes depend on a cadence for their effect, while allowing that it is not strictly necessary if replaced by other forms of preparation:

The Cloze is a Formal meeting of all Partes in Primari Concords, (commonly with a Cadence, and not without soom preparation and prolusion unto it) for the concluding either of the whole Song, or of soom Principal Part thereof.³⁰

In one respect, Butler might seem closer than Morley to a Zarlinian definition of cadence, in that he classifies cadences as ‘perfect’ or ‘imperfect’ based on the final interval between two voices: ‘perfect’ cadences conclude on an octave or a unison, while ‘imperfect’ cadences either lack one of the notes in the final resolution, or end on some other interval:

A perfect Cadence is that which to the disjoined Mesure-note and the Binding Concord, addeth a third Note in the key of the disjoined: which must bee either an Eight or an Unison to the Base

Crucially, however, for Butler, the two voices which determine the finality of the progression are always the bass and the suspension.

²⁹Charles Butler, *The principles of musik, in singing and setting with the two-fold use thereof, ecclesiasticall and civil* (London, 1636), 60.

³⁰Butler, *The principles of musik*, 82.

‘Flat cadences’ and *mi* closes

Because of their common insistence on a ‘sharp’ resolution of the cadential suspension, both Morley and Butler have difficulty explaining the progression variously described as a ‘flat cadence’, *clausula in mi* or ‘Phrygian cadence’. (An example from Gibbons of such a progression appears above in bb. 19–20 of Example 4.1). In cadences of this form, the voice with the suspension resolves and returns to the final by major second (e.g., E–D–E), while another part (typically lower) descends by semitone (e.g. F–E). This is in contrast with the more common form of cadence, in which the cadential suspension resolves by semitone (e.g., G–F♯–G) above a lower part which moves by whole tone or by leap (A–G or D–G). The term *clausula in mi* reflects the fact that cadences of this form occur on pitches with a diatonic semitone above them, such as E in a scale with no flats, or A in a scale with one flat; in the usual solmization scheme, these pitches would be given the syllable *mi*.³¹ Because English historical sources of this period do not have a consistent term for this type of progression, I will adapt the Latin of *clausula in mi* and refer to them here as *mi*-closes. According to the dyadic definition of cadence, these progressions have the same status as the more common cadence in which the suspension resolves by semitone: as Zarlino explains, it suffices that ‘one voice – upper or lower – moves a semitone and the other a whole tone’.³² Zarlino makes no special comment about these cadences, and several of his examples of perfect cadences have this form: for example, see any of the progressions concluding on E in Example 4.2. For Morley and Butler, however, the ‘sharp’ resolution of the cadence is part of its definition, and the ‘flat cadence’ that appears in these *mi*-closes presents a problem.

Morley mentions flat cadences only in passing, in the course of defending his claim that every cadence is ‘sharp’. He gives three examples (Example 4.12),

³¹Bernhard Meier, *The modes of classical vocal polyphony*, trans. Ellen S. Beebe (New York: Broude Brothers, 1988), 96–98.

³²Zarlino, *The Art of Counterpoint*, trans. Marco and Palisca, 145.

The image displays three musical examples, (a), (b), and (c), each consisting of two systems of staves. The first system in each example has four staves (Soprano, Alto, Tenor, Bass), and the second system has two staves (Soprano, Bass). Brackets above the staves indicate the scope of the cadences. Example (a) shows a 'mi close' on A. Examples (b) and (c) show a normal 'sharp cadence' ending on F.

Example 4.12: Morley's examples of allowable 'flat cadences'

describing them by saying that the first has 'one cadence', the second 'two cadences' and the last 'three cadences' together. This reflects the ambiguity of the two senses of 'cadence', one of which refers simply to suspensions, the other to suspensions with a specifically cadential function. In this example, the ambiguity causes considerable confusion, for the three examples actually represent two different types of progression: Example 4.12(a) is a *mi* close on A, but Examples 4.12(b) and (c) end on F by means of a normal 'sharp cadence' in the alto. The soprano in (b) and (c) and the tenor in (c) are better thought of as an addition to the fundamental progression rather than having cadential function in their own right, but Morley's technical vocabulary lacks a clear way to express this distinction. Morley groups all three progressions together with the 'passing' closes which may not conclude a composition or a major section:

they be al[l] three passing closes, and not of the nature of yours,
which is a kind of ful[l] or final close although it be commonlie vsed
both in passing maner in diuers places of your composition, and
finally at the close³³

³³Morley, 143–144; Morley, ed. Harman, 243–244. It is tempting to cite this example as evidence that Morley considered the 'semi-perfect close' demonstrated in Examples 4.12(b) and (c) to be a kind of passing close; but this is not borne out by his other examples of three-part closes, where similar progressions lack the asterisk that indicates a passing close.

Passing closes are discussed in more detail below: Morley's other examples of this category correspond to deceptive cadences in common-practice harmony, in that some unexpected harmony is substituted for the expected final sonority. Morley implies that *mi* closes fall into a similarly inconclusive category, since they do not produce as strong a sense of closure as the 'sharp cadence' of the full close.

In passing, Morley's discussion of 'flat cadences' also makes an important distinction between two senses of 'close': one referring to a type of progression defined by its voice-leading, the other to a formal function within a composition. Morley writes that the 'full or final close' is commonly used in two different ways: both 'in passing manner' throughout the composition, and 'finally at the close'³⁴. In other words, although this progression derives its name from its suitability for the end of a strain or a complete composition, it can equally well be used to provide harmonic stress and direction within a phrase or section, without implying a final conclusion. William E. Caplin makes a similar distinction between cadential progressions and passages with cadential function in common-practice harmony, writing that although the '*cadential progression* [...] is most often associated with cadential function [...] it can also provide harmonic support for other formal functions, especially codettas.'³⁵ Morley's remark suggests that the use of the term 'close' in reference to cadential progressions in general is justifiable, independent of whether or not these progressions play the formal role of closing a strain or a composition.

Butler omits any mention of 'flat' cadences from the main text of his book, mentioning them only in the annotations. He supplies three examples (Example 4.13), which he describes as '*La* cadences' – a term analogous the term '*mi* close' adopted here, *La* being the equivalent of *mi* in Butler's idiosyncratic solmization system.³⁶ Butler's explanation of these progressions is little clearer

³⁴Morley, 143–144; Morley, ed. Harman, 243–244.

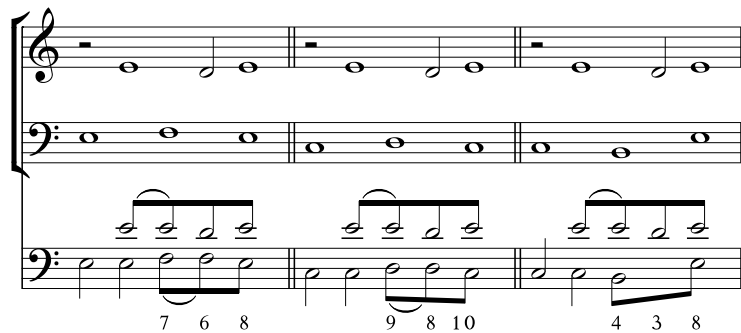
³⁵Caplin, *Classical Form*, 43.

³⁶Owens, 'Concepts of Pitch in English Music Theory', 183–246. Butler's solmization system and his reference to 'inordinate half-tones' are both discussed further in Chapter 5 of

than Morley's. He states that some musicians make the D of the example sharp, in keeping with the more standard form of the cadence:

soom, to make this like other Cadences, take upon them to sharp Sol
[i.e. D]; but this is unnatural, and unapt to bee Sung; houseoever,
by the help of the inordinat half-tones, it may bee played.³⁷

If Butler had understood the traditional dyadic definition of cadence, he would have seen that the first of his examples is a 'perfect' cadence as it stands, since its parts move from a major sixth to an octave. Only the third example, in which the cadence forms a suspended fourth above a lower part that rises by fourth from B to E, would normally require a D $\sharp$.³⁸



Example 4.13: Butler's examples of the 'La cadence'

However unsatisfactory they may be as theory, Morley's and Butler's attitudes toward the *mi* close are revealing evidence of how this progression was regarded in practice. They make it clear that the 'sharp' resolution of the cadential suspension to a raised leading tone had become so common as to be regarded as integral to the definition of the cadence, while the alternative 'flat'

this thesis.

³⁷Butler, *The principles of musik*, 87.

³⁸Nevertheless, Alan Howard has pointed out that some seventeenth-century English music does make use of the augmented sixth that results when a 'sharp' resolution is added to the cadence in such a *mi* close, so that both voices approach their final note by semitone. In some pieces this sonority is notated explicitly, in others implied by figures in the continuo part. If musicians were sometimes confused about the proper application of *ficta* inflections in such *mi* closes, as Butler appears to imply, augmented sixths that are not notated must also have resulted with some frequency whenever a piece was played or sung from separate parts. See Alan Howard, "Your murd' red peace destroy": the augmented 6th in England in the late 16th century', *Early Music* 2013, 480 and throughout.

form became hard to explain, and was heard as a less final construction. While writers more conversant with dyadic theory continued to regard *mi*-cadences such as this as ‘perfect’ cadences into the mid-seventeenth century, since they ended on the octave, Morley and Butler strongly imply that the less final quality of these progressions, lacking a sharp ‘leading tone’ below the final, places them in a separate category of their own.³⁹

Closes defined by bass progression

By the time of Coprario’s *Rules how to Compose* and Campion’s *New Way of Making Fowre Parts in Counterpoint*, the grammaticalization of the cadence had proceeded to the point where a close was increasingly defined by the contour of its bass part. Although a suspension in an upper part is still required, both authors focus their definitions on the motion of the bass by rising fourth or falling fifth. Coprario’s first reference to cadential progressions, for example, emphasises the central importance of the bass part in its heading, ‘if Basso meanes to make a close’. It lists several different progressions of the bass part which imply a close, all ending with a rising fourth or falling fifth, and mandates the use of a suspended fourth or eleventh resolving to a third:

The Bass meanes to make a close when he rises a 5, 2, or 3, and then falls a 5, or rises a 4. Likewise if the Bass fall a 4, or 2, and then fall a 5, he meanes to vse a close, then that part must hold, which in holding can vse the 11, or 4 with the Bass in the next note rising, or falling, and then you must vse either the 3, or 10.⁴⁰

Campion’s almost identical description gives the same list of three-note bass progressions: a rising 2nd, 3rd, or 4th, or a falling 2nd or 4th, followed by a falling fifth or a rising fourth.⁴¹ In principle, this list of possible bass contours is implicit in the preparation, suspension and resolution of a cadence in an

³⁹On the continued importance of Zarlirian views of cadence in the seventeenth century, see Gregory Barnett, ‘Tonal organization in seventeenth-century music theory’, in the *Cambridge History of Western Music Theory* (Cambridge University Press, 2008), 449.

⁴⁰Coprario, *Rules how to Compose*, ed. Wilson, 85.

⁴¹*Ibid.*, 56.

upper part: they are the only bass progressions which permit the consonant preparation of a suspended fourth above the second note. Nevertheless, the shift of emphasis from the upper voice onto the bass is a significant indicator of ongoing grammatical change. Two features which were originally decorative additions to the essential two-voice cadence – the cadential suspension, and bass motion by fourth or fifth – have become essential defining features of the early seventeenth-century close.

Among Gibbons's compositions, the ability of the bass alone to define a close is evident in the conclusions of two three-part fantasias with double bass (*MB* 48, nos. 16 and 18). Both pieces end with a close in which the double bass part falls by fifth, without any cadence in the upper parts (Example 4.14). Two interpretations of these closes are possible: either such progressions were felt to be sufficiently final in their own right to close a composition, or – since the ensemble for these pieces also includes an accompanimental organ part – possibly the organist was expected to add harmony where needed, in the manner of a continuo player, and the presence of a falling fifth in the bass at the close of the composition implied the addition of a cadence in the upper voices even if none is written in the string parts.⁴² In either case, the motion of the bass by falling fifth is crucial in defining the close. Both pieces also include additional context that signals a forthcoming conclusion: in no. 16, the final close is prefigured by a 'flat cadence' in b. 160, while in no. 18 the pedal point from bb. 145–148 serves a similar preparatory function. These progressions recall Butler's remark that a close made without a cadence should at least have 'some preparation or prolusion to it'.⁴³

⁴²On the role of organ accompaniment in consorts, whether from a written short score or not, see Peter Holman, "'Evenly, Softly, and Sweetly According to All': the Organ Accompaniment of English Consort Music', in Ashbee and Holman, eds., *John Jenkins and his Time: Studies in English Consort Music* (Oxford: Clarendon, 1996), 353–82.

⁴³Butler, *The principles of musik*, 87.

The image displays two musical examples, (a) and (b), each consisting of a treble staff and a bass staff. Example (a) is labeled '159 (a)' and shows a complex melodic line in the treble staff with many beamed sixteenth and thirty-second notes, while the bass staff provides a simpler harmonic accompaniment. Example (b) is labeled '145 (b)' and shows a more active bass line with frequent eighth-note patterns, while the treble staff has a more melodic, stepwise progression. Both examples conclude with a final double bar line.

Example 4.14: Full closes without a cadence from Gibbons's three-part fantasias with double bass: (a) from *MB* 48, no. 16; (b) from *MB* 48, no. 18.

4.3 Half closes, middle closes and plagal flourishes

All the types of closes considered so far either effect harmonic closure by means of a cadence (in Morley's sense of the term), or strongly imply one by the contour of their bass part. Another significant type of close either lacks a cadence entirely, or else ends with an incomplete cadence consisting only of a suspension and resolution, omitting the expected final return to the upper note. In either case, such progressions typically end with the bass part rising by fifth or falling by fourth to its final note: the opposite of the *basizans* bass formula that defines the full close. In a common-practice context, such a progression might be analysed as a half cadence or plagal cadence, depending on its relationship to the key currently in force. For historical authors of this period, such progressions seem to have been difficult to define precisely. They are mentioned infrequently, and there is little agreement over how they should be named or how they function in composition. Yet such progressions are clearly significant. Among Gibbons's instrumental works, they conclude three out of the four consort *In Nomines* as well as several keyboard preludes and

fantasias, and appear at the conclusions of the first and second strains of most of the keyboard pavans. There is also a connection between these types of close and questions of genre, for several slightly later authors associate this type of close particularly with serious genres such as motets and fantasies.

Coprario is one of the few English authors of this period to supply an explicit name for progressions like these: he describes them as ‘making a stay’. This term recognises the interrupted or halted quality of the progression: rather than continuing onward to the expected final sonority of a full close, the parts finish on what would otherwise be the penultimate sonority. Coprario includes four examples of such a ‘stay’ (Example 4.15), describing them as follows:

if the Bass fall a 4, or rise a 5 meaning for to make a staie the 8, or 15 must hold, and next use the 3, or 10. [...] This holding consists vppon the 4, and 11.⁴⁴

Earlier in the text, Coprario had numbered falling fourths and rising fifths among the bass motions which imply a forthcoming close.⁴⁵ Suspended fourths are also common to both types of progression, and Coprario seemingly goes out of his way in Example 4.15 to demonstrate that all the bass contours which can support a close can equally well be made into a ‘stay’, only the final sonority differing between the two. Although in principle the distinction between a ‘stay’ and a ‘close’ ultimately depends only on what follows the suspension and resolution, in most cases the metrical placement of the suspension and resolution distinguishes one type of progression from another. For this reason, the rhythmic lengthening of the decorated cadential formula (G–F♯–E–F♯) in all five of Coprario’s examples is significant for marking the progression as a ‘stay’ rather than a full close. (These notes are shown in the analyses without stems). Nevertheless, some potential for ambiguity between a ‘stay’ and a close remains, as is particularly evident in Coprario’s final example, Example 4.15(e). Although Coprario presents this as an example of a ‘stay’, it could easily be

⁴⁴Coprario, *Rules how to Compose*, ed. Wilson, 107.

⁴⁵Coprario, *Rules how to Compose*, ed. Wilson, 85.

transformed into an ordinary full close by the addition of a G sonority on the following downbeat.

In the absence of another historical English term for closes of this type, it is tempting to adopt Coprario's term 'stay'. However, in what follows, I will refer to progressions of this form as *half closes*. A half close resembles the half cadence of common-practice harmony in form, if not always in function, since both progressions conclude on what would be the penultimate sonority of a full close or an authentic cadence, respectively.⁴⁶ Karol Berger describes similar progressions as 'interrupted cadences', since they resemble a full cadence from which the expected final sonority is omitted.⁴⁷ Subjectively, this term seems unsatisfactory as a description of Coprario's 'stays', which are not 'interrupted' so much as drawn out to make a more final conclusion on the sonority reached by the resolution of the suspension.

Although Morley's *Introduction* includes several examples of half closes, Morley does not discuss them as a category, and they are scattered among his example closes in four and five voices. It is particularly difficult to draw firm conclusions from these, because many are known not to be original to Morley. Since Charles Burney's writings, it has been known that Morley copied many of these examples without attribution from Orazio Tigrini's 1588 *Compendio della musica*.⁴⁸ More recently, Bonnie J. Blackburn has shown that Morley took many of the remainder from madrigals and other vocal compositions by Alfonso Ferrabosco the Elder, Luca Marenzio, and several other authors.⁴⁹

⁴⁶For example, William E. Caplin defines a half cadence as follows: 'In the authentic cadential progression, the final tonic is the harmonic goal [and] the dominant occupies the *penultimate* position [...] In the half-cadential progression, the dominant itself becomes the goal harmony and so occupies the *ultimate* position'. See Caplin, *Classical Form: A Theory of Formal Functions for the Instrumental Music of Haydn, Mozart and Beethoven* (Oxford University Press, 1998), 29.

⁴⁷Karol Berger, *Musica Ficta: Theories of accidental inflections in vocal polyphony from Marchetto da Padova to Gioseffo Zarlino* (Cambridge University, 1987), 137; quoted in Fromson, 'Cadential structure', 202.

⁴⁸Robert Stevenson, 'Morley's Indebtedness to Tigrini', *The Huntington Library Quarterly* 19 (1956), 335.

⁴⁹I am grateful to Dr. Blackburn for sharing with me her article on 'Morley and Italian Theory' (in press as of 2015), which is to appear in a forthcoming volume of essays accom-

(a) Musical notation for example (a) showing a cadence in treble and bass staves. The treble staff has a whole note G4, a whole note A4, and a whole note B4. The bass staff has a whole note G3, a whole note F3, and a whole note E3. A brace groups the first two measures of each staff.

(b) Musical notation for example (b) showing a cadence in treble and bass staves. The treble staff has a whole note G4, a whole note A4, and a whole note B4. The bass staff has a whole note G3, a whole note F3, and a whole note E3. A brace groups the first two measures of each staff.

(c) Musical notation for example (c) showing a cadence in treble and bass staves. The treble staff has a whole note G4, a whole note A4, and a whole note B4. The bass staff has a whole note G3, a whole note F3, and a whole note E3. A brace groups the first two measures of each staff.

(d) Musical notation for example (d) showing a cadence in treble and bass staves. The treble staff has a whole note G4, a whole note A4, and a whole note B4. The bass staff has a whole note G3, a whole note F3, and a whole note E3. A brace groups the first two measures of each staff.

(e) Musical notation for example (e) showing a cadence in treble and bass staves. The treble staff has a whole note G4, a whole note A4, and a whole note B4. The bass staff has a whole note G3, a whole note F3, and a whole note E3. A brace groups the first two measures of each staff.

Example 4.15: Examples of 'making a stay', from Coprario, *Rules how to Compose*

Clearly, Morley's wholesale copying argues against reading too much into the examples taken from Tigrini. The same argument does not necessarily apply to the closes copied from other compositions: on the contrary, it seems possible that Morley selected them precisely because he regarded them in some way as exemplary models. In addition, Morley's editorial hand is apparent in at least one detail of the closes copied from other composers' music, in that some of them are marked with an asterisk to indicate that they are 'middle closes', while none of the closes copied from Tigrini is so marked. It seems possible that Morley took more time to scrutinise the closes he copied from other sources, annotating some as middle closes in the process.

Morley's examples suggest that half closes are typically used as 'middle closes', being suitable for concluding an internal strain of a composition, but not a complete composition. Morley defines a 'middle close' in this sense by its function, not by its voice-leading:

here be examples of formall closes in foure, fiue and sixe partes, wherein you must note that such of them as be marked with this marke * serue for middle closes, such as are commonlie taken at the ende of the first part of a song, the other bee finall closes⁵⁰

Both middle and final closes may be further classified on the basis of the length and elaboration of the progression: simple closes in short notes are suitable for lighter genres, while more deliberate and drawn out closes are required for serious or 'grave' music such as motets.

suddaine closes belong properlie to light musicke, as Madrigals, Canzonets, Pauins and Galliards, wherein a semibriefe will be enough to Cadence vpon, but if you list you may draw out your Cadence or close to what length you wil. As for the Motets and other graue musick you must in them come with more deliberation in bindings and long notes to the close.⁵¹

panying the new critical edition of Morley's *Introduction* edited by John Milsom and Jessie Ann Owens.

⁵⁰Morley, 132; Morley, ed. Harman, 228.

⁵¹Ibid.

Because Morley does not describe what distinguishes a middle from a final close in voice-leading terms, any conclusions must be extrapolated from the examples themselves. To judge from Morley's annotations, almost all his four- and five-part examples are in fact final closes, for only six are marked with the asterisk that indicates a middle close. These six closes (which are scattered throughout Morley's examples) are collected here in Example 4.16. According to Blackburn, three of these middle closes were copied by Morley from works by Ferrabosco (Example 4.16(d)–(f)); the source of the other three is not known.⁵² All six middle closes end with a half close in which the bass rises a fifth or falls a fourth to its final note; unlike Coprario's 'stay', these middle closes lack a suspension above the final bass note. Most include a long pedal tone in one of the inner voices, and none has a complete, syncopated *cantizans* cadence in any voice (although the A–G♯–A figure in the bass voice of Example 4.16(c) might be considered a weak cadence without syncopation). All these features are in sharp contrast to the great majority of example closes in this section, almost all of which are full closes with a cadence, a 4–3 suspension, and final bass motion by rising fourth or falling fifth.

Five other examples from Morley end with a half close but are not marked as middle closes. Although these might simply represent oversights on Morley's part – particularly since four of the five come from Tigrini – closer examination shows that there are also subtle differences between them and the six marked middle closes. The four-part progression shown in Example 4.17, for instance, is very similar in outline to the middle close shown in Example 4.16(c). If there is any significance in the fact that Morley marked one progression and not the other as a middle close, it must lie in the fact that Example 4.17 begins with a G cadence in the treble, forming a passing close on G, and ends with a 4–3 suspension above the final bass note, like Coprario's 'stay'. This suggests that for Morley, the inclusion of the cadence and the final suspension – which

⁵²Blackburn, 'Morley and Italian Theory'.

(a)

(b)

(c)

half close

half close

passing close

half close

Example 4.16: Closes marked as 'middle closes' in Morley's *Introduction*

(d)

(e)

(f)

approach the conclusion in ‘bindings and long notes’ – make this a more final progression than the middle closes that lack any suspensions.



Example 4.17: A half close preceded by a passing close, from Morley’s *Introduction*.

The four remaining half closes in Morley’s text are more difficult to interpret, given that Morley copied all four from Tigrini. All four contain a *mi* cadence on E, and none is marked as a middle close. The simplest example is in four parts (Example 4.18(a)). Its tenor and treble parts form a dyadic *mi* cadence on E, above a bass part which falls by fourth from D to A. Since Morley claims elsewhere that ‘flat cadences’ like this are not capable of creating a full or final close, it is hard to believe that he would have considered this progression suitable for a final conclusion. The lack of an asterisk marking this example as a middle close would seem to support the hypothesis that Morley paid less close attention to the examples copied from Tigrini.

The three five-part half closes from Tigrini (Example 4.18(b)–(d)) are more elaborate than the four-part example. All three begin with a similar *mi* close on E, leading to a more final conclusion by means of a full close or semi-perfect close in A, followed by a simple half close on E. Meier describes progressions of this form as a *clausula in mi* with a ‘recovered’ final note: the addition of this postscript to the otherwise weak progression of the *mi* close is necessary in order to emphasise the finality of the arrival on E as a harmonic destination.⁵³

⁵³Meier, *The modes of classical vocal polyphony*, 98.

The latter portions of these closes also resemble Example 4.17, in that a close with a cadence on one degree (G or A) is followed by a half close on the degree a fifth above (D or E, respectively). Although it may be that Morley failed to mark these five-voice progressions as middle closes only because he copied them from Tigrini – the presence of parallel octaves between two voices of Example 4.18(f) might also suggest hasty copying – it is also plausible that the presence of several cadences leading up to the final half close in these progressions (as in Example 4.17) made them more final to Morley's ears than the progressions which he marked as middle closes. Overall, the apparent implication of Morley's examples is that a half close on its own is insufficiently final to close a complete piece, and can be used only as a middle close. By contrast, a half close preceded by one or more closes with a cadence, as in Examples 4.17 and 4.18(b)–(d), forms a progression with a more final effect due to the use of 'bindings and long notes'.

Later authors more conversant with definitions in terms of the bass regard bass motion by falling fourth or rising fifth as the most important defining feature of a close which is made without a cadence. They also increasingly imply that such closes are particularly associated with the ends of 'grave' or serious genres, in contrast to Morley's implication that they are suitable mainly for internal closes. Christopher Simpson's description of these progressions echoes Morley's reference to 'Motets and other grave musick', a category in which Simpson also includes the fantasy:

Having spoken of Cadences, I must not omit a Close which is made without either of the forementioned Cadences, and is used for a Conclusion to some Fancies, Motets, or other grave Musick; in which the Bass falleth a Fourth or riseth a Fifth, and part of the final Note is commonly taken into the Descant in this manner.⁵⁴

Simpson's progression (Example 4.19) closely resembles Coprario's first example of a 'stay' (Example 4.15(a)), with its decorated resolution of a 6/4 double

⁵⁴Christopher Simpson, *The division-violist, or, An introduction to the playing upon a ground* (London: W. Godbid, 1659), 36.

* indicates voice crossing

The image displays musical notation for four- and five-part *mi* closes, organized into four systems labeled (a) through (d). Each system consists of five staves, with the first four staves representing the voices and the fifth staff representing the basso continuo. The notation includes various musical symbols such as clefs, notes, rests, and accidentals. Brackets and labels are used to identify specific types of closes: 'mi close', 'semi-perfect close', 'half close', and 'full close'. A legend at the top left indicates that an asterisk (*) denotes a voice crossing. The systems show different voice leadings and close types, with (a) and (c) featuring more complex voice crossings and (b) and (d) showing simpler configurations.

(a) (b) (c) (d)

mi close semi-perfect close half close

mi close full close half close

Example 4.18: Four- and five-part *mi* closes from Morley's *Introduction*, all copied from Tigrini.

suspension above the final bass note. His reference to ‘part of the final Note’ being ‘taken into the Descant’ seems to refer to this use of ornamentation: in each of the upper parts, the presence of the ornamental resolution means that the final note is ‘taken into’ the previous bar, which would otherwise contain only a suspended sixth or fourth. Again, since the underlying counterpoint is identical to the first part of a full close, the use of an ornamental figure such as this is important in order to distinguish the half close from an incomplete full close and provide an appropriate sense of finality.



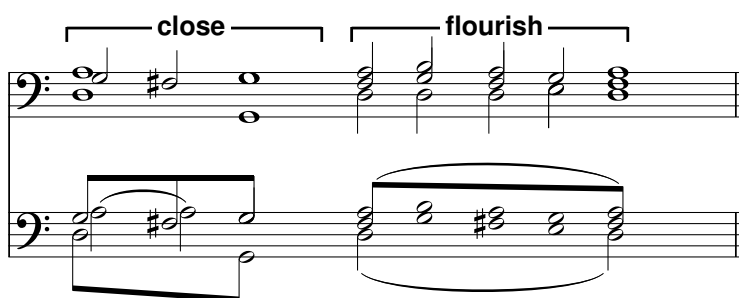
Example 4.19: A close without a cadence appropriate for ‘Grave Musick’, from Christopher Simpson

A much later description of a similar progression, from Roger North’s *Essay of Musickall Ayre* of 1710, also associates it with ‘grave’ genres. North’s description of the ‘Half Cadences’, refers, like Simpson’s, to a class of ‘solemne’ closes which are particularly used in concluding ‘grave musick’:

There is another sort of close, which is usually called the Half Cadence. One manner is very solemne and often concludes grave musick; and it is onely by returning from a close to the cadence note back again, and ending with a short flourish⁵⁵

⁵⁵ Roger North on music: being a selection from his essays written during the years c. 1695–1728, ed. John Wilson (London: Novello, 1959), 82.

Example 4.20 shows North's example of a 'half cadence'. Though stated in a more plain and chordal style, it shows continuity with the practices described by Morley, Coprario and Simpson. Like several of Morley's examples (Examples 4.17 and 4.18(b)–(d)), it consists of a close with a cadence followed by a return to the 'cadence note' – that is, the penultimate sonority of the preceding close. The 'flourish' decorating the final harmony, with upper parts moving in parallel thirds, is comparable to Simpson's close for 'grave Musick' and one of Coprario's 'stays' (Example 4.15(a)), although the decoration in North's example is produced by neighbour-note motion rather than suspensions.



Example 4.20: North's half cadence

There is a puzzling contradiction between the roles assigned to half close progressions by Morley, on the one hand, and Simpson and North, on the other. Morley's examples imply that half closes are weaker than full closes, and should be used at the conclusion of internal strains. By contrast, Simpson and North indicate that these progressions are not only suitable for final conclusions, but in particular for the conclusions of the most 'grave' and serious fantasies or motets. Comparing these theorists' statements with Gibbons's practice in his keyboard pavans and consort *In Nomines* suggests that the contradiction can be partly resolved by distinguishing between the progression itself and the different formal functions which it may serve in context. Although a half close by itself may be a rather weak progression, in Gibbons's compositions these progressions most often do not function as closes in their own right, but follow a preceding full or passing close. In this case, the half close takes on a 'postcadential'

function, prolonging the final harmony established by the preceding close. For passages of this form, I will adopt North's term, *flourish*, which aptly suggests the harmonically decorative function of the half close in this context.

The function of half closes also seems to differ between genres. In his keyboard pavans, Gibbons commonly reserves a full close for the end of the third strain, using half closes at the conclusions of the first and second strains. These internal half closes may be preceded by a full or passing close (making them into a flourish), or they may stand on their own; in either case, a structural contrast with the stronger full close that ends the pavan as a whole is clearly intended. This practice is seemingly closer to what is implied by Morley's examples of 'middle closes'. By contrast, in the conclusions of three of his four *In Nomines*, Gibbons uses a half close flourish to end the composition as a whole, in a manner closer to that implied by Simpson and North. In these pieces, the extended internal pedal point provided by the final note of the cantus firmus makes an ending flourish almost obligatory. Despite this, in both five-part *In Nomines* which conclude with a half-close 'flourish' of this form, Gibbons seems to have gone out of his way to strengthen the final conclusion by means of a preceding full close, a harmonic procedure which requires making alterations to the given cantus firmus.

Half closes and flourishes in Gibbons's keyboard pavans

Gibbons's four pavans for keyboard (*MB* 20, nos. 15–18) provide clear examples of how the different types of close may be used to articulate a larger harmonic structure. Each of these pieces is set in a minor mode – no. 15 in D, no. 16 in G, and nos. 17 and 18 in A – and each is divided into three strains, as is normal for the genre.⁵⁶ In broad harmonic outline, they share a common plan, with the first and third strains closing on the final and the second strain on the fifth above. The degree of elaboration which Gibbons applies to this

⁵⁶By 'D minor', etc., I refer only to the final and the quality of the third above. See the following chapter for a more detailed discussion of Gibbons's scale types and tonalities.

basic outline differs markedly among the four pieces, suggesting something of the pavan's mobile position within the hierarchy of genres. Although Morley classifies 'Pauins and Galliards' as 'light Musicke', for which brief closes will suffice, he allows that even in lighter genres the closes may be drawn out to greater length:

suddaine closes belong properlie to light musicke, as Madrigals, Canzonets, Pauins and Galliards, wherein a semibriefe will be enough to Cadence vpon, but if you list you may draw out your Cadence or close to what length you wil.⁵⁷

Gibbons's use of highly elaborate and extended closes to conclude the strains of his two most serious pavans elevates them in genre, bringing them closer to the 'grave Musick' of motets and fantasies, for which a close in such 'bindings and long notes' is obligatory.

The most harmonically straightforward of Gibbons's four pavans is *MB* no. 17, in A minor. Each of its three strains ends with a simple full close, with no decoration of the final chord except for simple arpeggiation in the left hand.

Gibbons uses slightly more elaborate closes in the D minor pavan (*MB* no. 15), in which each strain ends with a full close followed by a brief 'flourish' which elaborates the final chord by touching on harmonies a fourth away: the first and third strains close in D by means of a brief 'flourish' of alternating D and G harmonies; the second strain closes in A, with a flourish that briefly touches on a D chord (Example 4.21). The conclusion of the ornamented third strain differs between sources of this piece: while some have a harmonic flourish like those that conclude the other strains, others obtain a more final conclusion by omitting all harmonic decoration of the final chord, ending with the same simple arpeggiation that ends each strain of *MB* no. 17. This suggests that the 'flourishes' ending the strains are in a sense decorative additions to the preceding full close, which is the real source of harmonic closure.

⁵⁷Morley, 132; Morley, ed. Harman, 228.

The image displays a musical score for Gibbons's pavan in d, focusing on the cadences and closes of four different strains: (a), (b), (c), and (d). The score is written in treble and bass staves, with a key signature of one flat (B-flat) and a common time signature (C). The strains are presented in two versions: unornamented and ornamented. The ornamented versions are indicated by brackets labeled 'flourish' and 'close'. The unornamented versions are indicated by brackets labeled 'close'.

Strain (a) is shown in measures 14-15. Strain (b) is shown in measures 47-48. Strain (c) is shown in measures 79-80. Strain (d) is shown in measures 95-96. The ornamented versions of strains (a), (b), and (c) include a 'flourish' section followed by a 'close' section. The ornamented version of strain (d) includes a 'close' section.

Example 4.21: Closes of the unornamented versions of each strain (a, b, c) and of the ornamented version of the third strain (d) from Gibbons's pavan in d, *MB* 20, no. 15.

Although North's term 'flourish' provides a useful descriptive term for these decorative post-cadential segments, there is an important difference between the flourish of North's half cadence and the flourishes that end Gibbons's pavan strains. North's half cadence consists of a full close in G followed by a 'flourish' decorating a D chord; several of Morley's examples have a similar structure, e.g. Example 4.17. The closes of Gibbons's pavan strains differ in that the 'flourish' decorates the harmony established by the preceding full close, ending on the same chord. In a roman-numeral analysis, North's and Morley's half closes represent the progression V–I–V, while the closes of Gibbons's pavan strains represent V–I–IV–I. In this respect, the plagal harmonic motion concluding the strains of Gibbons's pavan in D (*MB* no. 16) serves a similar function to analogous progressions in the common-practice period. Caplin writes that in the classical repertory, 'the [IV–I] progression is normally part of a tonic prolongation serving a variety of formal functions – not, however, a cadential one. Most examples of plagal cadences given in textbooks actually represent a postcadential codetta function: that is, the IV–I progression follows an authentic cadence but does not in itself create genuine cadential closure.'⁵⁸ Similarly, in Gibbons's D minor pavan, the final flourishes in the first and second strains are embellishments of a sonority already established by the preceding full close. Half closes in this subsidiary formal role are indicated in the analyses that follow as 'flourish (half close)'.

In his two most expressive and serious pavans (*MB* no. 16, in G minor, and the 'Salisbury' Pavan, *MB* no. 18, in A minor), Gibbons again reserves full closes for the end of the third strain and uses elaborate half-close flourishes to close the first and second strains. In the G minor pavan, Gibbons creates contrasting endings for the first and second strains by using half closes with and without a preceding full close. The first strain (Example 4.22(a)) ends with a full close of G (bb. 5–6) followed by a half close flourish (bb. 6–7). The similarity of the latter progression to an unfinished full close is particularly

⁵⁸Caplin, *Classical Form*, 45–46.

strong, with an incomplete C cadence in the tenor voice (B♯–C–C–B♯), but the preceding full close is so final in its effect that there is little or no suggestion of C as a concluding harmonic destination. By contrast, the second strain of the pavan (Example 4.22(b)) ends with a half close alone, and the absence of a preceding full close establishing the final D harmony makes this a more open-ended conclusion than the first strain. Only the third strain of the pavan ends with a full close (Example 4.22(c)).

The ‘Lord Salisbury’ pavan (*MB* no. 18) has a similar overall formal structure to the G minor pavan, but extracts even more expressivity from its extended closing progressions. As in the G minor pavan, only the third strain concludes with an undecorated full close (Example 4.23(c)), the other two both finishing with half closes. Where the G minor pavan obtains a formal contrast between first and second strains by using a half close alone to close the second strain, in the ‘Salisbury’ pavan Gibbons produces a similar contrast by using a full close and half close in succession to close the first strain (Example 4.23(a)), contrasted with a weaker passing close and half close in the second strain (Example 4.23(b)). Although the passing close gestures towards the strain’s final conclusion on E, the unexpected conclusion of the bass (rising from B to C instead of to E) means that it does not establish it with the same degree of finality as the full close in A in the corresponding place of the first strain (bb. 7–8 of Example 4.23(a)). A final difference between the G minor and ‘Salisbury’ pavans is that the half closes which end the first two strains of the latter piece are extended to even greater length, with the closes that end the second strain taking up almost half the strain. Although in harmonic progression and formal function they are related to the briefer flourishes that close the strains of the other two pavans, they can no longer be considered in any sense decorative but an inseparable part of the piece’s harmonic and expressive substance.

(a)

5 6 7

12 13 14

full close

flourish (half close)

Example 4.22: Original and ornamented endings of the three strains of Gibbons, *Pavan* (MB 20, no. 16)

(b) 20 21 37 (c) 38

27 28 47 48

half close full close

The image displays musical notation for two systems, (b) and (c), and two examples of cadences. System (b) shows measures 20-21 and 37-38. System (c) shows measures 27-28 and 47-48. Below these, two systems illustrate 'half close' and 'full close' techniques. The 'half close' example shows a bracketed measure with an arrow pointing to the next measure. The 'full close' example shows a bracketed measure with an arrow pointing to the next measure.

7 (a) 8 9

flourish (half close)

full close

(b) 14 15 16 17

false close

flourish (half close)

The musical score is written for two staves (treble and bass clef) in 4/2 time. The key signature has one sharp (F#). Part (a) shows measures 7, 8, and 9. Measure 7 ends with a 'full close' (a double bar line). Measure 8 begins with a 'flourish (half close)' (a bracketed section of notes). Measure 9 continues the flourish. Part (b) shows measures 14, 15, 16, and 17. Measure 14 ends with a 'false close' (a single bar line). Measure 15 begins with a 'flourish (half close)' (a bracketed section of notes). Measure 16 continues the flourish. Measure 17 ends with a 'flourish (half close)' (a bracketed section of notes).

Example 4.23: Endings of the three strains of Gibbons, *Pavan: Lord Salisbury* (MB 20, no. 18)

26 (c)

27

full close

The musical score consists of four staves. The first two staves (Treble and Bass clef) contain the main melodic lines, while the last two staves (Treble and Bass clef) provide harmonic accompaniment. Measure 26 is marked with a 'c' in parentheses. Measure 27 is marked with the number '27'. A bracket labeled 'full close' spans the end of measure 26 and the beginning of measure 27, indicating a resolution or closure of the musical phrase. The notation includes various accidentals (sharps, flats, naturals) and rests.

Half closes and flourishes in Gibbons's *In Nomines*

Closing flourishes in the form of a half close play a somewhat different formal role in compositions which are not divided into clear strains, such as fantasias. In Gibbons's pavans and galliards for keyboard these conclusions appear mainly at the ends of the internal strains. By contrast, in works that are not divided into strains a half-close flourish may instead appear at the close of the composition as a whole. Several of Gibbons's serious keyboard pieces end in this manner, including five of the fourteen keyboard preludes and fantasias, all in minor modes: one prelude (*MB* 20, no. 3), and four fantasias (*MB* 20, nos. 6 and 9–11). In all of these pieces the final half close is preceded by a full close on the final harmony, as in the majority of the pavan strain conclusions considered above; it functions as a post-cadential flourish, rather than bearing the burden of establishing the final harmony on its own. With the exception of the 'Gamut flatt' fantasia (no. 9), which ends on an unornamented G major chord, all of these conclusions resemble Simpson's example of a close appropriate for 'grave musick', with ornamented 6/4 double suspensions resolving above the final bass note. The final half-close progression may follow immediately on the full close, as in nos. 6 and 11, or it may conclude a somewhat more extended 'codetta', as in nos. 3, 9, and 10.

The 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' (*MB* no. 9) has the most elaborate conclusion of this form, consisting of a full close on G, a passing close on G, and an extended half-close flourish moving from G to C minor and back again.

Final conclusions with a half-close flourish are less common in Gibbons's consort music, but are crucial to the conclusions of most of his *In Nomines*. By contrast, such conclusions never appear at the end of a consort fantasia. All the published fantasias for three-part consort end with a full close, as do all the three- and four-part pieces with double bass (even if in the latter the cadence in the upper parts is sometimes omitted). All but one of the six-part consort pieces, too, end with full closes, even though the six fantasias and the six-part

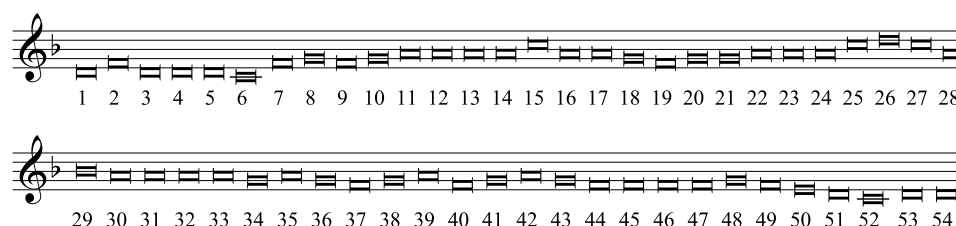
Pavan certainly fit the description of serious or ‘grave’ music: the exception is the six-part set of variations on ‘Go from my Window’ (*MB* 48, no. 40). The most interesting group of consort compositions to compare with respect to their concluding gestures are the four *In Nomines*: one for four parts (*MB* 48, no. 26), two for standard five-part scoring (*MB* 48, nos. 27–28), and one for five parts with two double basses (*MB* nos. 29). The *In Nomine* genre’s basis in cantus-firmus composition means that these pieces represent four different solutions to a common compositional problem: how to make a harmonically convincing closing gesture that works with the ending notes of the fixed *Gloria tibi trinitas* plainsong. Gibbons’s varying solutions to this problem suggest both why later writers associated the half-close flourish with ‘grave music’, and why this association is far from universal.

Of the instrumental genres in which Gibbons composed, the *In Nomine* is certainly the most closely connected to the archetypal ‘grave’ genre of the motet, which Morley defines as ‘a song made for the church [...] vpon some hymne or Antheme, or such like’.⁵⁹ In the sixteenth century, such ‘songs made for the church’ would often have been composed on a plainsong cantus firmus, and the *In Nomine* genre originates in instrumental adaptations of one such ‘song’: a four-voice section from the Benedictus of John Taverner’s mass of c. 1530 on the *Gloria tibi trinitas* plainsong.⁶⁰ The prototype of the later genre is the only section in Taverner’s mass where the complete plainsong (Example 4.24) is presented in its entirety, stated by the second treble in even semibreves. All later *In Nomines* are constructed around this same basic structure, making it by far the most significant genre based on cantus-firmus composition to survive the English Reformation.

⁵⁹Morley, 179; Morley, ed. Harman, 292–294.

⁶⁰Warwick Edwards, ‘In Nomine’, *Grove Music Online*, *Oxford Music Online* (Oxford University Press). See also Ernst H. Meyer, ‘The “In Nomine” and the Birth of Polyphonic Instrumental Style in England’, *Music & Letters* 17 (1936), 25–36, and Robert Donington and Thurston Dart, ‘The Origin of the In Nomine’, *Music & Letters* 30 (1949), 101–106.

Broadly speaking, two main types of conclusion to an *In Nomine* are possible: if the plainsong is at its original pitch of D, the final chord may have either G or D or in the bass. (In the former case the final note of the plainsong functions as a ‘dominant pedal’, in the latter case as a ‘tonic pedal’). Taverner’s original *In Nomine* uses the second type of conclusion: although most full sections of the *Gloria tibi trinitas* mass conclude on D, the *In Nomine* section ends on G, by means of two 7–6 closes in the lowest two voices (Example 4.25). This ending is appropriate given that the *In Nomine* is an internal section of the *Benedictus* and does not conclude a complete section of the mass. Later composers, however, seem to have considered this conclusion less attractive for a piece composed to stand on its own, and accordingly changed both the final conclusion of their *In Nomines* and the type of progression by which it is reached.



Example 4.24: The *Gloria Tibi Trinitas* chant as it appears in Taverner’s original *In Nomine* setting. Notes numbered as in Neighbour, *The Consort and Keyboard Music of William Byrd*, 32.

Only a small number of later *In Nomines* follow Taverner’s original in placing the plainsong final on D and ending with a G cadence. The majority of later composers clearly preferred to conclude with the bass on the same degree as the cantus firmus (sometimes transposed from D to G, more rarely to other pitches). Of the 94 *In Nomines* in vols. 44 and 45 of *Musica Britannica*, only ten have a conclusion resembling Taverner’s original: two by Parsley (nos. 16 and 17), one by Tallis (no. 23), three by Ferrabosco (nos. 48–50), and one each by Stonings (no. 59), Golder (no. 134), Bevin (no. 153) and an anonymous composer (no. 72). Of these composers, Bevin and Tallis each wrote two *In*

The musical score is written in G major (one sharp) and 4/4 time. It consists of two systems of music. The first system contains measures 49 through 54, and the second system contains measures 55 through 56. The notation includes treble and bass staves with various musical symbols such as notes, rests, bar lines, and dynamic markings. A 'passing close' is indicated in measure 51, and two 'close' markings are present in measures 55 and 56.

Example 4.25: Closing bars of Taverner's original *In Nomine* setting, with a final cadence on G, a fifth below the D final of the plainsong.

Nomines, one with each type of conclusion. The only composer who consistently places the plainsong on D and ends with a full close on G is Ferrabosco the elder, whose three *In Nomines* are also unusual in other ways, including their use of high cleffing and tessitura.⁶¹ It seems possible in this case that Ferrabosco's Italian background and training led him to a different rendition of the genre than his English-born contemporaries. The great majority of later *In Nomines* close on the same note as the plainsong: for example, Christopher Tye, the most prolific composer in the genre, ends all of his 21 *In Nomines* in this manner. When the bass and the plainsong end on the same final note, which is held out for several semibreves, it becomes difficult to introduce the suspension and resolution required to make a full close. In this case, the half-close flourish is almost obligatory for a suitably final conclusion.

Of Gibbons's four *In Nomines*, the five-part setting with two bass viols (*MB* 48, no. 29) is the odd one out: like the *In Nomines* of Ferrabosco the elder and a few others, it places the cantus firmus on D and ends with a full close on G (Example 4.26). Gibbons sets up this final full close with two other cadential passages. In bb. 100–105, he incorporates the stepwise E–D–C descent of the cantus firmus into a sequence of overlapping closes which progress by fifth through implied conclusions on D, G, C, F, and B♭. The final arrival of this sequence on B♭ on b. 105 coincides with the onset of the final cantus firmus D and the beginning of an extended preparation for the final close on G (bb. 106–109), in which fragmentary cadential figures tossed between voices foreshadow the full close which is to come. To a modern ear, this piece's conclusion on G might seem somewhat forced, in that the sequence of closes in bb. 100–105 does not finish with the final conclusion on G: instead, it overshoots the mark, arriving on a G sonority in b. 102 but continuing onward to C, F, and B♭

⁶¹Paul Doe writes in the preface to *Musica Britannica* vol. 44 that 'English composers used typically English clefs, but a striking feature of all three of Ferrabosco's *In Nomines* is their use of clefs producing a significantly higher tessitura more characteristic of Italian vocal music.' All three pieces are cleffed g2,c1,c2,c3,f3. Paul Doe, preface to *Elizabethan Consort Music: I*, *Musica Britannica* 44 (Stainer and Bell, 1979).

before the cadential preparations of bb. 106–109 arrive to drag the harmony back towards G. Moreover, G has not previously been stressed as an important harmonic destination in this piece, which has many more internal closes on D, as well as a smaller number on C, Bb and F. Whether or not a seventeenth-century audience would have agreed with this assessment, Gibbons took a noticeably different approach in the conclusions of his other three *In Nomines*, arranging for the final close to arrive simultaneously with the onset of the final cantus firmus note, and using an extended flourish to prolong and decorate the final sonority.

Gibbons's other three *In Nomines* end with the bass in octaves with the cantus firmus and close with an extended flourish around the final plainsong note. As in the keyboard fantasias which end with similar flourishes, Gibbons evidently required a preceding full close to establish the final harmony. This proved difficult given the constraints imposed by the final plainsong notes (E–D–C–D), and the four-part and five-part pieces demonstrate different solutions to the problem. The conclusion of the four-part setting (*MB* 48, no. 26) is shown in Example 4.27. To judge only from the notated inflections, this passage resembles the conclusions of some sixteenth-century *In Nomines*: a 7–6 cadence on G in b. 52, followed by a brief flourish which returns finally to a D chord (Example 4.27). Such a conclusion would be unusual in Gibbons's music, in that the G harmony on which the close in bb. 51–2 concludes is not the same as the D final on which the harmony finally comes to rest. An alternative reading of this passage hinges on the potential for the cantus firmus C in b. 51 to be inflected to a *ficta* C♯ in performance, and perhaps even turned into a full C♯–D–D–C♯ cadence figure through the addition of improvised ornamentation (indicated by the notes within brackets in the analytical score).⁶² This reading is supported by the presence of a bass part in this bar which rises by fourth

⁶²I am grateful to Alan Howard and Elizabeth Eva Leach for suggesting this alternative reading of the passage. Earlier compositions in which the un-notated *ficta* inflection of a *cantus firmus* is a possibility are discussed in Theodor Dumitrescu, 'Leading tones in Cantus Firmi and the early L'homme armé tradition', *Studi Musicali* 31 (2002), 17–55.

* Indicates voice crossing

The musical score is written for five parts: four voices and two basses. It is in G minor (three flats) and 4/4 time. The first system contains measures 99 through 105. Measures 101, 102, 103, 104, and 105 are marked with their respective measure numbers. A bracket labeled 'sequence' spans measures 101 through 105. A voice crossing is indicated by an asterisk in measure 102. The second system continues the vocal parts and the basses, with measures 101 through 105. The score concludes with a final cadence in measure 105.

Example 4.26: Closing bars of Gibbons's five-part *In Nomine* with two basses (*MB* 48, no. 29).

This musical score illustrates a cadence and close across measures 106 to 112. The notation is presented in two systems, each with a treble and bass staff joined by a brace. The first system (measures 106-110) features a melodic line in the treble staff and a supporting line in the bass staff. A bracket labeled '54' spans measures 107 and 108 in the treble staff. A bracket labeled 'preparations' spans measures 106 and 107 in the bass staff. The second system (measures 110-112) continues the melodic line, with a bracket labeled 'full close' spanning measures 110 and 111 in the treble staff. The score concludes with a final measure (112) in the treble staff.

from A to D, as well as the stereotypical ‘English cadence’ figure in the treble viol. If the plainsong C were inflected in this manner, the strongest close in the passage would then be the D close of b. 52, and the conclusion as a whole would be comparable to the flourishes that end some of Gibbons’s keyboard fantasies: a full close on D, followed by an extended flourish which moves from D to G and back again.

In his two other five-part *In Nomines*, Gibbons solves the problem of making a full close on the final in a slightly different way, introducing extra notes into the *cantus firmus*-bearing voice in order to avoid the need to inflect its penultimate note. One of the five-part pieces (*MB* 48, no. 27) places the *cantus firmus* at its original pitch on D; the other transposes it to G (*MB* 48, no. 28). In both cases, Gibbons introduces division figures from the surrounding parts into the *cantus firmus* at precisely the point where a sharp inflection would be needed in the four-part piece in order to make a strong cadence. The extra notes replace the plainsong’s final rising step (C–D or F–G) with a rise of a fourth followed by two descending steps, allowing a full close on the final plainsong note to introduce the closing flourish. In the D minor piece (Example 4.28), the division figures replace what would otherwise be a C in bb. 93–95: by allowing the *cantus firmus* voice to rise from C to F and then descend stepwise to the final of D, Gibbons is able to introduce a D cadence with a C♯ in the highest part and make a full close on D in b. 96. The parallel place in the G minor piece (Example 4.29) is closely analogous: the plainsong F of bb. 109–110 is escaped through an ascent to B♭ and a descent to G, allowing Gibbons to bring in a G cadence and make a full close on G. Both closing flourishes incorporate cadential or half-cadential progressions: Example 4.28 ends with a half close resembling Simpson’s, with a 6/4 double suspension resolving above its final bass note, while Example 4.29 incorporates a passing close on C in bb. 112–113. Yet within the context of the postcadential ‘flourish’, neither progression suggests a departure from the harmony established by the preceding full close.

Example 4.27: Closing bars of Gibbons's four-part *In Nomine*, MB 48, no. 26.

In summary, genuine half closes appear to be rather rare in Gibbons's music, at least at the conclusions of complete strains or compositions. Although there are exceptions, such as the second strain of the G minor pavan, in most cases an apparent half close or 'stay' at the end of a significant section actually functions as a closing flourish, embellishing and prolonging the final sonority established by a preceding full close. This is not to say that these progressions are any less musically significant than what precedes them: in pieces such as the 'Salisbury' pavan, the closing flourish may occupy a significant fraction of the complete strain. Distinguishing between the half close as a self-contained progression and its usual function in context explains the discrepancy between the practices described by Morley, on the one hand, and Simpson and North, on the other. Gibbons does indeed use half-close progressions to conclude some of his 'grave' compositions, but he seldom relies on them alone: instead, he overwhelmingly prefers the combination of a full close followed by a half-close flourish, even where the use of this progression requires alterations to the structure of the *In Nomine* plainsong. Finally, there appears to be a distinction related to genre and overall form, in that sectional compositions are more likely to use such flourishes at the ends of internal strains, while the more continuously structured fantasies and *In Nomines* also use them at final conclusions.

The musical score is presented in five staves. The first three staves show the original notation with added notes and bar numbers 93-102. The last two staves show the closing bars with annotations for 'full close', 'flourish', and 'half close'.

Staff 1 (Treble clef): Original notation with added notes. Bar numbers 93, 94, 96, 98, 100, 102 are indicated. Annotations: 'added notes' (bars 93-94), '52', '53', '54'.

Staff 2 (Treble clef): Original notation with added notes. Annotations: 'added notes' (bars 93-94), '52', '53', '54'.

Staff 3 (Bass clef): Original notation with added notes. Annotations: 'added notes' (bars 93-94), '52', '53', '54'.

Staff 4 (Treble clef): Closing bars. Annotations: 'full close' (bars 93-94), 'flourish' (bars 95-96), 'half close' (bars 97-98).

Staff 5 (Bass clef): Closing bars. Annotations: 'added notes' (bars 93-94).

Example 4.28: Closing bars of Gibbons's five-part *In Nomine*, MB 48, no. 27.

109 110 111 112 113 114 115 116 117

52 53 54 55

added notes

full close

passing close

preparations

flourish

added notes

Example 4.29: Closing bars of Gibbons's five-part *In Nomine*, MB 48, no. 28.

4.4 False closes, imperfect cadences, and changes in ‘air’

The predictability of cadential progressions provides composers with a particularly effective means of playing upon the listener’s expectations through the use of ‘deceptive’, ‘false’, or ‘evaded’ cadences in which an unexpected conclusion replaces the expected one. Several seventeenth-century English authors write evocatively of the rhetorical or expressive effect of closes with an unexpected conclusion, and the importance of the listener’s expectations in creating this effect. Francis Bacon, in his 1626 work of natural philosophy *Sylva Sylvarum*, compares the false close to the rhetorical device of *praeter expectatum* – something ‘contrary to or beyond expectation’ – and further notes that such progressions create a ‘pleasure in being deceived’:

The sliding from the close or cadence hath an agreement with the figure in rhetoric which they call *praeter expectatum*, for there is a pleasure even in being deceived.⁶³

The lutenist Thomas Mace, in *Musick’s Monument* of 1676, similarly emphasises the importance of expectation to the ‘false close’, and the pleasure associated with the delaying of its expected conclusion:

I find, that it is many times very *Pleasant* to *Pause* upon a *Sixth*, in the *Nature* of a *False Close*; but all that while of the *Pause*, you may observe, there is still an *Expectation* of something to follow, as an *Appendix* to the foregoing *Matter*; which when it comes in,

⁶³Francis Bacon, *Sylva Sylvarum* (London, 1627), 38, quoted in Gregory G. Butler, ‘Music and Rhetoric in Early Seventeenth-Century English Sources’, *The Musical Quarterly* 66 (1980), 60. Butler notes that the term *praeter expectatum* is not a common one. A striking (if not obviously relevant) example from seventeenth-century literary criticism comes from John Dryden’s *Of dramattick poesie* (1668), where the term is applied to the comic character of Shakespeare’s Falstaff:

As for Falstaffe, he is not properly one humour, but a Miscellany of Humours or Images, drawn from so many several men; that wherein he is singular in his wit, or those things he sayes, *praeter expectatum*, unexpected by the Audience; his quick evasions when you imagine him surpriz’d, which as they are extreemly diverting of themselves, so receive a great addition from his person [...]

John Dryden, *Of dramattick poesie* (London, 1668), 51–52.

is the more wellcom, by reason of that *Seeming Defraud*, or *Long Absence*.⁶⁴

Much later, Roger North echoes Mace's references to 'defraud' and 'absence' in his description of similar progressions as 'the Baulk ... or more properly, dissatisfaction'.⁶⁵ North confirms the central importance of the suspended fourth or seventh in cadences, and goes further than earlier writers in a particularly significant way: he does not think that the resolution of the suspension must actually sound in order for the 'musical ear' to hear it as a potential cadence. On the contrary, he implies that in a progression such as Example 4.30, only the suspended fourth has to be heard in order for the listener to predict an imminent close.

There are some notes, which upon the least touch declare to a musically ear that the cadence, or at least a baulk, is instant, and [the minor seventh] is one; for if there be time allow'd, it never passeth without it. Another is the 4th, especially if a 5th sound with it [...] and that 3 is to be always sharp, as every cadence requires, ... [unless] for an affected variety or humour.⁶⁶

It is precisely this interplay of expectations which allows the substitution of a 'flat' (minor) third for the expected 'sharp' (major) third in the resolution of the suspension to produce an 'affected variety or humour'. Gibbons's manipulation of cadential procedures in his music shows that at the beginning of the seventeenth century he fully apprehended this aspect of the psychology of listening, and drew on it in many of his works.

Closes with a false bass or treble

Morley refers to deceptive cadential progressions either as 'passing closes' or 'false closes'. Morley seems to regard these terms as interchangeable, referring

⁶⁴Thomas Mace, *Musick's Monument* (London, 1676), 226, quoted in Herissone, *Music Theory in Seventeenth-Century England*, 172.

⁶⁵Roger North on *Music*, 83.

⁶⁶Ibid. 84.

The musical score consists of four staves. The first three staves are grouped by a brace on the left. The first staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). It contains a sequence of notes: a half note G4, a half note A4, a dotted half note B4, a quarter note C5, and a half note D5. Above the first three notes is a bracket labeled 'heard', and above the last two notes is a bracket labeled 'expected'. The second staff has a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp. It contains a half note G4, a half note A4, a half note B4, a quarter note C#5, and a half note D5. The third staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp. It contains a half note G3, a half note A3, a half note B3, and a half note C4. The fourth staff has a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp. It contains a half note G3, a half note A3, a half note B3, a quarter note C#4, and a half note D4. Below the fourth staff, there are four numbers: 3, 4, 3, and 8, which likely represent measures or beats.

Example 4.30: According to Roger North, the ‘musical ear’ anticipates a cadence upon hearing a suspended fourth

to ‘passing closes, which we commonly call false closes’, yet they have suggestively different implications.⁶⁷ A ‘passing close’ suggests only a slight pause in the flow of harmony; in the standard analogy, it can be compared to a comma or semicolon in written text. A ‘false close,’ by contrast, suggests a progression which deliberately deceives by setting up an expectation which is not fulfilled, in the manner to which Bacon, Mace, and North all allude. In what follows, I will use *passing close* for progressions whose function in context is to create only a momentary interruption of the harmonic flow, reserving *false close* for progressions which involve a larger departure from expectations. Although I believe this distinction can be supported in part on the basis of other statements by historical theorists, it necessarily involves a degree of subjective judgement that goes beyond the categories they explicitly delineate.

Morley describes three specific types of progression which create a false or passing close, and implies the existence of one more. All three types feature a

⁶⁷Morley, 127; Morley, ed. Harman, 223.

cadence figure which concludes as normal, while some other part in the texture ends on an unexpected note. Two types place the cadence in an upper voice, with an unexpected conclusion in the bass part; the third has the cadence in the bass, with an unexpected note in an upper part.

Morley's description of false closes with a cadence in an upper voice implies a close prepared in the most common way, such that the cadence makes a suspended fourth above the bass. In a full close of this type, the bass would rise by fourth or fall by fifth to its final note, ending either on an octave or a unison with the last note of the upper voice's cadence. To make a false or passing close, the final note of the bass is altered in one of two ways to produce a less final conclusion, in which bass and tenor are separated by a sixth, tenth, or third in place of the expected octave:

these passing closes be of two kinds in the base part, that is, either ascending or descending, if the passing close descend in the base it commeth to the sixth, if it ascend it commeth to the tenth or third⁶⁸

The meaning of this instruction is clarified by examining Morley's accompanying examples, in which he marks the false closes with asterisks. Although elsewhere Morley uses the asterisk to mark 'middle closes', the two categories are distinct: middle closes are typically used 'at the end of the first part of a song,' but passing or false closes cannot conclude a phrase or a section, since they require the parts to continue to a more final conclusion; they 'shun a final end, and go on to some other purpose.'⁶⁹ Example 4.31 collects together Morley's three examples of passing closes, and introduces some new analytical notations to deal with them. The upper analytical staff shows the hypothetical full close which might be predicted by a 'musical ear', while the lower staff shows the actual progression of the parts. On the upper staff, a horizontal bracket ending in an 'x' marks a potential close which fails to conclude as

⁶⁸Ibid.

⁶⁹Ibid.

expected, and vertical square brackets enclose the portions of the predicted progression which are not present in the actual counterpoint.⁷⁰ On the lower staff, the actual notes which replace the predicted ones, making the close ‘false’, are shown as crossed noteheads and enclosed in parentheses.

Example 4.31 contains two examples of false closes with a rising bass and one with a falling bass. Examples 4.31(a) and (b) illustrate false closes with an ascending bass, a progression which corresponds to a V–vi deceptive cadence in common-practice harmony: instead of moving from D to G as expected, the bass ascends by step to E, making a third or tenth with the last note of the cadence. (This type of false close appears in b. 10 and b. 14 of the Gibbons fantasia which opened this chapter, Example 4.1). Example 4.31(c) illustrates the false close with a descending bass, in which the expected motion from D to G in the bass is replaced by a descending third, ending on B, a sixth below the final note of the cadence. The descending third is commonly filled in with a passing note, as it is in this example. In chordal terms, this type of false close replaces the expected root-position triad with its first inversion, changing V–I into V–I(6/3).⁷¹ Campion might have described it by saying that the sounding bass has been ‘removed’ from G, its ‘true bass’, to B, rendering the concluding sonority a less full and perfect form of the expected one.⁷²

A notable feature of all three progressions in Example 4.31 is that the parts continue on from their initially unexpected conclusion to finish on the sonority that was originally implied and then initially withheld by the false close. In Examples 4.31(a) and 4.31(b), a complete full close follows the initial false close, while in Example 4.31(c), the outer voices progress more simply from the conclusion of the false close to the final G chord. All three progressions

⁷⁰This notation is again adapted from Leach, ‘Counterpoint and Analysis in 14th-Century Song’.

⁷¹Both types of progression can be compared to deceptive cadences in common-practice harmony, at least according to Caplin’s broad definition of this term: ‘if the final tonic of the cadential progression is replaced by a different harmony (or occasionally by a tonic in first inversion), we recognize that a *deceptive cadence* has appeared in lieu of the authentic cadence.’ Caplin, *Classical Form*, 43.

⁷²See Campion, *A New Way of Making Fowre Parts in Counterpoint*, ed. Wilson, 52.

function as true ‘passing’ closes: they cause a momentary break in the harmonic direction, but do not divert it from its eventual course. The concatenation of the passing close and following full close can be considered a single extended cadential progression, as indicated by the directional brackets on the lower analytical staff in the example.

Morley goes on to suggest that either of the two types of false close just described may be transformed by exchanging the parts, placing the cadence in the bass and the false conclusion in an upper voice. When this is done, the unexpected note that makes the close false should be placed in the highest sounding part, presumably so that it is more easily perceived by the listener.

if your base be a Cadence . . . then will the rule bee contrarie, for whereas before your base in your false closing did descend to a sixth, nowe must your Altus or Tenor (because sometime the Tenor is about the Altus) ascend to the sixth or thirteenth and descend to the tenth or third, as here following you may perceiue.⁷³

Despite the use of the word ‘and’, Morley’s statement that this rule is ‘contrarie’ to the rule just given suggests that ‘ascend to the sixth or thirteenth’ and ‘descend to the tenth or third’ are not consecutive events but rather possible alternatives.⁷⁴ If the bass and tenor of the two types of false close just described are exchanged, placing the cadence in the bass, two new formations are obtained which match these descriptions (Example 4.32). Only one of these theoretical possibilities is illustrated in Morley’s accompanying examples: in Example 4.33, as in the hypothetical Example 4.32(c), the close is made ‘false’ by the highest voice’s ascent to E, a sixth above the bass, in place of the expected D, a fifth above the bass. As in Morley’s other passing closes, the departure from

⁷³Morley, 128; Morley, ed. Harman, 223.

⁷⁴The alternative interpretation is that the ascent to the sixth and descent to the tenth or third are to follow sequentially within a single part: in this case, only one type of false close rather than two is implied, consistent with the presence of only a single example of such a close. The highest voice in Example 4.31(d) indeed falls to D after ascending to E, as is typical in this type of false close, but D is a third above the *tenor*, whereas the sixth or thirteenth was reckoned between the highest voice and the cadence (in the bass). Neither interpretation is entirely unproblematic.

(a)

expected

actual

(b)

(c)

Example 4.31: Morley's examples of false closes: (a) and (b) with bass rising by step; (c) with bass falling by third; (d) with a bass cadence and a sixth in an upper part.

(a) "ascend [...] to the tenth or third"

(b) "descend [...] to the sixth"

(c) "ascend to the sixth"

(d) "descend to the tenth or third"

Example 4.33 suggests that it is the polyphonic texture as a whole, not only the behaviour of a fundamental structural pair of voices, which determines whether a close is ‘full’ or ‘false’. The structural voices of Example 4.33 seem to be the tenor and bass, which provide the cadential preparation, suspension and resolution formula. According to Morley, however, it is *not* the progression of these two voices which make the close false – although they happen to conclude on a third rather than the more perfect unison – but rather the motion of the highest part, which ascends to E, a sixth above the bass. The most obvious explanation for the ‘false’ quality of this close is that the E in the treble is foreign to the expected sonority of a G triad or open octave. For closes which are made false by the presence of an additional note outside the expected sonority, there is less necessity to notate the expected or predicted progression, as in Example 4.31, since the structural voices in the close conclude as expected. In the analyses that follow, these progressions will be notated in the reductions with the ‘foreign’ notes shown in cross noteheads.

Morley does not give an example of the other implied type of false close, in which an upper voice ends a tenth or third above the last note of a cadence

Example 4.33: A ‘false close’ with the cadence in the bass, from Morley.

in the bass, and the absence of this example suggests a potential problem with the attempt to formulate a ‘contrary’ rule for false closes with the cadence in the bass. Whereas the upper voice of Example 4.32(c) rises to make a sixth above the bass – a note which is foreign to the expected sonority – the upper voice in Example 4.32(d) falls to a third, which would normally be present in the final sonority in any case. If this hypothetical close were to be considered ‘false’, then the same classification would logically seem to apply to any other close whose outer parts finish on an imperfect tenth or third – a distinction analogous to the contrast between ‘perfect’ and ‘imperfect’ authentic cadences in common-practice harmony.⁷⁵ This distinction is not, however, borne out by Morley’s other examples of full closes: all of his examples in which the cadence is in the tenor end with a tenth or third between the outer voices.

⁷⁵Caplin’s definition of these terms is representative: ‘In a *perfect authentic cadence* (PAC), the melody reaches the tonic scale-degree in conjunction with the onset of the final tonic harmony. In an *imperfect authentic cadence* (IAC), the melody is left open on the third scale-degree (or, very rarely, the fifth degree).’ Caplin, *Classical Form*, 43.

This might suggest that closes ending with an imperfect interval between the outer voices occupy an ambiguous position within Morley's theory, similar to that of the 'flat cadence': possibly Morley felt that they were less final than closes which finish with a perfect interval between the outer parts, but lacked a term to express this degree of finality precisely within the three-level hierarchy of 'full', 'middle', and 'false' closes. If the interval between the outer parts of a close's final sonority is a relevant factor in determining the finality of the progression, it seems to be a weak one. To take just a few further examples, most of the conclusions of Gibbons's pavans and *In Nomines* analysed above are at variance with this hypothetical distinction. In both the G minor pavan and the 'Salisbury' pavan (Examples 4.22 and 4.23), the first strain closes with the outer voices in octaves, while the third strain closes with the third of the chord in the highest voice. The four-part *In Nomine* and two of the five-part *In Nomines* similarly conclude with the third of the chord in the highest voice (Examples 4.27, 4.28, 4.29).

Closes with an 'imperfect cadence'

Butler's discussion of deceptive cadential progressions in the *Principles of Musik* adds several further categories to Morley's taxonomy. Although Butler's terminology differs slightly, using 'imperfect cadence' in place of Morley's 'false close', his definition is analogous. Where Morley writes that the false or passing close is 'devised to shun a final end and go on with some other purpose', Butler notes that the imperfect cadence 'signifie[s] very little rest, either of Harmoni or of Ditti: but that they are both to proceed further'.⁷⁶ More significant than this difference of terminology is the wider range of progressions which Butler identifies as imperfect cadences. Where Morley's false closes all include a complete, unaltered cadence either in the bass or an upper part, Butler allows for imperfect cadences in which the final notes of the cadence, the bass, or both,

⁷⁶Butler, *The principles of musik*, 67.

The image displays musical notation for various cadences and closes, organized into two main sections. The first section contains examples (a) through (e), and the second section contains examples (f) through (l). Each example is presented on a grand staff (treble and bass clefs).

Section 1: Examples (a) through (e)

- (a)** Shows a single note in the bass clef.
- (b)** Shows a single note in the bass clef.
- (c)** Shows a single note in the bass clef.
- (d)** Shows a single note in the bass clef.
- (e)** Shows a single note in the bass clef.

Section 2: Examples (f) through (l)

- (f)** Shows a single note in the bass clef.
- (g)** Shows a single note in the bass clef.
- (h)** Shows a single note in the bass clef.
- (i)** Shows a single note in the bass clef.
- (j)** Shows a single note in the bass clef.
- (k)** Shows a single note in the bass clef.
- (l)** Shows a single note in the bass clef.

Below the notation, there are labels for the bass part and the final note:

- expected**: This label is positioned below the first two examples (a) and (b).
- actual**: This label is positioned below the last two examples (d) and (e).
- [assumed bass part]**: This label is positioned below the first two examples (f) and (g).

The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and brackets, indicating the structure and timing of the cadences and closes.

Example 4.34: Examples of imperfect cadences from Butler: (a)–(e) with alterations to the bass; (f) with a rest replacing the last note of the cadence; (g)–(l) with other alterations to the final cadence note.

are altered or replaced with a rest: as he writes, the imperfect cadence ‘differeth from the perfect in the third or last Note: which either is silence [...] or mooveth from the proper key of an Eight or Unison, to soom other’.⁷⁷ Some of Butler’s ‘imperfect cadences’ resemble Morley’s false closes, in that the upper voice’s cadence figure remains unaltered while an unexpected conclusion arrives in the bass: Butler writes of these that ‘[the] change is made in the Base, the Cadence remaining whole’. Two examples correspond exactly to Morley’s first two types of false closes, featuring a 4–3 suspension in an upper part above a bass which concludes unexpectedly by rising step (Example 4.34(a)) or falling third (Example 4.34(c)). One more has the same type of suspension, but involves a different false conclusion in which the bass falls by step to F (Example 4.34(b)).⁷⁸

Other imperfect cadences exemplified in Butler’s text illustrate possibilities more distant from the false closes Morley describes. Examples 4.34(d) and (e) show that an imperfect cadence may also arise when the upper part makes a 7–6 suspension with the bass rather than a 4–3 suspension. In these examples, an unexpected conclusion is produced by the bass falling by fourth from D to A, rather than descending by step to C as expected. Finally, Examples 4.34(f)–(l) illustrate imperfect cadences in which the unexpected conclusion involves an alteration to the final note of the cadence, rather than to the bass or another voice. In Example 4.34(f), a rest replaces the final note, while in Examples 4.34(g)–(l) some other unexpected melodic interval – a falling second, third, or fifth, or an ascending third, fourth or fifth – replace the expected stepwise return to C.⁷⁹ Like Butler’s examples of ornamented cadences, these examples

⁷⁷Ibid.

⁷⁸In common-practice terminology, this might be likened to the replacement of V–I by V–IV or V–ii(6): a rarer kind of deceptive progression than the V–vi and V–I(6) progressions represented by Morley’s false closes, though still a deceptive cadence under the definition cited above from Caplin. Schoenberg includes IV–V–IV as an example of a deceptive cadence in *Harmonielehre*; see Arnold Schoenberg, *Theory of Harmony*, trans. Roy E. Carter (University of California Press, 1983) [translation of *Harmonielehre*, 3rd ed. (Universal Edition, 1922)].

⁷⁹This progression would seem to be more distant from common-practice harmony, where it would be analysed roughly as vii°(6)–vi.

include only the upper part, leaving the reader to assume the bass part and the rest of the texture; a hypothetical bass has been added in Example 4.34 for clarity. Many of these alterations to the cadence result in a progression which ends within the expected sonority, being weakened only by the lack of motion from the cadential leading tone to the final: this describes Examples 4.34(h), (i), (k), and (l). In Example 4.34(g), the upper voice ends on a sixth with the bass, creating a false conclusion similar to Morley's false close with a bass cadence, in which an upper part rises to the sixth (Example 4.33). Finally, Example 4.34(j) requires some kind of alteration to the bass voice to avoid a dissonant ninth between the parts when the upper voice rises to D instead of C. One possibility is illustrated here: the bass might fall by step from G to F, creating a progression similar to that illustrated in Example 4.34(b), but with alterations in both voices instead of the bass only.⁸⁰ Another possibility would be for the bass part to hold its G while the upper voice rises to D, creating a kind of half close.

Types of false close in Gibbons's fantasies

Although Gibbons makes use of all the false closes and imperfect cadences described by Morley and Butler, analysing his fantasias also demonstrates the need to generalise beyond their categories. Examples 4.36–4.35 show progressions from the consort fantasies which exemplify the three types of false closes described by Morley. In Examples 4.35 and 4.36, the cadence is in an upper part, and the bass either rises by step or falls by third. In Example 4.37, the cadence is in the bass, or lowest sounding part, while one of the upper parts rises to a sixth above its final note and then falls back to the expected fifth.

One significant difference between Examples 4.36–4.35 and Morley's passing closes is that a full close on the originally implied sonority does not invariably follow in these excerpts from Gibbons. Both the false closes shown in Example

⁸⁰This progression could be considered another unusual type of deceptive cadence, V–ii(6).

4.35 lead immediately into sequential progressions (not shown in the example). In Examples 4.37(a) and (b) – one from a two-part fantasy, the other from a three-part fantasy – false closes with an implied conclusion on D are succeeded by a full close on F. Finally, the two passages shown in Example 4.35 demonstrate contrasting procedures. In Example 4.35(a), the false close is followed – after several bars containing a full entrance of the subject – by a more conclusive close in A, which may be heard as the final resolution of the previous incomplete progression. By contrast, in Example 4.35(b), the false close on A is followed by full closes on D (b. 116), A (bb. 117–118), and finally F. Although one might like to analyse the full close in b. 118 as the completion of the false progression of bb. 113–114, the strength of the intervening D close speaks against this interpretation.

Other false closes in Gibbons's music call for generalisations of the explicit categories specified by theorists. In particular, it is necessary to expand the category suggested by Morley's third type of false close, in which the finality of a bass cadence is undermined by an unexpected sixth in an upper voice. Although Morley describes only this particular situation, very similar progressions are often found with different arrangements of bass and cadence. In the excerpts from Gibbons's three-part fantasias with double bass in Example 4.38(a) and (b) a similar ascent to a sixth in the highest part is combined with a 7–6 cadence in the lower two voices; in Example 4.38(c), the same figure sounds above a 4–3 cadence in the lowest parts. It seems reasonable to identify these progressions, too, as false closes in a similar category to those in Example 4.37. For analogous reasons, any progression where a suspension or other foreign note sounds with the final note of the cadence figure should be regarded as a false or passing close.

A more complex false close appears in Example 4.39, where two potential closes overlap: the first a *mi* close formed by the treble and bass and implying a conclusion on E, the second formed by the alto and bass and implying a conclusion on A. The conclusion of the first potential close is denied by the

(a)

40 42 44 46

subject

potential

actual

(b)

113 114 116 118 120

subject

potential

actual

Example 4.35: Two passages containing false closes in which the bass rises by step, from Gibbons, three-part fantasy with double bass no. 3 (*MB* 48, no. 18)

(a)

35 36 22 23 24

(b)

potential closes

actual reduction

The image displays a musical score for a three-part consort fantasia. It is divided into two main sections, (a) and (b). Section (a) contains measures 35 and 36, while section (b) contains measures 22, 23, and 24. The notation includes treble and bass staves with various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and brackets. In section (a), there are two 'potential closes' indicated by brackets and an 'x' mark. In section (b), there is an 'actual reduction' indicated by a bracket and an arrow. The score is written in a key with one flat (B-flat) and a common time signature (C).

Example 4.36: False closes from Gibbons's three-part consort fantasies in which the bass falls by third: (a) from no. 5 (*MB* 48, no. 11); (b) from no. 8 (*MB* 48, no. 14)

(a)

(b)

Example 4.37: False closes from Gibbons's two- and three-part fantasies with the cadence in the lowest part: (a) from fantasia for two trebles no. 6 (*MB* 48, no. 6); (b) from three-part fantasia no. 6 (*MB* 48, no. 12)

The image displays a musical score for three parts: treble viol, tenor viol, and bass viol(s). The score is divided into three sections: (a), (b), and (c), each with a measure number (151, 104, and 29 respectively). Section (a) shows a treble viol part with a melodic line, a tenor viol part with a similar line, and a bass viol(s) part with a lower line. Section (b) shows a treble viol part with a melodic line, a tenor viol part with a similar line, and a bass viol(s) part with a lower line. Section (c) shows a treble viol part with a melodic line, a tenor viol part with a similar line, and a bass viol(s) part with a lower line. Below these sections is a 'reduction' section, which is a simplified version of the three parts, showing the essential harmonic structure. The reduction section includes measure numbers 6, 5, and 3, and a final measure with a double bar line.

Example 4.38: False closes using an unexpected sixth from Gibbons's fantasies with double bass: (a) from three-part fantasy *MB* 48 no. 16; (b) from *MB* no. 18; (c) from *MB* no. 24.

substitution of a B for the expected E in the top voice – as in the imperfect cadence illustrated by Butler in Example 4.34(h) – and by the suspended A that forms the upper voice of the second close. The second close is made false by the progression of the bass, which falls from E to C♯ rather than to A. (The bass soon falls to the expected A on the next beat, but the placement of this resolution in a weak metrical position, combined with the ongoing motion of upper parts, makes the conclusion a weak one.) In the analysis, the two potential closes have been indicated on separate analytical staves, one for each potential close, above the reduction of the actual heard counterpoint. The downward arrow between the staves indicates that when the conclusion of the first potential close fails to materialise, cadential function is transferred to the voices forming the second close.⁸¹ The overlapping combination of a *mi* close with another close a fifth below is a standard one, sometimes referred to in German musicological literature as a *Doppelkadenz* or double cadence.⁸² Because this combination is so conventionalised as a cadential progression in its own right, it might seem pedantic to illustrate both potential closes as if both conclusions are implied with equal force. The principle by which multiple false closes can be chained together is more general than this single formation, however, and in many other passages from Gibbons's fantasias it is extended to considerably greater length.

Gibbons also employs nearly all the deceptive progressions which Butler describes as 'imperfect cadences', including closes made false by a rest and by an unexpected note in the cadencing voice, rather than the bass. Closes where a rest replaces a final note are especially common in the fantasias for two trebles, where the small number of parts makes many other types of false

⁸¹This notation is again adapted from Leach, 'Counterpoint and Analysis in 14th-Century Song', 66ff., where it is used to represent the transfer of directed-progression function from one pair of voices to another. A further difference between Leach's analyses and those in this chapter is that the staves used to illustrate 'potential closes' here do not represent fixed pairs of voices, but are used freely to represent the changing voice-pairs involved in successive cadential implications.

⁸²See, e.g., Bernhard Meier, *Alte Tonarten dargestellt an der Instrumentalmusik des 16. und 17. Jahrhunderts*, 113, 119.

The image displays a musical score for Example 4.39, which is a more complex false close from Gibbons' three-part fantasy no. 5 (MB 48, no. 11). The score is presented in five staves. The top two staves (treble and bass clef) show measures 16, 17, and 18. Below these are three staves illustrating 'potential close' scenarios, each with a bracketed note and an 'x' mark indicating where a close might be expected. The bottom two staves show the 'actual' resolution, with the bass line clearly resolving to D in the final measure.

Example 4.39: A more complex false close from Gibbons, three-part fantasy no. 5 (MB 48, no. 11)

close unavailable. In this context, the expected resolution usually arrives on the next beat after the rest, so the effect of the 'imperfect cadence' is, again, to shift the expected resolution into a weak metrical position which demands a continuation. More elaborate and more deceptive instances of closes made false by a rest occur in the three-part fantasies with double bass (Example 4.40). In Example 4.40(a), from the third fantasia (MB 48 no. 18), rests in the upper parts of b. 110 deny the expected conclusion of the previous bar's D cadence. Here, the upsetting of expectations is only momentary, and does not divert the music from its original harmonic goal: although the upper parts are silent, the bass falls from A to D as expected, and the full close on D is completed by all three voices in the next bar. In Example 4.40(b), from the

second fantasia (*MB* 48 no. 17), the introduction of rests into the close has more pronounced effects on the harmony: not only is the B $\flat$ cadence in bb. 133–4 shorn of its last note, but the outer parts in b. 134 remain fixed on F and C, where movement to B $\flat$ and D might have been expected. Unlike the momentary displacement of Example 4.40(a), this departure from expectations seemingly causes a change in the key or ‘air’: rather than returning to their implied harmonic destination of B $\flat$, the parts proceed onward to a full close on C in b. 135. In short, Example 4.40(a) is a passing close, Example 4.40(b) a false close.

Gibbons also makes use of false closes in which the cadence figure itself is altered. Example 4.41 shows a passage from a three-part fantasia (*MB* 48 no. 8), in which four false closes conclude in three different fashions. The G close in bb. 49–50, in which the bass falls from D to B instead of G, is one of the types described by Morley. The other three closes feature alterations to the last notes of both the upper voice’s cadence and the bass, as Butler describes. In b. 46, both the upper voice and the bass fall by step, replacing a conclusion on B $\flat$ with one on E $\flat$; in b. 47, the upper voice again falls by step, while the bass rises by fifth to land on D instead of C; finally, in b. 48, the D *mi* cadence ends by rising to E $\flat$ while the bass falls to C. The combination of the false D *mi* close of 47–48 and the following false G close is comparable to the double-cadence formation of Example 4.39.

109 (a) 110 111 133 (b) 134 135 136

potential closes

actual

Example 4.40: False and passing closes produced by rests, from Gibbons's three-part fantasies with double bass: (a) from *MB* 48, no. 18, (b) from *MB* 48, no. 17

45 46 47 48 49 50

potential closes

actual

preparation

Example 4.41: A sequence of false closes with alterations in both the cadence and the bass, from Gibbons, three-part fantasia no. 2 (MB 48 no. 8)

‘Deferring a close’ and ‘changing the air’

One particularly perceptive historical observation about the musical effect of a deceptive cadential progression comes from Coprario’s *Rules how to Compose*. Although Coprario explicitly identifies only a single example of a deceptive progression, his commentary is especially intriguing because of the connection it makes to changing the ‘air’, or key. The progressions Coprario shows (Example 4.42) are similar in outline to one of Butler’s imperfect cadences (Examples 4.34(d) and (e)), in which a cadence in the alto makes a 7–6 suspension with the bass, concluding unexpectedly when the bass falls a fourth instead of descending by step.⁸³ Coprario’s description of the effect of this unexpected conclusion is striking: he writes that it both ‘change[s] the ayre’ and ‘defers a close’:

if the Bass rise a 2, and then fall a 4 meaning for to change the ayre, and to deferr a close lett the 8 hold, and then vse the 6.⁸⁴

This statement has similarities both to Morley’s description of the passing close which ‘shun[s] a final end’, and to Mace’s later claim that a false close creates ‘an *Expectation* of something to follow’.⁸⁵ Yet Coprario’s choice of the verb ‘defer’ goes a step beyond either author in its suggestion that the harmony will eventually return to complete the progression disrupted by the false close’s unexpected conclusion. Morley states only that the passing close ‘goes on to some other purpose’, and although Mace notes that the expected conclusion of the progression, ‘when it comes in, is the more wellcom, by reason of that *Seeming Defraud*’, he seems to be referring to very short timescales, given that his context is the use of rubato in performance. Coprario, by contrast, seems to imply a deferral of expectations on a longer timescale. Furthermore, he adds that deferring a close in this manner changes the ‘air’. Although the precise meaning of ‘air’ or ‘ayre’ in this period is difficult to pin down, it can often be

⁸³Coprario, *Rules how to Compose*, ed. Wilson, 97. This is the only place where Coprario explicitly refers to a 7–6 suspension (rather than a 4–3) as implying or creating a ‘close’.

⁸⁴*Ibid.*

⁸⁵Morley, 127; Morley, ed. Harman, 223; Mace, *Musick’s Monument*, 226, quoted in Herissone, *Music Theory in Seventeenth-Century England*, 172.

translated as ‘key’. Coprario’s conjunction of ‘change the air’ and ‘defer a close’ then implies that the key area suggested by the preparation of a full close is not simply erased by an unexpected or deceptive resolution. Instead, it remains in the listener’s mind as an expectation that the harmony will eventually return to complete the deferred close.

The image displays a musical score for a single system. It consists of six staves. The first four staves are grouped by a large brace on the left. The fifth staff is labeled 'expected' and the sixth staff is labeled 'actual'. The 'expected' staff shows a sequence of chords with a bracket and an 'x' above it, indicating a false close. The 'actual' staff shows the same sequence of chords, but with a different resolution, indicating a deferred close.

Example 4.42: Progressions which ‘change the ayre’ and ‘deferr a close’, from Coprario, *Rules how to Compose*

The ‘change of air’ produced by a false close is seldom an isolated event. More commonly, a close with an unexpected conclusion is quickly succeeded by other closes, either full or false, which may fulfil the original expectation, or divert it onto some other harmonic course. In passages such as these, the sense of expectation created by the close is not dissipated with its unexpected conclusion, but instead extended over a longer span of time. Gibbons’s fantasies demonstrate a fascination with the harmonic possibilities that can be created by linking together many successive false closes in this manner.

In the simplest kind of extended cadential passage, several closes with the same implied conclusion are overlapped or linked together, maintaining a sense

of harmonic direction for a longer period of time than is possible with a single close. This procedure has already been seen in several examples above, both from Morley (Example 4.31) and Gibbons (Examples 4.35(a) and 4.40(a)). Another short example from Gibbons appears in Example 4.43, from Gibbons's second three-part fantasia (*MB* 48, no. 8), in which two false B $\flat$ closes overlap. The close formed by the bass cadence in b. 74 is made false by the suspended ninth in the treble viol; this suspension prepares a second B $\flat$ cadence, whose conclusion is itself made false by the bass rest on the downbeat of b. 76. The use of these false closes in succession defers a final conclusion until the return to the key-note of G at the end of the movement.

The image displays a musical score for Example 4.43, illustrating two overlapping B $\flat$ closes. The score is presented in three systems. The first system (measures 74-76) shows the original notation with a treble and bass staff. The second system, labeled 'potential closes', shows two possible harmonic paths with 'x' marks indicating where the closes would occur. The third system, labeled 'actual', shows the actual harmonic progression with a downward arrow indicating the final resolution.

Example 4.43: Two overlapping B $\flat$ closes, from Gibbons, fantasia no. 2 for three viols (*MB* 48, no. 8)

A longer example in which successive false closes repeatedly defer their implied harmonic destination comes from Gibbons's first four-part fantasia with double bass (*MB* 48 no. 24). Example 4.44 shows the final ten bars of the first

point of imitation. There are as many cadences in these ten bars as in the preceding twenty, and all of them share an implied destination of C, creating a strong expectation of an impending conclusion which does not arrive until the full close that ends the section in b. 28. The four closes leading up to this conclusion are all made false in different ways. In b. 21 the bass rises by step from G to A instead of to C; in b. 22 the cadence falls to A instead of rising to C; in b. 24 an upper part rises to A above the bass cadence; and in b. 25 the bass falls from G to E. Despite this variety of unexpected conclusions, the harmonic goal finally reached in b. 28 is implied throughout. The passage as a whole can be heard as a single extended close on C, as indicated by the extended directional bracket over the reduction.

False closes in sequence

A slightly more complex kind of extended cadential passage arranges successive false closes into a sequential progression. Like the passages above, in which the successive closes all share an implied conclusion, such sequences extend the sense of cadential implication and expectation over a longer span of time. Rather than repeatedly emphasising a single harmonic destination, however, they move continuously through harmonic space, typically around the circle of fifths. Several examples of such cadential sequences have already been presented in this chapter and the previous one, including the conclusion of the *In Nomine* with two bass viols (Example 4.26). Two more examples will be given here out of the many others in Gibbons's fantasies.

Example 4.45 shows an extended cadential sequence from Gibbons's second four-part fantasia with double bass (*MB* 48 no. 25). It begins with a false E close (bb. 75–6), moves through false closes on A, D, and G, and ends with a full close on C (bb. 86–8). All the false closes are of the same type, with the bass falling to make the lowest note of a 6/3 chord. In other pieces, a similar sequential progression is accomplished by chaining together several different types of false close. The sequence in Example 4.46 from Gibbons's

19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28

subject

subject

potential closes

reduction

(*)

(*)

Example 4.44: A series of false C closes, from Gibbons, four-part fantasia with double bass no. 2 (*MB* 48, no. 25)

third fantasia with double bass (*MB* 48 no. 18) is notable not only for its harmonic range – moving by fifths from an E close to an F close – but also for the variety of false close types it employs. The A cadence of b. 91 and the G cadence of b. 93 both end with a rise of a diminished fourth (G♯–C, F♯–B♭) ending a third or tenth above the bass rather than the expected octave. Butler illustrates a similar imperfect cadence in Example 4.34(f), where a C cadence ends unexpectedly by rising from B to E, but Gibbons generally uses this type of progression in the minor mode, replacing the rising perfect fourth of Butler’s example with a more pungent diminished fourth. Between these two closes, the cadence in the lower two parts of b. 92 concludes on D as expected, but is prevented from a final conclusion by the suspended fourth of the G cadence above it. The false closes in bb. 95, 97 and 99 feature a 7–6 suspension, and a bass part which falls by fourth instead of descending by step: in bb. 94–95 the bass falls from A to E (instead of G), in bb. 96–97 from D to A, and in bb. 98–99 from G to D. Coprario’s description of this progression as ‘changing the air’ and ‘deferring a close’ aptly describes its function in this passage.

Other sequences in Gibbons’s fantasies rely on a kind of false close not discussed by theorists, in which a ‘flat’ resolution of the cadential suspension replaces the expected ‘sharp’ resolution. Imperfect cadences of this form are most easily recognised as false closes if they have an unambiguous preparation, as demonstrated in Example 4.47, from the second fantasia with double bass (*MB* no. 17). Here, an approaching C cadence is signalled by the dotted suspension-anticipation figure in the treble, but its cadential force is dissipated by the ‘flat’ resolution to B♭. Example 4.48 shows how a succession of such ‘flat’ cadences may be joined into a longer sequence. In this excerpt from the first fantasia with double bass (*MB* 48 no. 16), Gibbons repeats the same cadential progression three times in sequence: twice with a ‘flat’ resolution, deferring implied closes on C and G, and finally with the ‘sharp’ resolution, making a close on D. According to the definitions of the cadence given by Morley and Butler, the first two suspensions in this example can scarcely be

73 74 76 78 80 82 84 86 88

potential closes

potential closes

reduction

Example 4.45: A sequence of false closes moving around the circle of fifths, from Gibbons, four-part fantasia no. 2 (*MB* 48, no. 25)

90 91 92 93 94 95

potential closes

potential closes

reduction

Example 4.46: A sequence of false closes from Gibbons, three-part fantasia with double bass no. 3 (*MB* 48, no. 18)

96 97 98 99 100

101 102 103 104 105

considered cadences at all, due to their flat resolutions. Gibbons's use of 'flat' and 'sharp' resolutions in sequence, however, shows a clear intention to play with the distinction between cadential and non-cadential suspensions, in order to create the 'affected variety or humour' which Roger North later described.

76

potential close

reduction

Example 4.47: A false close created by a 'flat cadence', from Gibbons, three-part fantasia with double bass no. 2 (*MB* 48 no. 17)

50

potential closes

reduction

Example 4.48: A sequence of flat cadences, from Gibbons, three-part fantasia with double bass no. 1 (*MB* 48, no. 16)

Cadential imitation

A more intricate type of extended cadential passage involves the imitative development of a subject with strong cadential implications. Typically, such passages create increasingly strong implications of closure as they develop, ending in a full close. An example of this kind of point of imitation has already been presented in the opening of the keyboard ‘Fancy in Gamut Flatt’ discussed in the previous chapter. Its cadential structure can now be examined in more detail. As argued in the previous chapter, the head motive and the two countersubjects in this fantasy can be thought of as being extracted from the final close in bb. 17–19 through a process of ‘unpacking the box’. A slight complication in this analysis is that the voices of bb. 17–19 are ornamented, and countersubject ‘ii’ is treated in brief imitation at the unison in the upper voices. It is easier, then, to imagine Gibbons extracting these subjects from the simplified close shown in Example 4.49, of which the actual full close in bb. 17–19 of the finished fantasy is an elaborated version. The first four notes of the main subject’s head motive (melody ‘i’) come from the tenor, starting in the middle of b. 17 (G–B $\flat$ –F $\sharp$ –G); its fifth note, D, is taken from the first note of the bass in b. 19. The descending figure of countersubject ‘ii’ is taken from the treble, and countersubject ‘iii’ – which is nothing more than a ‘cadence’, in Morley’s sense – is taken from the alto. Notably, the conclusion of the full close lies outside the repeated module, allowing Gibbons to fashion its varied repetitions over the course of the point of imitation into false and passing closes of several different types. In particular, the final note of the *basizans* figure in the bass is not part of the fantasy’s subject. Because Gibbons joins the head motive to a tail motive which begins one octave higher (see bb. 1–3 of Example 4.50), the final note of this figure is omitted throughout the point of imitation, arriving only with the final full close in b. 19.

The point of imitation with which the ‘Fancy in Gamut Flatt’ opens (Example 4.50) constitutes a process of ‘re-packing the box’, by which the full

Example 4.49: A simplified version of the full close in bb. 17–19 of Gibbons’s ‘Fancy in Gamut Flatt’, from which the head motive and countersubjects can be extracted.

close shown in Example 4.49 is progressively re-assembled. The first two entrances of the subject do not take part in this process, and have only relatively weak cadential implications: in bb. 1–2 the subject sounds alone, and in b. 4 the introduction of a C♯ in the upper voice dissipates the cadential force of the subject’s C♯–D semitone. In bb. 6–7, the addition of countersubject ‘ii’ in the alto above the third entrance of the subject provides another missing voice of the potential close, but in the absence of the cadential suspension that would be supplied by countersubject ‘iii’, the implication remains indefinite. The continuation of the subject’s implied cadence first materialises with the fourth entrance of the subject, where the addition of countersubject ‘iii’ in the alto completes the D cadence implied by the entrance in the bass (bb. 9–10). Here, for the first time, all voices of the three-voice module sound together to form an unambiguous false close. Its implied conclusion on D is denied both by the bass voice – which, continuing on to the subject’s tail motive, must rise from A to A an octave above, rather than to D – and by the alto, which rises a diminished fourth from C♯ to F, omitting the final note of countersubject iii. The same kind of false close, this time with an implied conclusion on G, is formed at the fifth entrance of the subject, in bb. 13–14. Gibbons links these

2 3 4 5

potential closes

subject

head motive

tail motive

(flexed)

subject

reduction

subject

Example 4.50: Successively stronger closes produced through 're-packing the box' in the opening of the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' (MB 20, no. 9)

The musical score is presented in four systems, each with a treble and bass staff. The first system (measures 6-12) features a melodic line in the treble staff and a bass line in the bass staff. The second system (measures 13-19) continues the melody and bass line. The third system (measures 20-26) shows a more complex melodic line with many accidentals and a bass line. The fourth system (measures 27-33) shows a final melodic line and a bass line. The score includes various musical notations such as notes, rests, accidentals, and dynamic markings.

The musical score is presented in two systems, each with a treble and bass staff. The first system covers measures 13 to 16, and the second system covers measures 17 to 19. The key signature is one flat (B-flat). The notation includes various note values, rests, and accidentals. The piece concludes with a 'full close' indicated by a double bar line and a repeat sign.

Measure numbers 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19 are indicated above the staves. The score includes various musical notations such as notes, rests, and accidentals. The piece concludes with a 'full close' indicated by a double bar line and a repeat sign.

two entrances together with an extra false D close (bb. 11–12), in which the ‘semi-perfect’ D close formed by the free middle voices is made false by the first note of the G entrance in the bass, and by the second note (B♭) of the flexed and disguised stretto entrance in the treble.

Stronger closes arrive with the sixth entrance of the full subject: in b. 16, countersubject iii sounds in full for the first time in the bass, taking over the D cadence implied by the subject in the treble. For the first time in the fantasy, this close reaches its implied D sonority, on the first note of b. 17; but the arrival is only brief, serving to introduce a further close on the key-note of G. To achieve this, Gibbons had to flex the subject entrance in the treble, replacing what would be a rising third between the first and second notes of b. 17, A–C, with a rising second, A–B♭: as in the conclusions of the *In Nomines*, harmonic factors evidently assume priority over strict adherence to a structural scheme. The G close of b. 17 is itself made false by the bass’s arrival on B♭ rather than G, so that final harmonic closure arrives only with the complete ‘re-packing’ of the original full close in bb. 17–19, in which the subject’s head motive is concealed in ornamented form in the tenor and bass voices.

Other opening points of imitation from Gibbon’s fantasies feature a more complex interaction between cadential and imitative processes. This is illustrated by the opening of the sixth fantasia for six-part consort (*MB* 48 no. 36, Examples 4.51 and 4.52). The apparent conceit of this point of imitation is the use of a subject whose two halves both have strong cadential implications, but which almost never actually line up to form the promised full close. The falling fifth of the subject’s head motive represents a potential bass part in a full close, while the decorated suspension figure of the tail motive is a potential cadence; its final melodic interval is flexed between a rising second and a rising third, so it may end either on its starting note (completing the potential cadence) or on the note below (denying the cadential implication). Gibbons forms the imitative skeleton of the opening from two successive, overlapping sets of periodic entries: the first descending through the lower three voices at the time interval

of two semibreves, the second ascending through the upper three voices at the time interval of three semibreves. The imitative structure, shorn of all free and quasi-imitative voices, is diagrammed on its own in Example 4.51.

The first set of periodic entries in Example 4.52 begin successively on E, A, and E. Gibbons shows no modal compunction about answering one descending fifth (E–A) with another descending fifth (A–D), but he flexes the joint between the first and second halves of the subject so that the leading and following parts form the same module both times. This module is weakly cadential in function: the 7–6 suspension formed by its upper voice suggests a semi-perfect close, but the lower voice falls silent when the upper voice returns to its final, and the presence of an extra note between the resolution and the final note further weakens the force of the return, giving the progression a curious archaic quality reminiscent of the so-called ‘Landini cadence’. In the second presentation of the module, the cadential implication is further weakened through the use of an F♯ rather than an F♯ in b. 7, rendering it a ‘flat’ cadence.

The second three imitative entrances in Example 4.52 ascend through the upper three voices in bb. 6–18, separated by a consistent time interval of three semibreves. The subject of this group of entrances is longer than in the first group, containing an additional repetition of the suspension-figure tail motive, and its three overlapping entrances create three different rotations of a three-voice module, one complete and two incomplete. The three component melodies of the module sound together only once, in bb. 11–13; different pairs of melodies sound in bb. 8–10 and bb. 14–16. Only the complete presentation of the module in bb. 11–13, where all three entrances combine together, encodes a cadential progression on its own: it creates a strong false close, in which the second treble first implies a close on D through the resolution of its suspended D to C♯, and then deflects it by returning to C♯. The two partial presentations of the module on either side of this interact with cadential progressions in different ways. The first presentation, in bb. 8–10, is essentially neutral with respect to the close formed by the other voices. In these bars, a D close is

Diagram illustrating musical notation and fingerings for a six-part fantasia, showing six staves (Treble 1, Treble 2, Tenor 1, Tenor 2, Bass 1, Bass 2) and associated fingering boxes.

Fingering Boxes:

- A:** 3 7 6 5 0 | 3 7 6 5 0
- B1:** 6 7 8 3
- dc5(B1):** 2 3 4 (3)
- dc5(B2):** 3 4 3 2 1 2
- B2:** 7 8 7 6 5 6

Staff 1 (Treble 1): Measures 2 through 18. Measure 18 includes a dotted line and a final note.

Staff 2 (Treble 2): Measures 2 through 18. Measure 18 includes a dotted line and a final note.

Staff 3 (Tenor 1): Measures 2 through 18. Measure 18 includes a dotted line and a final note.

Staff 4 (Tenor 2): Measures 2 through 18. Measure 18 includes a dotted line and a final note.

Staff 5 (Bass 1): Measures 2 through 18. Measure 18 includes a dotted line and a final note.

Staff 6 (Bass 2): Measures 2 through 18. Measure 18 includes a dotted line and a final note.

Example 4.51: Two sets of three periodic entries in the opening of Gibbons's six-part fantasia no. 6, *MB* 48 no. 36.

* Indicates voice crossing

A **A** **A**

3 7 6 5 0 3 7 6 5 0

2 4 6 8 10 12

dc5(B1) 2 3 4 (3)

B1 6 7 8 3

B2 7 8 7 6 5 6

potential closes

reduction

Example 4.52: Cadential implications in the opening point of Gibbons's six-part fantasia no. 6, *MB* 48 no. 36.

3

4

3

2

1

2

dc5(B2)

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

implied by the bass, in which Gibbons has freely continued the tail motive of the subject's third entrance to form a D cadence figure (bb. 7–10). Its conclusion on the first beat of b. 10 is made false by the suspended ninth in the second tenor, which is also a free voice. Finally, the third presentation of the three-voice module in the upper voices (bb. 14–16) interacts more strongly with cadential processes. Unlike the complete second presentation, however, it does not imply a close on its own, but rather denies the conclusion of a close already in progress: the suspended ninth of b. 16 prevents the final conclusion of the close in A suggested by the free voices below.

Strong closes on A and D finally appear in Example 4.51 only after the end of the two sets of imitative entrances. The A close of bb. 18–20 is created entirely by the free voices. Finally, the D close of bb. 20–22 makes good on the implication of the falling-fifth head motive in the seventh entrance of the subject, which finally provides the bass of the full close it has implied all along. Yet again Gibbons denies a final conclusion to this close through the use of a suspended ninth in b. 22, leading this final imitative entrance into a more freely cadential passage (bb. 29–40, not shown in this example), and deferring the final close of the section until the full close in A of bb. 38–40. What is ultimately striking about this point of imitation is the relative independence of imitative and cadential structure, as becomes clear if the skeletal imitative structure of Example 4.51 is heard by itself without the free voices. Rather than setting up an imitative structure which generates harmonically logical progressions of its own accord, Gibbons seems to have set himself a compositional problem through the use of a subject and an imitative structure which create unresolved cadential implications, and solved it through the addition of free voices which place these dissonances within a comprehensible harmonic structure.

Extended ambiguity and cadential ‘garden paths’

Gibbons’s most distinctive uses of cadential ambiguity occur in passages where the continuous cadential implications neither aim at a single destination, nor move from one direction to another in orderly sequence, but instead shift in a languid and unpredictable fashion from one ambiguous close to another. Such passages appear particularly often in the three- and four-part fantasies with double bass, where they are frequently marked with the performance indication ‘long and soft’, and this term will be adopted here as a descriptive label for the style, even where it is not explicitly given in the source. The word ‘long’ in this context means roughly ‘slow’ or ‘drawn out’, and the slowing of tempo and harmonic rhythm in these passages is crucial to the resulting harmonic ambiguity. Slowing the pulse lessens the force of the usual rhythmic and metrical contextual clues, and blurs the boundary between cadential and non-cadential suspensions.

Example 4.53 shows an example of Gibbons’s ‘long and soft’ style in a passage from the first three-part fantasia with double bass (*MB* 48 no. 16). The opening of this example exploits the potential for ambiguity between full and half closes: the 6/4–5/3 double suspension in the upper voices of b. 98 might indicate either a ‘stay’ on B $\flat$ or a close in E $\flat$. In b. 99, the lowest voice arrives on the E $\flat$ of the anticipated close, but the upper parts drop out, leaving it ambiguous whether these bars should be heard as a false E $\flat$ close, or a B $\flat$ half close followed by the beginning of a new phrase. A repetition of the same phrase with the upper parts exchanged in bb. 99–100 promises a resolution of the ambiguity, but leads to neither possible conclusion: instead, Gibbons ‘changes the air’ by allowing the chain of suspensions to continue in a new harmonic direction, toward the close in F of b. 102. A similar kind of syntactic ambiguity affects the D close in bb. 104–106, where the cadence figure is in the lowest voice and the middle voice rises to B $\flat$, displacing the A that would complete the close. In most passing closes of this form, the upper

part's sixth resolves quickly to the expected fifth, but here Gibbons extends the D–B $\flat$ –D sonority to a full semibreve in length; by the time the middle voice's B $\flat$ finally falls to A, the highest voice has dropped out in order to begin a new phrase. This renders the open D–A fifth of b. 107 ambiguous, in a similar way to the lone E $\flat$ of b. 99: it could be heard either as the delayed resolution of the previous bar's false conclusion on D–B $\flat$, or as the beginning of a new phrase. The two B $\flat$ cadences that follow in bb. 109–112 also dissolve inconclusively, and in b. 115, a strongly implied full close on G is turned aside by the insertion of a rest in place of the expected resolution in the lowest voice – a mirror image of the false close that opened the passage in bb. 97–98, where the lowest part continued to its expected conclusion while the upper parts were interrupted by rests. The sense of continuous harmonic expectation created by this succession of false closes only finally dissipates with the close on B $\flat$ in b. 118 and the beginning of the next section.

Returning briefly to the analogy between cadences and grammar, chains of false closes like these can be compared to the linguistic phenomenon of the 'garden path' sentence. Such sentences – named after the idiom 'to lead down the garden path', or lead astray – are artificial examples devised to illustrate that the parsing of written language involves a process of prediction and revision. They are constructed in such a way that the reader is led to parse an ambiguous construction in one way, up to the point where the appearance of a word which is ungrammatical within this hypothesised structure forces a re-interpretation of what preceded it. Two examples illustrate the idea:

The man who whistles tunes pianos.

The horse raced past the barn fell.

Excluding the final word, 'pianos', from the first sentence, the simplest default reading interprets 'whistles' as a verb, and 'tunes' as a noun. The first five words then form a single noun phrase, requiring a following verb. This reading has no grammatical role for the noun 'pianos' encountered at the end of the

97 98 99 100 101 102 103 104 105 106 107

potential closes

half close (half-close)

reduction

Example 4.53: A 'long and soft' passage of continuous cadential ambiguity, from Gibbons, three-part fantasia with double bass no. 1 (MB 48, no. 16)

108 109 110 111 112 113 114 115 116 117 118

sentence: it has to be discarded or revised to arrive at a grammatical structure for the whole, in which ‘The man who whistles’ is a noun phrase functioning as the subject, ‘tunes’ is the main verb, and ‘pianos’ its object. Similarly, if ‘fell’ is excluded from the second sentence, the default reading is likely to interpret ‘raced’ as the sentence’s main verb. Upon reading the final word of the sentence, this reading has to be discarded in order to reinterpret the first seven words as a single noun phrase – ‘the horse [that was] raced past the barn’ – and ‘fell’ as the main verb.

A succession of false closes resembles a garden-path sentence in that it continually leads the listener to revise their unconscious predictions of what is likely to follow. Christopher Simpson expresses a similar point in his discussion of the use of suspended dissonances, which compares a succession of suspensions (‘Binding-Musick’) to a sentence which cannot be understood until reaching the final word (‘at a Period, we understand the Sence of that which went before’):

Discords [...] by striking the *Sense* with a disproportionate Sound [...] beget attention to that which follows; to the hearing of which, the *Eare* is carried on, (as it were,) by a necessary Expectation. This *Winding* or *Bringing* a *Discord* off, in *Binding-Musick*, is alwayes best effected, by changing from thence into some *Imperfect Concord*; to which, more sweetness is added by the *Discord* going before. Yet here, the *Eare* is not fully satisfied, untill, at last, these *Discords*, and their *Succeeding Imperfect Conords*, arrive at One more *Perfect*; where, as at a Period, we understand the Sence of that which went before.⁸⁶

Naturally, the sentence analogy can only be pushed so far. The effect of a garden path sentence read on the page is momentary confusion, but in the purely aural and temporal medium of music such continual re-interpretations are more easily accepted by the mind and ear, and may even maintain a subjective sense of continuity. As Simpson implies, in listening to a passage of successive suspensions the musical ear is not fully satisfied until the arrival of a complete

⁸⁶Simpson, *The division-violist*, 16.

cadential progression: such passages cannot be understood as a whole until a final conclusion resolves their ambiguities.

Gibbons's fantasias for six viols contain some of his most artistic uses of such harmonically and syntactically ambiguous cadential 'garden paths', such the remarkable passage shown in Example 4.54. This section, from the first piece of the set (*MB* 48 no. 31), follows the end of the first imitative point and the first full close of the movement. It begins its wandering motion in b. 39, with the arrival of a dissonant second (C–D) between the two tenor parts. Since, according to Morley, a fifth and a sixth may sound together in this manner only at a close, this suggests a close in C, but the 'flat' resolution of the C to B $\flat$ diverts the harmony from this course. For a moment the G minor sonority beginning b. 40 hangs in place, as if this false close had left the harmony unsure of direction, before moving uncertainly to close in B $\flat$ in b. 41. Although it concludes on the sonority which would be expected given the preceding B $\flat$ cadence in the tenor, this close is weakened in two different ways. First, by delaying the bass's motion from G to C until the second half of b. 40, Gibbons avoids making a suspended seventh between the bass and the tenor cadence. Second, by inserting a descent to G between the last two notes of the B $\flat$ cadence figure, he avoids a direct semitone progression from A to B $\flat$ and gives the cadence an archaic air. (The same weakened cadence figure appears in the conclusion of Taverner's four-part *In Nomine*, Example 4.25, and in the opening of Gibbons's sixth six-part fantasia, Example 4.52). The repetition of this whole phrase in bb. 42–45, like the repeated phrases beginning Example 4.53, gives an impression of music trying to rouse itself to some definite purpose, but instead sinking back down into the inconclusive B $\flat$ close. From b. 45 on, the texture thickens, and successive suspensions imply and then evade potential closes on D (b. 45–6), C (b. 46–7), F (b. 48), E $\flat$ (b. 49–50), F again (b. 50), C again (b. 50–51), and B $\flat$ (b. 51–2). To be sure, not all of these progressions involve an equally strong suggestion of a forthcoming close. The strongest implied closes are the C close of b. 47, which is completed

in the lower two voices but made false by the suspended F in the tenor, and the B $\flat$ close of b. 51–2, which is made false by the suspended seventh A in b. 53. The intervening progressions in bb. 48–51 only briefly suggest the potential for making a close before moving on. The F and C suspensions of bb. 48 and 50–51, in particular, lack the stronger ‘sharp’ resolution of the suspension, like the potential C cadences of bb. 39 and 43. Although it would be stretching the point to describe all these progressions simply as false closes, I would nevertheless suggest that the continuously present, unresolved potential for a cadence to be made on any one of these degrees is an important factor in creating this passage’s sense of heightened expectation. Gibbons ends the passage with a series of stronger closes on G, D, and G (bb. 53–58), chained together through the use of false conclusions: a rising bass in b. 55 and dissonances in b. 56. Taken as a whole, the passage displays an overall form based on the manipulation of the strength and density of cadential implications: the weak cadential progressions of bb. 37–45 are succeeded by the more densely overlapped but still ambiguous progressions of bb. 46–52, concluding with the increasingly final closes of b. 53–58.

A more disorienting ‘garden path’ of cadences begins in b. 71 of the same six-part fantasia (*MB* 48 no. 31), in a passage in which every cadential implication goes awry halfway through (Example 4.55). First, the G close in b. 71 is made false by the suspended 6th and 4th in the treble viols. Successive suggestions of cadences on C, B $\flat$, and F follow in bb. 72–74, with the strongest being the false B $\flat$ close of b. 73; the figure in the bass of b. 75 also suggests a B $\flat$ cadence, but no unambiguous conclusion in B $\flat$ eventuates. In bb. 76–79, overlapping C and G closes contend for the harmonic direction of the music, finding an uncertain conclusion on G at the beginning of b. 80. From there until b. 84, falling syncopated lines in the upper voices suggest the preparation of cadences on C (b. 79), D (b. 80 and 82), and G (b. 81 and 83), all made false by the continuation of the upper voice’s descent and (usually) the bass’s simultaneous stepwise ascent. Following the final suggestion of a G cadence in

* indicates voice crossing

The musical score is written for three staves: treble violas, tenor violas, and bass violas. The key signature has one flat (B-flat). The time signature is common time (C). The score is divided into measures 37 through 48. Measure 45 is marked with an asterisk (*). The score includes various musical notations such as notes, rests, beams, and slurs. There are also annotations like 'potential closes' and 'reduction' with arrows pointing to specific measures. Voice crossing is indicated by an 'x' over a measure. The score ends with a double bar line in measure 48.

treble
viols

tenor
viols

bass
viols

potential closes

potential closes

reduction

Example 4.54: A 'long and soft' passage of weakened and ambiguous cadences, from Gibbons, six-part fantasia no. 1 (MB 48, no. 31)

The musical score is written for two staves (treble and bass clef) and consists of 19 measures. The key signature has one flat (B-flat). The score includes various musical notations such as notes, rests, beams, and slurs. There are also some performance markings like 'x' and '↑'. The score is divided into four systems of five measures each, with the final measure of the fourth system being measure 19.

Measures 49-58* are marked at the top of the first system. Measures 53, 54, 55, 56, and 57 are marked at the top of the second system. Measure 58* is marked at the top of the third system.

The score includes various musical notations such as notes, rests, beams, and slurs. There are also some performance markings like 'x' and '↑'.

b. 83, Gibbons seems to have exhausted the possibilities of cadential implication, and the passage dissolves inconclusively into the next imitative point. In this respect, Example 4.55 represents the opposite trajectory from Example 4.54, earlier in the same fantasia: where that passage began with weak cadential progressions and ended with increasingly strong and definite closes, this one begins strong and ends with the cadential implications of its suspensions becoming progressively weaker. The pile-up of conflicting and unresolved cadential expectations that gives the middle of this passage its headlong, slightly dizzying quality is typical of Gibbons's harmonic style in the larger consort fantasias.

* indicates voice crossing

69 70 71 72 73 74* 75

treble viols

tenor viols

bass viols

potential closes

potential closes

reduction

The musical score is written for three staves: treble viols, tenor viols, and bass viols. It shows measures 69 through 75. Measure 74 is marked with an asterisk (*). The score includes various musical notations such as notes, rests, and accidentals. There are two sections labeled 'potential closes' and one section labeled 'reduction'.

Example 4.55: A 'garden path' of cadences, from Gibbons, six-part fantasia no. 1 (*MB* 48, no. 31).

76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83 84

85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92

4.5 Conclusion

Gibbons's music demonstrates an understanding of cadential progressions quite far removed from their traditionally modest role as punctuation for phrase structure and clarity of text expression. In passages like those analysed above, the syntactic expectations set up by cadential progressions are integral to the musical substance. Many of these cadentially-saturated passages also suggest an intention on Gibbons's part to stretch the sense of anticipation and goal-directed motion associated with the 'close' over progressively longer spans of time. This practice is a clear contrast to Carl Dahlhaus's description of cadences in sixteenth-century polyphony, where – according to Dahlhaus – it is generally not possible to predict the cadential degree on which a passage will close:

[...] the modal clausula, in contrast to the tonal cadence, is not the result of a harmonic progression [...] the clausula forms neither the centre around which the sonorities group themselves nor the goal toward which they strive. [...] In modal polyphony, unlike tonal harmony, it is seldom possible to predict on which clausula degree a series of sonorities will end.⁸⁷

Particularly in passages that concentrate on a single cadential goal or a smooth sequential progression, Gibbons's use of cadences seems to anticipate the concerns of later harmonic styles, in which the continual expression of the harmonic region or 'air' through frequent cadences is central to musical content. Roger North described this aspect of later seventeenth- and eighteenth-century harmony in his *Essay of Musickall Ayre* of c. 1715, where he writes that 'our musick stands very much indetted to cadences, which are almost continually introduced'.⁸⁸ However, it would be a mistake to focus only on the elements of Gibbons's cadential procedures which align easily with these later harmonic principles, at the expense of his more harmonically ambiguous passages. Although some of Gibbons's cadential usages can be understood as establishing

⁸⁷Dahlhaus, *Studies on the Origin of Harmonic Tonality*, 243.

⁸⁸Roger North on *Music*, 83.

a well-defined harmonic goal or direction, some of the most characteristic passages, including the ambiguous ‘garden paths’ discussed above, have few close equivalents in later tonal practice. One of the distinct pleasures afforded by this music is its ability to shift between differing degrees and kinds of cadential implication, from the clear and definite to the ambiguous and languorous, and back again.

Chapter 5

Key, ‘air’, and ‘tone’

5.1 Introduction

In the broadest sense, a system of keys or modes attempts to describe pitch structures which are common to entire categories of pieces in a particular musical culture. These common structures, however defined, may influence concrete musical features at many different levels of detail. On the level of individual notes, the choice of key may determine which pitches are available for use in composition. At a slightly larger scale, the key or mode may suggest the contours of melodic subjects, or the structure of the imitative expositions in which they appear. On the scale of entire pieces, the key may influence relationships between the beginning, ending, and other sections of a composition, as expressed by cadences, choice of sonorities, and other means. For music of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, relationships between key and musical substance on all these levels of details are generally taken for granted, and musical analysis provides a highly developed critical language for their discussion. For seventeenth-century music, by contrast, the very definition of key or mode is debatable, and the relationships between key and musical content of compositions even more open to question. Yet the proper treatment of ‘key’ and ‘air’ was clearly a topic of considerable importance for musicians of this period. More than almost any other aspect of seventeenth-century compositional style, therefore, the investigation of key requires supplementing the explicit

statements of historical theory with musical analysis.

This chapter takes seventeenth-century English concepts of key and ‘air’ as the starting point for an empirical investigation of the underlying tonal system of Gibbons’s instrumental compositions. I argue that Gibbons’s tonal system involves the interplay of two separate systems: the background tonal compass of available pitches, which depends mainly on the signature, and the set of cadential degrees, which depends mainly on the final. These two systems interact in unpredictable ways: although in some pieces the set of available pitches limits the available cadences, in other pieces the need for particular cadential degrees, or the use of harmonic procedures such as imitative sequence, demands an expansion of the usual gamut. For this reason, I suggest that the system of transposable ‘tones’ derived by Jessie Ann Owens from Charles Butler’s *Principles of Musik* is too simple and idealised a model to account for the tonal profiles of Gibbons’s fantasies: some pieces assigned to separate ‘tones’ by Owens’s system sound similar, while other pieces assigned to the same ‘tone’ differ substantially.

Finally, I take up the question of what it means for a composition from this period to change its key or ‘air’, and the expressive functions of these departures from the norm. I suggest that English musicians of this time recognised two distinct kinds of harmonic departure: the normal practice, whereby an internal section of a composition closes in a key related to the starting key, and also a more radical expressive departure involving an excursion beyond the normal tonal compass of the chosen tonality. Several of Gibbons’s more ambitious fantasies involve the second kind of harmonic departure, suggesting a desire for expressivity outside the established limits of the genre.

5.2 Key, air and tone in English theory

The three main terms used by English musicians around 1600 in reference to tonal coherence are ‘key’, ‘air’, and ‘tone’. Although no writer gives a straight-

forward definition, almost all the sources stress the importance of 'keeping the key' or 'maintaining the air'. Morley, for instance, writes colourfully about the importance of beginning and ending in the same key, portraying it as a matter of natural order. Criticising a student example which begins in G and ends in F, he writes that

euery key hath a peculiar ayre proper vnto it selfe, so that if you goe into another then that wherein you begun, you change the aire of the song, which is as much as to wrest a thing out of his nature, making the asse leape vpon his maister and the Spaniell beare the load.¹

The concepts of 'key' and 'air' are closely related, to the point where 'changing the key' is almost always linked with 'altering the air', yet they are not identical: rather, the air is a *property* of the key; each key 'has' its own air. The fact that writers used both terms, without collapsing the two concepts into one, suggests the possibility of distinguishing between the two.

Although he states that it is an offence against nature for a composition to end in a different key from its opening, Morley also allows that the air or the key may change in particular, limited ways over its course, provided that it returns finally to its original state. Morley expresses this in an interesting way, writing that some 'airs' or 'keys' can be 'joined' to others, and listing a few possible internal cadences that result from this 'joining'. The cadential degrees themselves are not remarkable: a piece in the key of G or 'Gam ut' may 'conclude' (make a close) either in C or D, provided that it returns to G for the final close; a piece in D may close in A and then return to D. What is more striking is that Morley connects the use of cadences on degrees besides the final to a change in the 'key' or 'air'. For modal theories of cadence, by contrast, each mode permitted internal cadences on several different degrees, without implying a change in the modal classification of the composition as a whole. Morley suggests, however, that some quality of the harmony – either

¹Morley, 147; Morley, ed. Harman, 249.

the 'key' or 'air' – is changed by making a cadence on a different note from the final:

though the ayre of euerie key be different one from the other, yet some loue (by a wonder of nature) to be ioined to others so that if you begin your song in *Gam ut*, you may conclude it either in *C fa ut* or *D sol re*, and from thence come againe to *Gam ut*: likewise if you begin your song in *D sol re*, you may end in *A re* and come againe to *D sol re*, et cetera.²

It is unfortunate that this passage is ambiguous as to whether it is 'some keys' or 'some ayres' which 'love [...] to be ioined to others'. It seems possible that one of these attributes typically remains fixed throughout the composition, while the other changes with each internal close. One possible reading is that the 'key' refers to the overall tonality of a composition, and 'air' to the particular harmonic region emphasised at a given moment: thus the 'key' might be *Gam ut* throughout, while the 'air' moved through the related regions of *C fa ut*, *D sol re*, and finally back to the 'key' of *Gam ut*.

Although Morley never makes a clear distinction between 'key' and 'air', other passages from the *Introduction* also suggest the need to distinguish the overall key of a composition from the key or air of a particular section. Morley indicates, for example, that changing the 'air' or 'key' may occasionally function as an expressive device, but the context of these remarks suggests a very different technique from the routine use of internal cadences on notes other than the final, as described earlier. Morley writes that changing the key in this fashion is an 'absurdity', permitted only to the composer of texted vocal music as an artistic licence for the better expression of the text (the 'Dittie'):

in what key soeuer you compose, [...] aboue all thinges keepe the ayre of your key (be it in the first tune, second tune, or other) except you bee by the wordes forced to beare it, for the Dittie (as you shall know hereafter) will compell the author many times to admit great absurdities in his musicke, altering both time, tune, cullour ayre

²Ibid.

and what soeuer else, which is commendable so hee can cunninglie come into his former ayre againe.³

Morley's reference to a change in 'tune' again hints at a distinction between the key of the moment and the overall key. Elsewhere, Morley likens the 'tune' both to the 'ancient modes' and to the church keys defined by psalm tones. The reference to altering the 'tune' as well as the 'ayre' suggests a more dramatic departure from tonal norms than the standard movement between keys which 'love to be joined'. This impression is strengthened by Morley's strenuous protestation against taking such freedoms in fantasies, which lack the text which would motivate them:

The most principall and chieftest kind of musicke which is made without a dittie is the fantasie [...] And this kind will beare any allowances whatsoever tolerable in other musick, except changing the ayre and leauing the key, which in fantasie may neuer bee suffered.⁴

Leaving the key in this sense cannot merely mean closing an internal section on a note besides the final, which is a commonplace occurrence in all texted and untexted genres. As a 'great absurditie', it must refer to some more disruptive departure from the norm, a kind of extreme expression which Morley felt was appropriate for some kinds of texted vocal music but inappropriate for the more sober instrumental fantasy. The fact that Morley felt it necessary to include this prohibition suggests that other composers were indeed beginning to transfer these expressive 'absurdities' from the domain of the madrigal into instrumental music.

Later writers express the virtue of staying within the key in broadly similar terms. Charles Butler emphasises the maintaining of the 'air' or 'tone' as an 'ornament', suggesting with his usual degree of overstatement that it belongs to the poetic or rhetorical level of music, rather than the simpler level of grammatical competency:

³Morley, 156; Morley, ed. Harman, 261.

⁴Morley, 181; Morley, ed. Harman, 296.

The last and chiefest Ornament is Formaliti : which is the main-
teining of the Air, or Tone of the Song, in his Partes. This is *Orna-
mentum Ornamentorum*: the Ornament of Ornaments . . . without
which, not onely the other Ornaments lose their vertue and ceas
to bee Ornaments; but also both Melodi and Harmoni themselvs,
lose their Grace, and wil bee neither good Melodi nor good Har-
moni: the whole Song beeing nothing els, but a Form-les *Chaos* of
confused sounds.⁵

An alternative metaphor to the 'maintaining' or 'keeping' of the key is that
of remaining 'bounded' within the key. In this sense, a key is thought of as
defining a boundary of some kind beyond which a well-ordered composition
should not go. Campion refers to key in these terms in his discussion of the
'Tones of Music':

there is no tune that can haue any grace or sweetnesse, vnlesse it be
bounded within a proper key, without running into strange keyes
which haue no affinity with the aire of the song.⁶

Campion's reference to 'strange keys' that have 'no affinity with the air of the
song' seemingly implies that other keys do have such an affinity with the song's
'air'. In this respect, it recalls Morley's reference to the keys or airs that 'love
[. . .] to be joined to others'.

Coprario's single reference to air and key in the *Rules how to Compose*, dis-
cussed in the previous chapter, also suggests that the 'air' might be a more fluid
and changeable property than the 'key', and that the 'air' might relate to the
harmonic region of the moment, rather than to an overall tonal classification.
Describing a type of false or deceptive progression in which a 7–6 suspension
is followed by an unexpected fall of a fourth in the bass part (Example 5.1),
Coprario writes that its bass part means 'to change the ayre, and to deferr a
close'.⁷ As noted in the previous chapter, the use of 'defer' in this description
suggests that the change in 'air' is only temporary, and that the listener expects

⁵Butler, *The principles of musik*, 81.

⁶Campion, *A New Way of Making Fowre Parts in Counterpoint*, ed. Wilson, 59.

⁷Coprario, *Rules how to Compose*, ed. Wilson, 97.

a future close to return to the original 'air' or 'key'. In Morley's words, there is an expectation that the composer will 'cunninglie come into his former ayre againe.'



Example 5.1: Progressions which 'change the ayre', from Coprario

Under the topic of 'mode', the propriety, grace and beauty these authors associate with 'keeping the key' and 'maintaining the air' are commonplaces of sixteenth- and seventeenth-century music theory. In English sources, however, neither the term 'mode' nor the various theories of mode detailed by Continental theorists appear with the same frequency and apparent importance as the terms 'key', 'tone' and 'air'. As Rebecca Herissone shows, no English writer attempted to give an account of how mode could have functioned as a compositional principle.⁸ Morley, for instance, places serious importance on 'key' and 'air' for composers, but his references to mode suggest a topic of primarily historical and theoretical interest:

The perfect knowledge of these aires (which the antiquity termed Modi) was in such estimation amongst the learned, as therein they

⁸Herissone, *Music Theory in Seventeenth-Century England*, 175–178.

placed the perfection of musicke, as you may perceiue at large in the fourth booke of Seuerinus Boethius his musick, and Glareanus hath written a learned book which he tooke in hand onely for the explanation of those moodes [...] ⁹

Morley's only substantial discussion of the modes occurs in the Annotations, which may have been added after the completion of the main text, and give only a very incomplete outline of the eight- and twelve-mode systems.¹⁰ By contrast, Morley describes keeping the 'key' and 'air' as a modern improvement to the art of music:

our musicke in times past hath neuer giuen such contentment to the auditor as that of latter time, because the composers of that age making no accoumpt of the ayre nor of keeping their key, followed only that vaine of wresting in much matter in small boundes, so that seeking to shewe cunning in following of points they mist the marke, where at euerie skilful musition doth cheefely shoote, which is to shew cunning with delightfulness and pleasure¹¹

Although Morley acknowledges continuity between the 'ancient modi' and the contemporary idea of 'air', his emphasis on the 'antiquity' of the modes does not suggest a topic of immediate importance to a practising musician. Similarly, although Butler discusses five musical 'Moodes' named 'Dorik, Lydian, Æolik, Phrygian, and Ionik', he defines them not as keys or tonalities but rather as affects or genres: the 'Dorik moode' consists of 'sober slow-timed Not's, generally in Counter-point, set to a Psalm or other pious Canticle'; the 'Phrygian Moode [...] is a manly and corragious kinde of Musik [...] with his stately, or loud and violent tones', and so on.¹² The word 'moode' here would be better translated as 'mood' than 'mode'. It has nothing do to with key: although Butler acknowledges that other writers have claimed a correspondence between keys and moods, he regards this as an outdated view, and asserts that a skillful composer can achieve any desired effect in any tonality:

⁹Morley, 147; Morley, ed. Harman, 249.

¹⁰Owens, 'Concepts of Pitch in English Music Theory', 219.

¹¹Morley, 124; Morley, ed. Harman, 220.

¹²Butler, *The principles of musik*, 1–2.

These 5 Moodes [...] soom Define and Distinguish [...] by the final Key of the Base [...] but Skilful Musicians know how to form any Moode in any Key or Tone indifferently.¹³

Harold Powers's research into mode suggests that even on the Continent 'mode' often functioned less as a practical compositional principle than as a post-hoc classification.¹⁴ If this is true even in sixteenth-century Italy, where modal theory was discussed and theorised with precision, there is even greater reason for scepticism in the application of modal theories to compositional practice in England, where the topic evidently held little interest for many writers on music.

Church tones

One possible alternative to modal theory as an organising principle for early seventeenth-century tonal practice is the system of the eight 'church keys'. Gerald Hendrie made an early attempt to apply this system to Gibbons's music in the course of editing it for *Musica Britannica*. Finding the modal classifications of sixteenth-century vocal theory a poor fit for this repertoire, Hendrie instead classified Gibbons's compositions into one of eight 'tones', basing this theory on a 'Table of Tones' in a manuscript containing music by John Bull.¹⁵ These eight tones, summarised in the first column of Table 5.1, are the same eight 'church keys' described in numerous other seventeenth- and early-eighteenth-century sources. They originate in conventional transpositions of the eight psalm tones for use in alternation with modally-classified music, and were first codified in 1605 by Adriano Banchieri (1567–1634), though earlier Italian keyboard sources from the late sixteenth-century also refer to them (see the second

¹³Ibid.

¹⁴See Harold S. Powers, 'Tonal Types and Modal Categories in Renaissance Polyphony', *Journal of the American Musicological Society* 14 (1981), 428–470; Ibid., 'Is Mode Real? Pietro Aron, the Octenary System, and Polyphony', *Basler Jahrbuch für historische Musikpraxis* 16 (1992), 9–52.

¹⁵Viennese National Library, MS 17771, cited in Gerald Hendrie, 'The Keyboard Music of Orlando Gibbons (1583–1625)', *Journal of the Royal Musical Association* 89 (1962), 11.

and third columns of Table 5.1).¹⁶ Only the seventh tone of Hendrie’s table differs from Banchieri’s description, having a natural signature in the Vienna MS., but a flat signature in Banchieri.

Table 5.1: Morley’s ‘eight tunes’ and the ‘eight tones’ of Hendrie’s Vienna MS. compared to other descriptions of the eight church keys

	Vienna MS.	Anon. (1598)	Banchieri (1614)	Morley (1592)
1	d	d	d	D
2	g ♭	g ♭	g ♭	C ♭
3	a	a	a	A
4	e	e	e	E
5	C	C	C	F
6	F ♭	F ♭	F ♭	F (b)
7	D	d ♭	d ♭	A
8	G	G	G	G

Morley’s description of the ‘eight tunes’ also alludes to the emerging practice of using the psalm tones as a general system of tonal organisation, although his description is only partly consistent with later sources. Morley includes no table of tones, but the finals and signatures of his four-part settings of the ‘eight tunes’ correspond roughly to later tables, the second, fifth and seventh tunes being exceptions (see the fourth column of Table 5.1).¹⁷ Moreover, Morley’s explanation of these ‘tunes’ is scarcely more clear than his explanation of mode. The Master instructs his pupils to ‘keep the air of your key (be it in the first tune, second tune, or other)’, but does not explain how this is to be done, and

¹⁶See Joel Lester, ‘The Recognition of Major and Minor Keys in German Theory’, *Journal of Music Theory* 22 (1978), 71–73. Walter Atcherson, in ‘Key and Mode in Seventeenth-Century Music Books’, *Journal of Music Theory* 17 (1973), 216–222, refers to the same eight keys as ‘pitch-key modes’. Harold S. Powers, ‘From Psalmody to Tonality’, in *Tonal Structures in Early Music*, ed. Judd, 291–301, gives a more recent summary of the subject and its connections to later Baroque systems of tonal organisation. See also Gregory Barnett, ‘Tonal organization in seventeenth-century music theory’, in the *Cambridge History of Western Music Theory*, 419–427; and Ibid., ‘Modal Theory, Church Keys, and the Sonata at the End of the Seventeenth Century’, *Journal of the American Musicological Society* 51 (1998), 249–250, which describes the persistence of these ‘church keys’ or ‘pitch-key modes’ in the late seventeenth-century music of Corelli.

¹⁷Specifically, Morley’s second ‘tune’ ends on C instead of G (the last note of the tenor in Morley’s example, but not of the bass); the fifth ‘tune’ ends on F instead of C; and the seventh ‘tune’ ends on A instead of D. The sixth ‘tune’ differs only superficially from the later Tone 6: it lacks a flat signature, but applies accidental B♭s consistently throughout.

when Philomathes asks if there is a 'general rule' for 'keeping of the key', he responds that there is not:

for it must proceede only of the iudgement of the composer, yet the church men for keeping their keyes haue deuised certaine notes commonlie called the eight tunes, so that according to the tune which is to be obserued, at that time if it beginne in such a key, it may end in such and such others, as you shall immediatly know.

Another annotation further downplays the relevance of the eight tunes, explaining that they are falsely confused with the modes:

It is also to be vnderstood that those examples which I haue in my booke set downe for the eight tunes, bee not the true and essentiall formes of the eight tunes or vsuall moods, but the formes of giuing the tunes to their psalmes in the Churches, which the churchmen (falsly) beleue to be the modi or tunes¹⁸

Hence, although Morley's 'eight tunes' clearly stem from the same tradition as the church keys of later seventeenth-century practice, this does not clearly establish their relevance for English composers around 1600.

The mismatch between the eight-tone system and English practice becomes clear if one attempts to use it to classify Gibbons's music, as Hendrie did. The eight tones listed in the manuscript table cited by Hendrie do not include all the tonal types represented among Gibbons's compositions: in particular, there is no tone with a D final and a flat signature (hereafter referred to as a $\flat$ D tonal type), nor with a G final and a two-flat signature (or $\flat\flat$ G tonal type). Banchieri's church keys include a $\flat$ D tonal type as Tone 7, but later sources including Hendrie's table represent Tone 7 as a major mode with a D final, either with no signature ($\natural$ D) or with one or two sharps ($\sharp$ D or $\sharp\sharp$ D). Hendrie addressed this problem by introducing the notion of a 'transposed Tone', in which the final is moved to a different pitch while all other tonal characteristics remain unchanged:

¹⁸Morley, 183 (Annotation 24).; Morley, ed. Harman, 304.

When difficulties arose, the piece in question seemed almost invariably to be in a transposed Tone, beginning and ending in one key but nevertheless leaning towards another for much of the time. Transpositions of this kind seemed to involve a pitch but not a change of character; the transposed Tone would retain the key-signature of the original or 'authentic' Tone (if it had one) and also its accidentals and modulations. A piece of music in a transposed Tone would nearly always end with a plagal cadence, whereas the authentic form usually has a perfect cadence.¹⁹

Therefore, although the table of church keys suggests a classification based only on external factors of final and signature, Hendrie's actual assignments in *Musica Britannica* also take into account the pitch content of each composition. In particular, Hendrie seems to have treated the most 'remote' flat pitch used in a composition as decisive. For example, the Pavan which appears as no. 16 in *Musica Britannica* is in one of the tonal types with no exact equivalent among the church keys, with a G final and a two-flat signature ($\flat\flat$ G tonal type). This would seem to indicate a 'transposed tone', but Hendrie classifies it simply as 'Tone 2', placing it in the same category as the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' (*MB* no. 9), which has only a one-flat signature ($\flat$ G tonal type). At least superficially, the tonal characteristics of these two pieces are similar enough as to support a common tonal classification. Both use the same set of flat inflections, including B $\flat$ s and E $\flat$ s as a matter of course, and A $\flat$ s more sparingly. They differ, however, in their use of sharp inflections: the fantasia includes C $\sharp$ s, G $\sharp$ s and a D $\sharp$, while the pavan does not even use a C $\sharp$. Although there is historical justification for placing more weight on flat inflections than on sharp inflections, as discussed below, these discrepancies point out how subtle the connections between tonal types and musical content can be.

Hendrie's classifications of the fantasias with D finals are more puzzling. The opening and closing bars of each are shown here in Example 5.2, and their tonal types and classifications are compared in Table 5.2. Hendrie classifies only one of these four pieces in a 'transposed tone': no. 8, whose $\flat$ D tonal

¹⁹Hendrie, 'Keyboard Music of Orlando Gibbons', 13.

type, missing from the table of church keys, is described by Hendrie as 'Tone 2 transposed'. Two shorter fantasias with the same $\flat D$ tonal type, however, are described simply as 'Tone 1' (nos. 5 and 6), placing them in the same tonal category as no. 7, which has a natural signature ($\natural D$ tonal type). Once again, these classifications seem to be based on the presence or absence of flat inflections: the $\flat D$ piece classified as 'Tone 2 transposed' includes a single $E\flat$, in bb. 19–20, while the two $\flat D$ pieces classified as 'Tone 1' have no $E\flat$ s. Although consistent, this seems a tenuous basis on which to group nos. 5 and 6 together with no. 7. As Hendrie noted, no. 7 sounds very different; it 'has no key-signature [and] there are more B naturals than B flats'.²⁰ Gibbons's use of sharp inflections also differs significantly between no. 7, on the one hand, and nos. 5 and 6, on the other: no. 7 includes $D\sharp$ s and full closes on E, but nos. 5, 6, and 8 lack not only $D\sharp$ s but also $G\sharp$ s, and therefore omit cadences on both A and E. Furthermore, $E\flat$ s are common in true 'Tone 2' pieces with a $\flat G$ tonal type, but no. 8 includes only a single $E\flat$, and not in a particularly marked or structurally significant place. Finally, Hendrie's characterisation of transposed and authentic tones by the use of a plagal or authentic final cadence also is questionable in regard to the three D-final fantasias, as the conclusions in Example 5.2 show. Of the four pieces, only no. 6 (in an 'authentic' tone) ends with a plagal cadence or 'grave close', while no. 8 (in a 'transposed' tone) ends with an authentic cadence or 'full close'. Taken together, these discrepancies suggest that a simpler classification by tonal type would represent the characters of these pieces more accurately, by grouping together the three pieces with a $\flat D$ tonal type in one category, separately from the single $\natural D$ piece.

Tonal types and tonalities

More recently, Jessie Ann Owens has made a different attempt to systematise the study of English tonalities, grounded in two properties already mentioned:

²⁰Ibid., 15.

MB no. 5

MB no. 6

Example 5.2: Opening and closing bars of Gibbons's keyboard fantasias with D finals (MB no. 5, 6, 7 and 8)

MB no. 8

The musical score for MB no. 8 is written on a grand staff with a treble and bass clef. The key signature has one flat (B-flat). The score is divided into measures 2, 3, and 4. Measure 2 contains a half note B-flat in the treble and a half note B-flat in the bass. Measure 3 contains a half note A in the treble and a half note A in the bass. Measure 4 contains a half note G in the treble and a half note G in the bass. The notes are connected by a slur, indicating a melodic line.

5 6

62 63

6

62 63

The musical score for 'The Rose Tree' is presented in two systems. The first system contains measures 5 and 6, and the second system contains measures 62 and 63. The music is written for a piano, with a treble and bass staff joined by a brace. The key signature has one flat (B-flat), and the time signature is 3/4. The melody is primarily in the treble staff, while the bass staff provides harmonic support with chords and single notes. Measure 5 features a treble staff with a quarter note G4, an eighth note A4, and a quarter note Bb4, followed by a bass staff with a half note G3 and a quarter note Bb3. Measure 6 continues the melody in the treble staff with a quarter note C5, an eighth note Bb4, and a quarter note A4, while the bass staff has a half note F3 and a quarter note Bb3. Measure 62 shows the melody in the treble staff with a quarter note G4, an eighth note A4, and a quarter note Bb4, and the bass staff with a half note G3 and a quarter note Bb3. Measure 63 concludes the piece with a treble staff containing a quarter note C5, an eighth note Bb4, and a quarter note A4, and a bass staff with a half note F3 and a quarter note Bb3. The score ends with a double bar line and repeat dots.

MB no. 7

2 3 4

The musical score for MB no. 7 is written on two staves, treble and bass. The treble staff begins with a treble clef and a key signature of one flat (B-flat). The melody consists of a series of eighth and sixteenth notes, with some measures containing rests. The bass staff begins with a bass clef and a key signature of one flat (B-flat). The bass line features a mix of eighth, sixteenth, and quarter notes, with some measures containing rests. The score is divided into measures by vertical bar lines, with measure numbers 2, 3, and 4 indicated above the treble staff. The notation includes various musical symbols such as note heads, stems, beams, and rests.

5 6

79 80

Table 5.2: Pieces with D and G finals requiring special classification in Gerald Hendrie’s *Musica Britannica* edition of Gibbons’s keyboard music. (No. 9 included for comparison).

No.	Title	Final	Signature	Classification
5	Fantasia	D	$\flat$	Tone 1
6	Fantasia	D	$\flat$	Tone 1
7	Fantasia	D		Tone 1
8	Fantasia	D	$\flat$	Tone 2 transposed
9	Fantasia	G	$\flat$	Tone 2
16	Pavan	G	$\flat\flat$	Tone 2

the signature and the final. Citing in particular Charles Butler’s description of the ‘tones’, Owens argues that musicians of this period recognised the combination of these two semi-independent factors as defining the key or tonality.²¹ In this scheme, Gibbons’s fantasias with a D final and a flat signature (*MB* nos. 5, 6, and 8) would be considered to be in a different tonality from the fantasia with a D final and no signature (*MB* no. 7). The fantasia and pavan with G finals (*MB* nos. 9 and 16) would also be considered to be in different ‘tonalities’, since one has a $\flat$ *G* tonal type and the other a $\flat\flat$ *G* tonal type.

Owens connects the signature of a composition with the background diatonic ‘scale’ which supplies its basic collection of pitches. She argues that English musicians of this period generally recognised three different ‘scales’, corresponding to signatures of zero, one, or two flats. ‘Scale’, in this sense, refers strictly to a diatonic pitch collection, which can be used for pieces with a variety of different finals: it differs substantially from the modern sense of the word as used in the ‘G major scale’, which specifies both a pitch collection and a tonal centre. Other writers refer to ‘scale’ in this sense as ‘system’, and the two terms will be used interchangeably here.

English practice eliminated most of the complexities of hexachordal mutation by assigning a fixed pattern of either four or seven syllables to each octave of the background diatonic scale, both ascending and descending. Several writers described a four-syllable solmization system from which *ut* and *re*

²¹Owens, ‘Concepts of Pitch in English Music Theory’, 225–232.

are eliminated, and in which each octave of the natural scale beginning on C is solmized with the pattern of syllables *fa sol la fa sol la mi*. Owens largely adopts Charles Butler’s seven-syllable scheme, in which there are seven distinct syllables – in spelling if not in sound – with each octave of the scale receiving the syllables *ut re mi fa sol la pha*.

Both the four-syllable and the seven-syllable solmization systems arise from a re-interpretation of older hexachordal theory, as shown in Example 5.3. Each one consists of successive segments taken from two different hexachords: for the natural scale, for example, these are the hard (G) hexachord and the natural (C) hexachord. Rather than using true hexachordal mutation, one simply reads up the syllables of one hexachord until they run out, then switches to the other one. The four-syllable pattern arises by beginning on C *fa* in the hard hexachord, continuing with D *sol* and E *la*, then switching to the natural hexachord for F *fa*, G *sol* and A *la*, and finally switching back to the hard hexachord for B *mi*. This pattern of syllables can then be repeated for each further octave of the scale. Butler’s seven-syllable pattern arises from the same procedure, but begins on G *ut* in the hard hexachord: it therefore consists simply of the six notes of the hard hexachord (G *ut* through E *la*), switching to the natural hexachord only for the one remaining note, F *fa*. In order to assign a different syllable to each of the seven notes, Butler replaced *fa* with *pha*, making it orthographically if not audibly distinct. This purely visual distinction between the two syllables indicates something of the theoretical and speculative nature of Butler’s project. In Butler’s system, *ut* falls on G in the natural (no-flat) scale, on C in the one-flat scale, and on F in the two-flat scale, as illustrated in Example 5.4. To emphasise that the ‘scale’ is simply a set of pitches and syllables, without a defined centre or end point, I have presented each scale beginning on the same pitch, rather than transposing it. These three scales are often described using names taken from hexachordal theory: *duralis*, *naturalis* and *mollaris*; I will refer to them below simply to the ‘natural’, ‘(one-)flat’, and ‘two-flat’ scales or systems.

Hard hexachord

Natural hexachord

Hard hexachord

Four-syllable scale (Bathe)

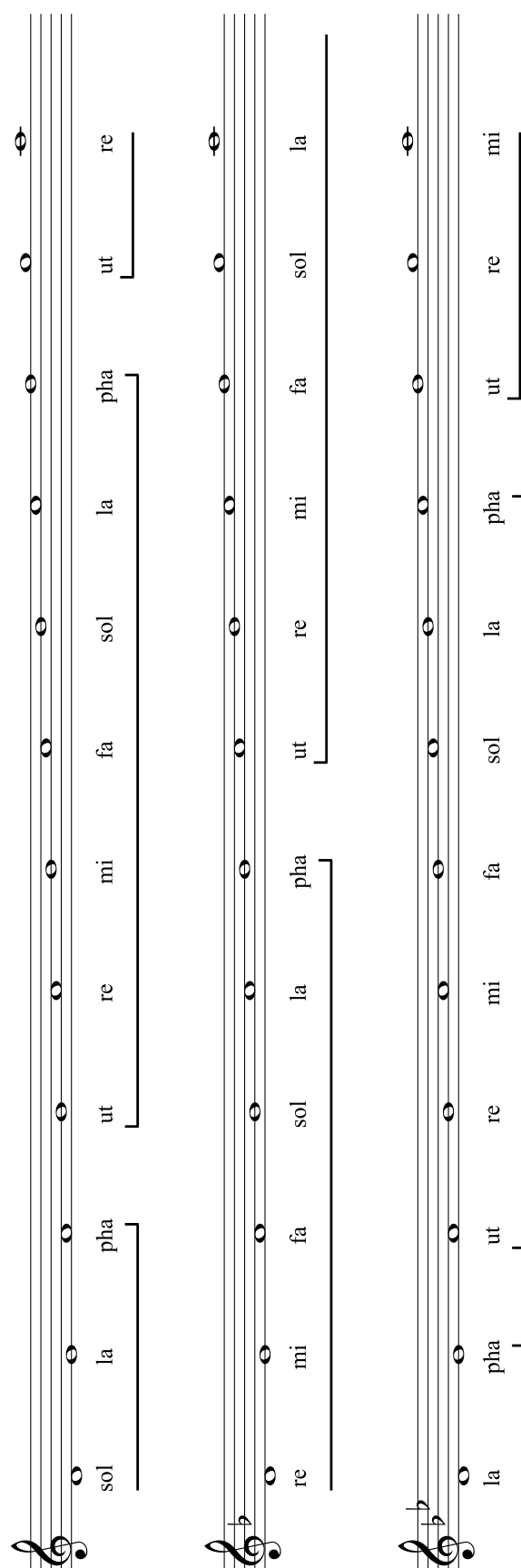
Hard hexachord

Natural hexachord

Hard hexachord

Seven-syllable scale (Butler)

Example 5.3: The origin of the four- and seven-syllable solmization systems in the hexachordal system.



Example 5.4: Natural, one-flat and two-flat scales in Butler's seven-syllable solmization system.

The choice of the natural, one-flat or two-flat scale provides the background system within which the final of the composition functions. According to Butler, the final may fall on any step of the scale except *mi*, although *la* and *pha* are also rare.²² There are therefore four common finals for each scale, corresponding to the syllables *ut*, *re*, *fa* and *sol*. Compositions in the natural scale, according to Butler, never conclude on B *mi* and seldom on E *la* or F *pha*, but commonly on G *ut*, A *re*, C *fa*, and D *sol*. In the one-flat scale, the common finals are C *ut*, D *re*, F *fa*, and G *sol*; in the two-flat scale, they are F *ut*, G *re*, B♭ *fa*, and C *sol*.

Butler also claims that the syllable of the final defines the essential features of the key or 'tone', and asserts that compositions which end on the same syllable – hence, on the same relative position within the diatonic scale – have similar sounds:

If *Re* be the tone or Aire-note; whether it stand in *A re* ... or in *D sol re* ... or in *Gamut* ... there is no difference at all, either in the Song, or in any Part of the Song, or in any Note of a Part.²³

Owens refers to the syllable of the final as the *tone*, a usage I will also follow, and writes that pieces in the same 'tone' should sound similar:

Butler's concept of tone or air permits the observation that three keys can share the same characteristic sound. G in the *ut* tone (*duralis*) shares characteristic sounds with C in the *ut* tone (*naturalis*) and F in the *ut* tone (*mollaris*); they are in effect transpositions at three different pitch levels.²⁴

Owens refers to the combination of signature, final, and syllable as a *tonality*, and refers to tonalities by listing all three factors together, for example: ♯ G *ut*, ♭ D *re*, ♭♭ B♭ *fa*. Strictly speaking this symbolism is redundant, since any two of these factors determine the third; however, listing them together makes

²²Ibid., 225.

²³Butler, *The principles of musik*, 86, quoted in Owens, 'Concepts of Pitch in English Music Theory', 225.

²⁴Owens, 'Concepts of Pitch in English Music Theory',

it easier to compare which features are common to different tonalities. The diagram in Example 5.5 illustrates the pitch structure of the 'tones'.

Example 5.5: Butler's twelve 'common' and six 'rare' tonalities, as interpreted by Owens.

5.3 Gibbons's tonalities

Tabulating the tonal types or tonalities of Gibbons's instrumental music reveals interesting patterns, particularly when compared to the practice of other composers. Table 5.3 summarises the tonalities of Gibbons's music for consort and keyboard. The distribution of tonal types is in line with Butler's claim that the final generally falls on one of the four syllables *ut*, *re*, *fa* or *sol*, but not on *mi*, *la*, or *pha*. The one exception, an incomplete five-part consort pavan in $\natural$ *E la*, is of doubtful authenticity. Although the use of a tonal type not otherwise represented in Gibbons's output is not strong evidence against his authorship, in combination with other factors it is suggestive, and this piece has been excluded from the survey that follows.

Table 5.3: Distribution of Gibbons’s instrumental compositions by signature and tone

Sig.	Total pieces	ut	re	mi	fa	sol	la	pha
#	2				2			
	54	7	15		10	22		
b	23	1	8		2	12		
bb	1		1					

Gibbons uses a narrower range of tonalities in his instrumental music than Byrd does in the *Cantiones sacrae*, as Owens describes it:

Byrd, in the three volumes of *Cantiones sacrae* from 1571, 1589, and 1591, composes in eleven of the twelve tonalities that Butler described as “frequent”; he did not use bb *C sol*, but did [use] the “more rare” b *A la*. The distribution is striking. The *re* tone represents nearly half of the pieces. Is this distribution characteristic of Byrd? Is it related to the date of composition, or possibly the genre?²⁵

Like Morley, and unlike Byrd, Gibbons generally uses only the natural and one-flat systems, with a small number of significant exceptions discussed below. In addition, the ‘tones’ favoured by the two composers differ. Where Byrd’s *Cantiones* are mostly in the *re* tone, the greatest number of Gibbons’s instrumental pieces are in the *sol* tone: 34 pieces, compared to 23 pieces in *re*. Within each signature or system, the distribution of Gibbons’s pieces among the four tones is also similar, with the largest number of pieces in *sol*, followed by *re*, *fa*, and lastly by *ut*. These similar distributions of tones within each system provide some support for Owens’s claim that different transpositions of the same ‘tone’ should be considered equivalent.

On the one hand, the restriction of finals to notes on the syllables *re*, *sol*, *ut* and *fa* is not surprising. A scale with the final on *mi* (B in the natural scale, E in the flat scale) corresponds to the defective modes rejected by twelve-mode theory because they lacked a perfect fifth above the final. A scale with a final on *pha* (F in the natural scale, Bb in the flat scale) has a problematic augmented

²⁵Ibid., 232.

fourth above the final, and a scale with a final on *la* (E in the natural scale, A in the one-flat scale) corresponds to the 'Phrygian' mode, which is typically rare due to its minor second above the final and the corresponding tendency to form weak *mi*-closes on the final. On the other hand, other repertoires do include pieces in these seemingly problematic tonal types: for instance, Owens notes Byrd's use of a $\flat$ *A la* tonal type.²⁶ To take an example from a more distant period, Orlando di Lasso's motets, according to David Crook, include pieces with finals on each of the six hexachordal degrees in both the natural and one-flat systems, including tonal types which Butler would have considered unusual or impermissible, such as $\natural$ *E la* (60 pieces), $\natural$ *F pha* (3 pieces), $\flat$ *A la* (12 pieces), and $\flat$ *B $\flat$ pha* (1 piece).²⁷

Two Gibbons pieces appear in the sources with a sharp signature, both small-scale keyboard almans (*MB* 20 nos. 36–37). Sharp signatures are unexplained by Butler's system of tones, which describe only the more established use of flat signatures. Since sharp inflections were not apparently considered to change the effective scale in the same way as flats, these two pieces could well be placed in the same category as the $\natural$ *G ut* pieces, although they also seem to use more sharps and fewer flats than the other $\natural$ *G ut* pieces. An hypothetical classification which extends Butler's theory to account for sharp as well as flat signatures might tentatively describe them as $\sharp$ *G fa*, but there is scant theoretical support for this in early seventeenth-century theory.

Much more significant are Gibbons's three compositions with a two-flat signature, which have more in common than their tonal type. These three exceptional pieces, all in $\flat\flat$ *G re*, include a keyboard pavan (*MB* 20, no. 16) and two madrigals, 'Nay, let mee weepe' and 'Nere let the Sunne', which together form the first two parts of a three-part setting completed by 'Yet if that age'. David Pinto has shown that there is a thematic relationship between the pavan

²⁶Ibid.

²⁷David Crook, 'Tonal Compass in the Motets of Orlando di Lasso', in *Hearing the Motet: Essays on the Motet of the Middle Ages and Renaissance*, ed. Dolores Pesce (Oxford University Press, 1997), 288–290.

and the madrigals, for the third strain of the pavan contains an intabulation of the second part of the madrigal, 'Nere let the Sunne'. Since the text of the three madrigals was most likely written as an elegy for the recently deceased Prince Henry, Pinto suggests that this borrowing gives the pavan the character of a memorial or *tombeau*: 'less perhaps for public consumption than a private demonstration of loss'.²⁸ In this context, it seems possible that Gibbons's use of an exceptional and remote double-flat signature has some allegorical or symbolic significance. If this is the case, it is even more curious that the third and final part of the madrigal, 'Yet if that age', is notated in a different tonal type, with a signature of only one flat. A strictly external concept of tonality would place it in $\flat$ *G sol*, although its frequent use of accidental Ebs might serve to class it in the same $\flat\flat$ *G re* tonality as the first two parts. No obvious symbolic content in the text motivates the change to a different tonality.

Gibbons's compositions with D finals reveal curious relationships between tonal type and genre or medium. The keyboard pieces with D finals are divided between natural and flat signatures, with eleven pieces in $\natural$ *D sol* and five in $\flat$ *D re*. By contrast, among the consort and vocal pieces there is almost no comparable flexibility, but instead a rigid correspondence between tonal type and medium. All the madrigals with D finals are in the $\flat$ *D re* tonal type, as are both the consort *In Nomines* with D finals (MB 48 nos. 26–27). All but one of the consort fantasias with a D final, however, have natural signatures, placing them in the $\natural$ *D sol* tonal type, the only exception being one of the six fantasias for two trebles (MB 48 no. 6, in $\flat$ *D re*). The $\natural$ *D sol* tonality therefore represents the largest single group among Gibbons's consort fantasias, comprising six of the nine published three-part fantasias, two of the six six-part fantasias, and two of the four-part fantasias with double bass. The difference between the tonal types used for fantasias and *In Nomines* with a D final might possibly be explained by the traditions of the *In Nomine* genre, which almost

²⁸David Pinto, 'Gibbons in the Bedchamber', in *John Jenkins and His Time*, ed. Andrew Ashbee and Peter Holman (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1996), 91.

always has a flat signature whether the final is on D or G. However, it is not clear why Gibbons should have preferred the natural scale for fantasias and the one-flat scale for madrigals with D finals, nor why there should be variation in the tonal types of the keyboard works but not in the others.

5.4 Tonal compass

Are Butler’s tones and tonalities ‘real’ in the sense that major and minor keys are real for musicians brought up within the system of common-practice tonality? It seems relevant to this question that Butler, although educated as a chorister in his youth, was not a composer or professional musician; his other written works include a treatise on beekeeping and a proposal for the reform of English spelling.²⁹ A sceptical reader might liken Butler’s neat and symmetric arrangement of tonalities to his proposed reformed spelling, in which *The Principles of Musik* is printed, and in which all digraphs such as ‘th’, ‘ch’, ‘wh’ and others are replaced by new letters modelled on the ancient letter eth (Ð) and constructed by adding slashes to the other consonants. Butler’s system of tones might be seen as an equally systematic and logical reform, and equally disconnected from the daily practice of writers or musicians. Owens’s approach, however, treats written theoretical evidence as primary in importance, and describes the practice of drawing theoretical conclusions from the empirical evidence of actual composed music as an ‘inherently circular’ enterprise:

[...] the lack of any theoretical underpinning for the “neo-modal” terminology means that scholars inevitably rely on the inherently circular reasoning of using the music to define the properties of the various modes [...] and then work from their understanding of these modes backward to assign the music to modal categories.³⁰

²⁹James W. Pruet and Rebecca Herissone, ‘Butler, Charles’, in *Grove Music Online*, *Oxford Music Online* (accessed 15 April 2015).

³⁰Owens, ‘Concepts of Pitch in English Music Theory’, 232.

Without empirical corroboration from the actual practice of composers, however, there is little reason to give Butler's organisation of tones any more weight as a normative principle than his eccentric English spelling.

In their simplest form, Butler's tonalities are a purely 'external' theory, in the sense defined by Frans Wiering. The tonality of a composition is fully determined by two factors alone – final and signature – both of which can be easily determined from its notated form without considering the internal content.³¹ Owens's claim that different keys with the same syllable share a 'characteristic sound', however, takes the system of tones into the realm of an internal theory, which pertains to details of musical content as well as outward classification. According to this interpretation, the four common 'tones' of *ut*, *re*, *fa*, and *sol* are to be considered types of key, analogous to major and minor scales in harmonic tonality. Where common-practice tonality has only two kinds of key, Butler's system has four: two with minor third degrees (*re* and *sol*) and two with major third degrees (*ut* and *fa*). The minor-third types differ in their sixth scale degree, which is major in the *sol* tone and minor in *re*; the major-third types differ in the seventh scale degree, which is major in *fa* and minor in *ut*. If Owens's claim holds, pieces in each 'tone' or key type should sound more similar to each other than they do to other pieces which share a final but have a different signature and tone type: for instance, compositions in *A re*, *b D re* and *bb G re* should be more similar to each other than they are to *b D sol* or *b G sol* compositions.

A simple way to investigate the relationship between tonality and pitch structure is simply to tabulate the set of pitch positions used within an entire composition, or a class of compositions sharing a tonal type. This 'tonal

³¹The distinction between 'internal' and 'external' views of the modes is described in Frans Wiering, *The Language of the Modes: Studies in the History of Polyphonic Modality* (Routledge, 2015), 69–71. In reality, as with Hendrie's eight-tone classification, internal content must also sometimes be taken into account: for instance, Owens writes that an example which Morley notates in a two-flat signature should be treated as an example of the three-flat scale due to the consistent use of Abs. See Owens, 'Concepts of Pitch in English Music Theory', 227–9.

compass', as defined by David Crook, is a less crude property than it seems: in particular, the connection between accidentally-altered pitches and cadences means that it provides a simple approximation to the harmonic destinations which can be reached within a composition.³² A full close on any pitch requires the use of the note a semitone below it, while a *mi* close requires the use of a note a semitone above: a full close on G requires an F $\sharp$, a *mi*-close on D requires an E $\flat$, and so on. Therefore, the tonal compass of a composition serves as a rough proxy for its 'harmonic compass': the harmonic regions in which it may temporarily conclude.

Hendrie observed that each tonal type in Gibbons's keyboard music is associated with a fixed set of accidental pitches, which are used with remarkably consistency across all compositions in the same tonal type, and which 'shift' one degree with each additional flat in the signature. In the following description, I have annotated Hendrie's 'Tone 1' and 'Tone 2' with their direct equivalents among Owens's tones:

In Tone 1 (i.e. $\natural$ *D sol*), the accidentals B $\flat$, F $\sharp$, C $\sharp$, G $\sharp$, appeared in almost every piece ... but there were only two E $\flat$ s ... in Tone 2 (i.e. $\flat$ *G sol*) E $\flat$ s appeared in almost every piece, but ... out of forty works only two contained G $\sharp$ s and there were scarcely any A $\flat$ s. In other words, Tone 2 ($\flat$ *G sol*) is one degree 'flatter' than Tone 1 ($\natural$ *D sol*) and whereas the next flat accidental, E $\flat$, appears frequently, the last sharp to appear in Tone 1 (G $\sharp$) is carefully avoided. This in itself is not startling, but what is surely surprising is the thoroughness with which this 'system' is observed, and the deliberate way in which the accidentals foreign to the particular Tone are avoided.³³

David Crook points out a very similar regularity in the pitch content of Orlando di Lasso's sacred vocal music. Crook refers to this quality of a composition as its 'tonal compass', defining it as 'the collection of all pitch positions used in a given composition or repertory'. 'Pitch positions' in this definition are similar

³²Crook, 'Tonal Compass in the Motets of Orlando di Lasso', 286–306.

³³Hendrie, 'The Keyboard Music of Orlando Gibbons', 13.

to pitch classes, with the exception that they do not recognise enharmonic equivalence:

Whether or not they end up in practice possessing the same pitch frequency, D $\sharp$ and E $\flat$, for example, remain distinct and separate pitch positions [...] the distinction between two such pitch positions turns not so much on differences in frequency due to tuning conventions as on the differences in function that the letter names themselves apply.³⁴

Crook goes further than Hendrie by observing that the tonal compass depends principally on the signature or system, and not on the final. Among Lasso's motets, those with no flat signature use (in addition to the natural scale) the pitch positions B $\flat$, F $\sharp$, C $\sharp$, and G $\sharp$, as Hendrie observed of Gibbons's 'Tone 1' pieces; those with a flat signature use E $\flat$, B $\flat$, F $\sharp$, and C $\sharp$, as Hendrie observed of Gibbons's 'Tone 2' pieces.³⁵ As Crook notes, two striking features of these tonal compasses are the absence of chromatic pairs such as A $\sharp$ /B $\flat$ or D $\sharp$ /E $\flat$, and the use of only eleven pitch positions, in contrast to the twelve pitch-classes of the modern chromatic scale.³⁶ One step between the notes of the diatonic background scale is therefore unrepresented: the compass of the natural system includes neither D $\sharp$ nor E $\flat$, and the compass of the flat system includes neither G $\sharp$ nor A $\flat$. In instrumental music, the absence of these pitch positions could be related to the practical limits of keyboard temperament. It is striking, however, that the same principle evidently governs the tonal compass of vocal music, to which no similar restriction applies.

In Crook's analysis of Lasso, the choice of final places further restrictions on the tonal compass determined by the system or signature. Specifically, Lasso's motets avoid chromatic inflections of both the final and the fifth above it. Depending on the position of the final within the diatonic system, this may have a smaller or greater effect, as Crook explains:

³⁴Crook, 'Tonal Compass in the Motets of Orlando di Lasso', 292.

³⁵Ibid., 293–294.

³⁶Ibid., 294–295.

[...] a D final cannot limit inflections since D $\flat$, D $\sharp$, A $\flat$, and A $\sharp$ already lie outside Lasso’s normative *cantus durus* and *cantus mollis* systems. Selection of an E final restricts inflections of E and B. Since E $\flat$, E $\sharp$, and B $\sharp$ already lie outside Lasso’s *cantus durus* system, the only effect is to limit occurrences of B $\flat$ [...] A G final limits no inflected pitch positions in *cantus mollis* (since G $\flat$, G $\sharp$, D $\flat$, and D $\sharp$ all lie outside that system’s normative compass) and one inflected position (G $\sharp$) in the *cantus durus* tonalities $\flat$ -G-low and $\flat$ -G-high. Finals on C (in *cantus durus*) and F (in both systems) exert the greatest limiting power since a C final limits both C $\sharp$ and G $\sharp$ in *cantus durus* and an F final limits F $\sharp$ and C $\sharp$ in both systems. [...] These limitations imposed by finals have much to do with the distinctive characteristics that distinguish one tonality from another. Tonalities with finals on A and D in *cantus durus* and D and G in *cantus mollis* are rich in inflections and often rich in cross-relations. Tonalities with finals on C and F in *cantus durus* and B $\flat$ and F in *cantus mollis* have relatively few inflections and sound predominantly diatonic. E and G tonalities in *cantus durus* and A and C tonalities in *cantus mollis* form a middle ground between the diatonic and chromatic poles of the continuum.³⁷

The normative tonal compasses outlined by this description are shown symbolically in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Normative tonal compasses in Lasso’s motets, after David Crook.

Final	Sig.	E $\flat$	B $\flat$	B	F $\sharp$	C $\sharp$	G $\sharp$	D $\sharp$
C	$\flat$		+	+	+			
D	$\flat$		+	+	+	+	+	
E	$\flat$				+	+	+	
F	$\flat$		+	+			+	
G	$\flat$		+	+	+	+		
A	$\flat$		+	+	+	+	+	
F	$\flat$	+	+	+				
G	$\flat$	+	+	+	+	+		
A	$\flat$		+	+	+	+		
B $\flat$	$\flat$	+	+			+		
C	$\flat$	+	+	+	+			
D	$\flat$	+	+	+	+	+		

Nearer in time and place to Gibbons, the notion of a normative tonal compass gains additional historical support, and a connection to Owens’s tonalities,

³⁷Ibid., 296–298.

from Butler's discussion of cadences and 'inordinate' pitches. Like many other authors of this period, Butler regards certain cadences as 'proper' and others as 'improper' in a given key: in particular, cadences on the final, third, fourth and fifth are 'proper' while cadences on the second, sixth and seventh are 'improper'. Unlike most other authors, however, Butler acknowledges the existence of a second, independent system of tonal regulation, which is partially in conflict with these theoretical prescriptions. According to this second, unnamed system, certain notes which would be required to make an otherwise proper cadence are unavailable in certain keys: they lie outside the tonal compass.

[B]ecause, in true Cadences, the Binding half-note must ever bee sharp, therefore in the first and third Tone (*Ut* and *Fa*) the Third is excluded: and in the second and fift Tone (*Re* and *La*) the Fift is excluded: becaus their Binding half-notes are neither sharp, nor apt to bee sharped. But the Fowrth (whose Binding half-note, in all Airs either is or may bee sharped) is never excluded: nver theles it is chiefly used in those Ayrs, where either the Third or Fift is wanting: for where they ar, they ar preferred.³⁸

Butler indicates that the leading tones of some cadences are available neither in the background diatonic scale, nor in the expanded tonal compass which includes flat and sharp inflections. Concretely, the $\natural$ *C ut* and $\natural$ *A re* tonalities lack the $D\sharp$ required to close on E, while $\natural$ *G ut* and $\natural$ *E la* lack the $A\sharp$ needed to close on B. In keys with a flat signature, the absence of $G\sharp$ from the tonal compass of $\flat$ *D re* and $\flat$ *F fa* prevents cadences on A, and the lack of a $D\sharp$ in $\flat$ *A la* and $\flat$ *C ut* prevents cadences on E. These are the same sharp inflections excluded from the normative sixteenth-century tonal compasses observed by Crook, and they are implicitly properties of the background system, not of the specific tone or tonality.

Butler's definition of the '*La* cadence' reiterates this distinction between 'apt' and 'unapt' pitches, and describes pitches such as $D\sharp$ which lie outside the normal tonal compass as 'inordinate':

³⁸Butler, *The principles of musik*, 81.

Soom, to make [the *La* cadence] like other cadences, take upon them to sharp *Sol*: but this is unnatural, and unapt to bee sung; howsoueuer, by the help of the inordinat half tones, it may bee played.³⁹

Butler's most striking claim is that pieces in the *re* tone cannot make a full close on the fifth degree, normally one of the most important cadential points after the final. According to this hypothesis, pieces in $\natural A$ *re* cannot close in E and pieces in $\flat D$ *re* cannot close in A. Although this sweeping generalisation is only partially supported by the evidence of compositional practice, it implies that the regular tonal compasses observed by Hendrie and Crook were also recognised as a real phenomenon by seventeenth-century musicians.

Gibbons's tonal compasses

The tonal compasses of Gibbons's instrumental compositions resemble Lasso's sixteenth-century practice in some ways while departing from it in others. Table 5.5 tabulates by tonal type the pitch positions used in Gibbons's instrumental works for keyboard and consort. Each row represents a tonal type and each column a pitch position: thus, each cell tabulates the number of pieces in the given tonal type which make use of that pitch position at least once. This is a crude measure, since it makes no distinction between pitch positions used only once in a particular piece and those which are used consistently throughout. A more accurate picture could be gained by tabulating the individual occurrences of each pitch position. Nevertheless, several initial conclusions can be drawn from this table. First, the overall tonal compass of Gibbons's compositions is bounded on one side by $A\flat$, the remotest 'flat' position, and on the other side by $D\sharp$, the remotest 'sharp' position: there are no $D\flat$ s or $A\sharp$ s. (An $A\sharp$ is used in the three-part fantasia with double bass which appears as no. 21 in *MB* 48, but this piece is most likely a Coprario composition). Secondly, the tonal compass depends on the signature, and shifts one step towards the flat side

³⁹Ibid., 87.

with each additional flat: Eb's are common in pieces with a flat signature but rare in pieces with a natural signature, while Ab's appear rarely in pieces with a flat signature and are excluded entirely from pieces with a no-flat signature or a sharp signature. Sharp signatures have an ambiguous status within this system, but this pattern also extends to the pieces with a one-sharp signature, which do not even use B's. On the other side of the tonal compass, G#s appear commonly in pieces with a no-flat signature, but only rarely in pieces with a flat signature, while D#s are rare in pieces with a natural signature and almost nonexistent in pieces with a flat signature. Finally, each tonal type shown in Table 5.5 has a 'core' tonal compass whose pitch positions appear in all or nearly all compositions in that tonality.

Ut and fa tones

Compared to the regularity which Crook observes in Lasso's motets, Gibbons's pieces in the *ut* and *fa* tones show only a weak relationship between tonal compass and final. Table 5.6 gives the tonal compasses of each of these compositions. According to Crook, Lasso's motets seldom include any flat or sharp inflection of the final or the fifth degree of the scale: pieces with C finals avoid C#s and G#s, pieces with F finals avoid F#s and C#s, and pieces with G finals avoid G#s – in addition to D#, which falls outside the normative tonal compass in any case. Although a few Gibbons compositions seem to respect this principle, there is little consistency. Among the nine pieces with G finals, only one Alman (*MB* no. 36) and the variations on 'Whoop, do me no harm' omit G#s or D#s altogether from their tonal compass. Among the ten C-final pieces, three – the variations on 'The Queen's Command', the 'Lincoln's Inn Mask', and the 'Temple Mask' – have no C#s or G#s; 'The Italian Ground' uses G#s but not C#s; and the Galliard from *Parthenia* (*MB* no. 25) uses C#s, but not G#s. Almost all of these pieces, however, are either shorter works or harmonically restricted by their nature as grounds or variations, and the majority of Gibbons's compositions in the *ut* and *fa* tones use the complete tonal compass

available in the signature, without restriction. For instance, a short Alman for keyboard, no. 37, in the same $\sharp G$ tonal type as no. 36, includes both $G\sharp$ s and $D\sharp$ s. The variations on 'Peascod Time', in $\natural C fa$, include Bb , $F\sharp$, $C\sharp$, and $G\sharp$, and the six-part consort variations on 'Go from my Window' in $\natural G ut$ use $F\sharp$, $C\sharp$, $G\sharp$, and $D\sharp$. The fantasies composed in these tonalities, where Gibbons is least restricted by length and predetermined material, invariably span the full tonal compass, including Bb , $F\sharp$, $C\sharp$, and $G\sharp$ (in the $\natural C fa$ pieces) or Eb , Bb , $F\sharp$, and $C\sharp$ (in $\flat C ut$ and $\flat F fa$). The two four-part fantasias with double bass go beyond even this, one extending to include Eb (*MB* no. 24), the other to $D\sharp$ (*MB* no. 25).

Re and sol tones

Gibbons's pieces in *re* and *sol* tones, the two types with minor third degrees, show a stronger correlation between final and tonal compass. The nature of this relationship, however, is quite different from what Crook observes in Lasso's motets, showing evidence of an expansion rather than a restriction of the standard compass. The compositions in question are those in the $\natural A re$, $\natural D sol$, $\flat D re$ and $\flat G sol$ tonal types, whose tonal compasses are shown in Tables 5.7 and 5.8.

In Crook's description of Lasso's tonal system, none of these choices of final imposes any additional limitations on the tonal compass, since inflections of D , A and E are excluded from the natural system in any case, and inflections of G , D , and A are excluded from the flat system.⁴⁰ If Gibbons's practice followed this pattern, $\natural A re$ and $\natural D sol$ pieces should share the Bb – $F\sharp$ – $C\sharp$ – $G\sharp$ tonal compass, while $\flat D re$ and $\flat G sol$ pieces should share the Eb – Bb – $F\sharp$ – $C\sharp$ compass (see Table 5.4 above). In reality, the tonal compasses of *re* and *sol* pieces which share a signature in Gibbons's music differ noticeably. The tonal compass of Gibbons's twenty-two $\natural D sol$ compositions spans the expected Bb – $F\sharp$ – $C\sharp$ – $G\sharp$ range: Bb and $C\sharp$ appear in every $\natural D sol$ piece, $F\sharp$ in all but two,

⁴⁰Crook, 'Tonal Compass in the Motets of Orlando di Lasso', 296–297.

Table 5.6: Tonal compasses of Gibbons’s instrumental works in the *ut* and *fa* tones

<i>MB</i> no.	Title	Sig	Final	Tone	D $\flat$	A $\flat$	E $\flat$	B $\flat$	B	F $\sharp$	C $\sharp$	G $\sharp$	D $\sharp$	A $\sharp$
Kbd	36 Alman: The King’s Jewel	#	G	(fa?)						+	+	+		
Kbd	37 Alman	#	G	(fa?)						+	+	+	+	+
Kbd	2 Prelude		G	ut				+		+	+	+		
Kbd	30 Peascod Time		G	ut			+			+	+	+		
Kbd	31 Whoop, do me no harm		G	ut					+	+	+			
a2	5 Fantasia		G	ut			+			+	+	+		
a6	40 Go from my Window		G	ut				+		+	+	+	+	
a6	41 Pavan		G	ut				+		+	+	+		
a6	42 Galliard		G	ut				+		+	+	+		
Kbd	13 Fantasia		C	fa			+			+	+	+		
Kbd	14 Fantasia		C	fa			+			+	+	+		
Kbd	25 Galliard (Parthenia)		C	fa			+			+	+			
Kbd	27 The Italian Ground		C	fa			+			+		+		
Kbd	28 The Queen’s Command		C	fa			+			+				
Kbd	35 Alman		C	fa				+		+	+	+	+	
Kbd	44 Lincoln’s Inn Mask		C	fa			+			+	+			
Kbd	45 The Temple Mask		C	fa				+		+				
a4(d.b.)	24 Fantasia		C	fa			+			+	+	+		
a4(d.b.)	25 Fantasia		C	fa			+			+	+	+	+	
a2	3 Fantasia	b	C	ut			+			+	+			
a2	1 Fantasia	b	F	fa			+			+	+			
a2	2 Fantasia	b	F	fa			+			+	+			

and G $\sharp$ in all but four. The overall tonal compass of the fifteen $\natural$ *A re* pieces, however, has fewer flats and more sharps: B $\flat$ s are used in only six of the fifteen, while D $\sharp$ s appear in eight, as compared to only three of the twenty-two $\natural$ *D sol* pieces. In short, the tonal compass of $\natural$ *A re* in Gibbons's practice seems to be almost one degree 'sharper' than $\natural$ *D sol*, despite their shared diatonic system.

The tonal compasses of *re* and *sol* tones in the flat system also differ from each other. As in the natural system, *re* pieces ($\flat$ *D re*) make less liberal use of flat degrees than *sol* pieces ($\flat$ *G sol*). All twelve $\flat$ *G sol* pieces use E $\flat$, B $\flat$, and F $\sharp$, all but two use C $\sharp$, and almost half include an A $\flat$; by contrast, only one $\flat$ *D re* piece includes an E $\flat$, and none uses an A $\flat$. This more limited use of flats in $\flat$ *D re* is not balanced, however, by a greater use of sharps in $\flat$ *G sol*, as it is for the corresponding tonal types in the natural system: only one $\flat$ *G sol* piece, the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt', uses a G $\sharp$ or a D $\sharp$. In short, $\flat$ *D re* pieces seem to have a somewhat narrower compass on average than those in other tones, whether they are compared to pieces in the same system with a different final ($\flat$ *G sol*) or to pieces in the same tone with a different signature ($\natural$ *A re*).

The differences between *re* and *sol* tonal compasses in Gibbons's practice are closely related to the use of closes on the fifth scale degree. In an A-final composition, D $\sharp$ s are needed in order to make a full close on E; in a piece with a D final, G $\sharp$ s are required to make cadences on A. Butler claimed that the need for such 'inordinate' pitches excluded full closes on the fifth from these tonalities, and this is, indeed, a marked difference between $\natural$ *D sol* and $\flat$ *D re* pieces in Gibbons's practice: almost all $\natural$ *D sol* pieces include full closes on A, while few $\flat$ *D re* pieces do so. In this respect, Gibbons's use of $\flat$ *D re* is fairly close to Butler's theoretical model, in which the common background system is unchanged by the choice of final. In $\natural$ *A re* pieces, however, Gibbons seems to have put the need for full closes on the fifth ahead of the strictures of normative tonal compass, introducing D $\sharp$ s where necessary to make a full close on E. This accounts for the difference between $\flat$ *D re* pieces and $\natural$ *A re*

Table 5.7: Tonal compasses of Gibbons’s instrumental works in the $\natural D$ sol and $\natural A$ re tonalities

Type	MB	Title	Sig	Final	Tone	$D\flat$	$A\flat$	$E\flat$	$B\flat$	B	$F\sharp$	$C\sharp$	$G\sharp$	$D\sharp$	$A\sharp$
Kbd	3	Prelude	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+			
Kbd	7	Fantasia	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+	+	
Kbd	15	Pavan	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+		
Kbd	20	Galliard: Lady Hatton	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+		
Kbd	21	Galliard	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+		
Kbd	22	Galliard	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+		
Kbd	23	Galliard	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+		
Kbd	33	Alman	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+			
Kbd	38	French Coranto	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+					
Kbd	41	Nann’s Mask	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+			+		
Kbd	42	Mask: Welcome Home	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+				
$a2$	4	Fantasia	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+		
$a3$	10	Fantasia	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+		
$a3$	11	Fantasia	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+		
$a3$	12	Fantasia	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+		
$a3$	13	Fantasia	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+		
$a3$	14	Fantasia	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+	+	
$a3$	15	Fantasia	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+		
$a3+db$	18	Fantasia	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+		
$a3+db$	19	Fantasia	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+		
$a6$	33	Fantasia	$\natural$	D	sol			+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
$a6$	34	Fantasia	$\natural$	D	sol				+	+	+	+	+		
Kbd	1	Prelude	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+		+		
Kbd	4	Prelude	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+	+	+		
Kbd	10	Fantasia	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+	+	+		
Kbd	11	Fantasia	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+	+	+		
Kbd	12	Fantasia	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+	+	+	+	
Kbd	17	Pavan	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+	+	+	+	
Kbd	18	Pavan: Lord Salisbury	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+	+	+	+	
Kbd	19	Galliard: Lord Salisbury	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+	+	+	+	
Kbd	24	Galliard	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+	+	+	+	
Kbd	26	Ground	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+	+	+		
Kbd	34	Alman	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+	+	+	+	
Kbd	40	Coranto	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+	+	+		
Kbd	43	Mask: The Fairest Nymph	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+	+	+		
$a6$	35	Fantasia	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+	+	+	+	
$a6$	36	Fantasia	$\natural$	A	re				+	+	+	+	+	+	

Table 5.8: Tonal compasses of Gibbons’s instrumental works in the $\flat$ *G sol* and $\flat$ *D re* tonalities

Type	MB no.	Title	Sig	Final	Tone	D $\flat$	A $\flat$	E $\flat$	B $\flat$	B	F $\sharp$	C $\sharp$	G $\sharp$	D $\sharp$	A $\sharp$
Kbd	9	Fantasia	$\flat$	G	sol		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
Kbd	29	The Woods so Wild	$\flat$	G	sol			+	+	+	+				
a3	7	Fantasia	$\flat$	G	sol		+	+	+	+	+	+			
a3	8	Fantasia	$\flat$	G	sol			+	+	+	+	+			
a3	9	Fantasia	$\flat$	G	sol			+	+	+	+	+			
a3+db	16	Fantasia	$\flat$	G	sol		+	+	+	+	+	+			
a3+db	17	Fantasia	$\flat$	G	sol			+	+	+	+	+			
a3+db	23	Galliard	$\flat$	G	sol			+	+	+	+	+			
a5	28	In Nomine	$\flat$	G	sol			+	+	+	+				
a5/2b	29	In Nomine	$\flat$	G	sol			+	+	+	+	+			
a6	31	Fantasia	$\flat$	G	sol		+	+	+	+	+	+			
a6	32	Fantasia	$\flat$	G	sol		+	+	+	+	+	+			
Kbd	16	Pavan	$\flat\flat$	G	?		+	+	+	+	+				
Kbd	5	Fantasia	$\flat$	D	re				+	+	+	+			
Kbd	6	Fantasia	$\flat$	D	re				+	+	+	+			
Kbd	8	Fantasia	$\flat$	D	re			+	+	+	+	+			
Kbd	32	French Air	$\flat$	D	re				+	+	+	+			
Kbd	39	Coranto	$\flat$	D	re				+	+	+	+			
a2	6	Fantasia	$\flat$	D	re				+	+	+	+	+		
a4	26	In Nomine	$\flat$	D	re				+	+	+	+			
a5	27	In Nomine	$\flat$	D	re				+	+	+	+			

pieces in Gibbons's practice: the tonal compass of A-final pieces is commonly shifted or expanded in order to make full closes on the fifth degree, while that of D-final pieces is not. With respect to these pieces, Butler's claim that 'if *Re* be the tone or Aire-note; whether it stand in *A re* ... or in *D sol re* ... there is no difference at all' is at best an oversimplification of musical practice.⁴¹

Even when Gibbons expands the tonal compass of a composition in a *re* tone to include the sharp fourth degree, this pitch position is not used with the same freedom afforded to notes within the normative compass. This is clearly illustrated by Gibbons's four fantasias in $\flat$ *D re*, three for keyboard and one for two trebles. The two shorter keyboard fantasias (*MB* 20 nos. 5 and 6) have no $G\sharp$ s, and make only *mi*-closes on A. The other two $\flat$ *D re* fantasias use some $G\sharp$ s, but their use is much more restricted than in the $\natural$ *D sol* pieces of similar scope. Both the longer keyboard fantasia (*MB* 20 no. 8) and the fantasia for two trebles (*MB* 48 no. 6) include only a single $G\sharp$, in the course of a false close on A. By comparison, the 'Double Organ' fantasia in $\natural$ *D sol* (*MB* 20, no. 7) makes six full closes on A, more than on any other degree except the final. Similarly, the two-treble fantasia in $\natural$ *D sol* (*MB* 48, no. 4) includes four full closes on A, even though it is considerably shorter than no. 6 in $\flat$ *D re*. Clearly, Gibbons could write substantial compositions in $\flat$ *D re* while making only sparing use of full closes in the fifth, a clear distinction between *re* and *sol* tonalities with D finals.

Gibbons's compositions in the $\natural$ *A re* tonality present a more diverse picture than the $\flat$ *D re* pieces. Among the keyboard works, this tonality is represented by two preludes (*MB* 20 nos. 1 and 4); three fantasias (*MB* nos. 10–12); the famous *Lord Salisbury* pavan and galliard, and another smaller pavan (*MB* nos. 17–19), as well as another Galliard, a Ground, and some smaller pieces. The only $\natural$ *A re* pieces among the consort pieces are two six-part fantasias (*MB* 48 nos. 35–6). The individual tonal compasses of all these pieces are tabulated in Table 5.7. It will also be useful in the following discussion to have some way

⁴¹Butler, *The principles of musik*, 86.

of notating all the closes used in a given piece, which I will represent simply as a counterpoint reduction, with the bass and cadence voices marked using beams, as in the previous chapter. These diagrams are principally designed to display the outline of the closes – the harmonic parameter which is most closely related to the tonal compass – and do not claim to be a reduction of the composition's contrapuntal or harmonic content as a whole; sections without a cadential function will often simply be omitted from the diagram for the sake of clarity. In some pieces, as in the short $\natural$ *A re* preludes whose outlines are displayed in Examples 5.6 and 5.9, cadential progressions make up almost the entirety of the counterpoint; in longer pieces, such as the fantasies diagrammed in Examples 5.8 and 5.9, there are long sections between successive closes, whose harmonic content is omitted from these diagrams.

Seven of Gibbons's keyboard pieces in $\natural$ *A re* use no $D\sharp$ s at all: they do without any full closes on E, and resemble in this respect the $\flat$ *D re* pieces which omit $G\sharp$ s and full closes on A. In addition to some short dance pieces and the Ground (*MB* no. 26), which is harmonically restricted by its repeating bass pattern, these include both preludes (*MB* nos. 1 and 4), and two of the fantasies (*MB* nos. 10 and 11). One of the preludes, *MB* no. 4, is very short, much like the short $\flat$ *D re* fantasies. Its nine bars make closes almost exclusively on the final degree of A, with a single *mi*-close on E, as shown in the reduction in Example 5.6. The other prelude (*MB* no. 1) is the running prelude whose opening harmonic structure was discussed in chapter 1. As shown by the cadential skeleton in Example 5.7, it too closes almost exclusively on A, with the exception of an unusual false E close in bb. 11–12 which replaces the E harmony indicated by a *mi* cadence with a C chord.

Gibbons's three keyboard fantasies in $\natural$ *A re* differ substantially from each other both in tonal compass and affect. Only the 'Fantazia of Foure Parts' (*MB* no. 12) includes $D\sharp$ s and full closes in E, which are absent from the two unnamed fantasies *MB* nos. 10 and 11. Of the latter two fantasies, the more austere and organ-like (*MB* no. 11) has the narrowest tonal compass, omitting

The top system of the musical score consists of two staves. The upper staff begins with a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). It contains a sequence of notes: a half note F#, a quarter note G, a quarter note A, a half note B, a quarter note C, a quarter note D, a half note E, and a quarter note F#. A bracket labeled 'full close' spans the first four notes (F#, G, A, B). A second bracket labeled 'passing close' spans the last four notes (C, D, E, F#). The lower staff begins with a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). It contains a sequence of notes: a half note F#, a quarter note G, a quarter note A, a half note B, a quarter note C, a quarter note D, a half note E, and a quarter note F#. A bracket labeled 'full close' spans the first four notes (F#, G, A, B). A second bracket labeled 'passing close' spans the last four notes (C, D, E, F#).

The bottom system of the musical score consists of two staves. The upper staff begins with a treble clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). It contains a sequence of notes: a half note F#, a quarter note G, a quarter note A, a half note B, a quarter note C, a quarter note D, a half note E, and a quarter note F#. A bracket labeled 'full close' spans the first four notes (F#, G, A, B). A second bracket labeled 'passing close' spans the last four notes (C, D, E, F#). The lower staff begins with a bass clef and a key signature of one sharp (F#). It contains a sequence of notes: a half note F#, a quarter note G, a quarter note A, a half note B, a quarter note C, a quarter note D, a half note E, and a quarter note F#. A bracket labeled 'full close' spans the first four notes (F#, G, A, B). A second bracket labeled 'passing close' spans the last four notes (C, D, E, F#).

Example 5.6: Cadential structure of a Gibbons Prelude in $\sharp A$ re, MB 20 no. 4

The musical score for Example 5.7 is presented in two systems, each with a treble and bass staff. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and bar lines, along with specific annotations for cadential structures.

System 1 (Measures 2-12):

- Measures 2-5: Treble staff shows a sequence of notes with a bracket labeled $\nearrow 3 \searrow 4$ above measure 3.
- Measures 6-8: Treble staff shows a sequence of notes with a bracket labeled $\nearrow 3 \searrow 4$ above measure 6.
- Measures 9-12: Treble staff shows a sequence of notes with a bracket labeled $\nearrow 3 \searrow 4$ above measure 9.
- Bass staff: Measures 2-12 show a sequence of notes with a bracket labeled $\nearrow 3 \searrow 4$ above measure 2.
- Measure 12: Treble staff shows a sequence of notes with a bracket labeled $\nearrow 3 \searrow 4$ above measure 12.

System 2 (Measures 13-25):

- Measures 13-18: Treble staff shows a sequence of notes with a bracket labeled $\nearrow 3 \searrow 4$ above measure 13.
- Measures 19-22: Treble staff shows a sequence of notes with a bracket labeled $\nearrow 3 \searrow 4$ above measure 19.
- Measures 23-25: Treble staff shows a sequence of notes with a bracket labeled $\nearrow 3 \searrow 4$ above measure 23.
- Bass staff: Measures 13-25 show a sequence of notes with a bracket labeled $\nearrow 3 \searrow 4$ above measure 13.

System 3 (Measures 26-43):

- Measures 26-33: Treble staff shows a sequence of notes with a bracket labeled $\nearrow 3 \searrow 4$ above measure 26.
- Measures 34-37: Treble staff shows a sequence of notes with a bracket labeled $\nearrow 3 \searrow 4$ above measure 34.
- Measures 38-43: Treble staff shows a sequence of notes with a bracket labeled $\nearrow 3 \searrow 4$ above measure 38.
- Bass staff: Measures 26-43 show a sequence of notes with a bracket labeled $\nearrow 3 \searrow 4$ above measure 26.

Annotations:

- passing close:** Indicated by a bracket above measures 17-18, 21-22, and 34-35.
- full close:** Indicated by a bracket above measures 38-39 and 42-43.
- false close:** Indicated by a bracket above measures 10-11.

Example 5.7: Cadential structure of a Gibbons Prelude in G major, MB 20 no. 1

both D♯s and Bbs. It resembles Gibbons's ♭ *D re* pieces in making full closes only on the final and fourth degrees (Example 5.8). This tonal orientation is not apparent from the opening of the fantasy, which stress A and E as harmonic destinations through an E *mi* close (bb. 2–3), an E half-close (b. 7) and several false A closes (bb. 2–4). These bars serve as a reminder that it is quite possible to lay harmonic stress on a degree without the use of a full close. Starting in b. 9, however, the implied closes move away from A and E in a sequence of fourths which makes false closes successively on D (b. 11), G (bb. 12–13), C (bb. 13–14), and finally an implied but incomplete F close in bb. 14–15. From this point on, the remaining full closes are primarily on A and D. Gibbons first interrupts the cadential, modulating sequence with a diatonic sequence based on falling fourths and rising thirds (bb. 15–17), returning to a full close on D in bb. 18–20. A pair of false closes on G introduce a more extended sequential passage (bb. 24–32), and the fantasy concludes in an extended 'grave close', with cadences on A and D followed by a flourish on A and D harmonies. This concentration on the first and fourth degrees as harmonic destinations recalls Butler's remark that closes on the fourth are especially used when closes on the fifth are not possible.

Gibbons's other ♯ *A re* keyboard fantasia with no D♯s, *MB* no. 10, is much lighter in mood than no. 11, and also expands on its tonal compass very slightly through the use of a single ornamental Bb, in b. 50. As noted in chapter 1, it is the only Gibbons keyboard fantasy which abandons imitative construction for running prelude-like figuration in its second half. Instead of closes on the fourth degree of D, as in *MB* no. 11, in this piece Gibbons favours closes on the third degree of C, as shown in the cadential outline in Example 5.9. Its opening point of imitation begins and ends with closes on A (bb. 5, 37–38, and 43–45), but between these it tends strongly towards closes in C (bb. 8–9, 19–20, 21–22, and 29–31), and also includes one full close on F (bb. 24–26), a cadential degree toward which no. 11 gestures but does not actually reach. The fantasia ends with a full close in A, followed by a striking and unusual

The musical score is presented in two systems, each with a treble and bass staff joined by a brace. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and accidentals, with specific cadential structures highlighted and labeled.

System 1 (Measures 2-7):

- Measure 2:** Treble staff has a half note G4, bass staff has a half note F4. A bracket labeled **(mi close)** spans the measure.
- Measure 3:** Treble staff has a half note A4, bass staff has a half note G4. A bracket labeled **passing closes** spans measures 3 and 4.
- Measure 4:** Treble staff has a half note B4, bass staff has a half note A4. A bracket labeled **passing closes** spans measures 3 and 4.
- Measure 5:** Treble staff has a half note C5, bass staff has a half note B4. A bracket labeled **passing closes** spans measures 5 and 6.
- Measure 6:** Treble staff has a half note D5, bass staff has a half note C5. A bracket labeled **passing closes** spans measures 6 and 7.
- Measure 7:** Treble staff has a half note E5, bass staff has a half note D5. A bracket labeled **half close** spans the measure.

System 2 (Measures 8-15):

- Measure 8:** Treble staff has a half note F5, bass staff has a half note E5. A bracket labeled **full close** spans measures 8 and 9.
- Measure 9:** Treble staff has a half note G5, bass staff has a half note F5. A bracket labeled **full close** spans measures 8 and 9.
- Measure 10:** Treble staff has a half note A5, bass staff has a half note G5. A bracket labeled **full close** spans measures 10 and 11.
- Measure 11:** Treble staff has a half note B5, bass staff has a half note A5. A bracket labeled **full close** spans measures 11 and 12.
- Measure 12:** Treble staff has a half note C6, bass staff has a half note B5. A bracket labeled **full close** spans measures 12 and 13.
- Measure 13:** Treble staff has a half note D6, bass staff has a half note C6. A bracket labeled **false closes in sequence** spans measures 13 and 14.
- Measure 14:** Treble staff has a half note E6, bass staff has a half note D6. A bracket labeled **false closes in sequence** spans measures 14 and 15.
- Measure 15:** Treble staff has a half note F6, bass staff has a half note E6. A bracket labeled **false closes in sequence** spans measures 15 and 16.

System 3 (Measures 16-25):

- Measure 16:** Treble staff has a half note G6, bass staff has a half note F6. A bracket labeled **passing close** spans measures 16 and 17.
- Measure 17:** Treble staff has a half note A6, bass staff has a half note G6. A bracket labeled **passing close** spans measures 17 and 18.
- Measure 18:** Treble staff has a half note B6, bass staff has a half note A6. A bracket labeled **passing close** spans measures 18 and 19.
- Measure 19:** Treble staff has a half note C7, bass staff has a half note B6. A bracket labeled **full close** spans measures 19 and 20.
- Measure 20:** Treble staff has a half note D7, bass staff has a half note C7. A bracket labeled **full close** spans measures 20 and 21.
- Measure 21:** Treble staff has a half note E7, bass staff has a half note D7. A bracket labeled **full close** spans measures 21 and 22.
- Measure 22:** Treble staff has a half note F7, bass staff has a half note E7. A bracket labeled **false closes** spans measures 22 and 23.
- Measure 23:** Treble staff has a half note G7, bass staff has a half note F7. A bracket labeled **false closes** spans measures 23 and 24.
- Measure 24:** Treble staff has a half note A7, bass staff has a half note G7. A bracket labeled **false closes** spans measures 24 and 25.
- Measure 25:** Treble staff has a half note B7, bass staff has a half note A7. A bracket labeled **false closes** spans measures 25 and 26.

Example 5.8: Cadential structure of a Gibbons fantasia in $\sharp A$ re, MB 20, no. 11

26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34

full close

35 36 37 38 39 40

full close

half close flourish

'flourish' in which C and F chords feature prominently, as if to emphasise the cadential degrees reached earlier in the movement.

The 'Fantazia of Foure Parts' from *Parthenia* (MB no. 12) differs more significantly from the other two $\natural$ *A re* fantasias in tonal compass, being the only one of the three to include D $\sharp$ s and full closes in E. An outline of its closes is shown in Example 5.10. Unlike the other two keyboard fantasias in this tonality, it closes almost exclusively on A and E throughout, the exceptions being a passing G close in bb. 39–40, and a full C close at the beginning of the final imitative section in b. 72. Gibbons uses E *mi* cadences and full closes in roughly equal measure: there are four *mi* cadences (bb. 24–25, 50–51, 44, and 68), and five full closes with a D $\sharp$ (bb. 12–13, 30–31, 37, 38, and 59–60). Significantly, three of these five E closes are followed immediately by an A cadence, as if the harmony cannot linger for long on this side of the tonal centre. Moreover, D $\sharp$ s in this piece occur only in the context of E cadences, whereas F $\sharp$ s, C $\sharp$ s and G $\sharp$ s are used more freely. This creates an interesting tension, particularly in the opening point of imitation. The first subject of the fantasy is closely related to the subject of MB no. 10 (Example 5.11), which outlines the same four notes A–E–G–C. In both pieces, the point of imitation developed from this idea leans toward C and F sonorities, but where MB no. 10 reinforces this tendency through closes on C and F, in the 'Fantazia of Foure Parts' Gibbons separates the diatonic imitative sections with closes on A and E, so that the imitative entrances and the closes inhabit somewhat different harmonic regions.

Gibbons's pavans and galliards in $\natural$ *A re* closely resemble the 'Fantazia in Foure Parts' in tonal profile. In the smaller pavan, MB no. 17, the first D $\sharp$ appears early on, in a false E close in b. 5. The second strain ends with a full close in E, after which D $\sharp$ s and E closes are absent from the third strain. The *Lord Salisbury* Pavan, MB no. 18, has a similar tonal outline, but treats D $\sharp$ s and closes on E with greater reticence. D $\sharp$ s are excluded from the texture until halfway through the second strain, where a false E close introduces an elaborate

The musical score is presented in three systems, each consisting of a treble and bass staff joined by a brace. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and accidentals, along with specific cadential structures labeled above the staves.

System 1 (Measures 2-12):

- Measures 2-3: Labeled **subject (s.)** with a bracket.
- Measure 4: Labeled **s.** with a bracket.
- Measures 5-6: Labeled **full close** with a bracket.
- Measures 7-8: Labeled **s.** with a bracket.
- Measures 9-10: Labeled **full close** with a bracket.
- Measures 11-12: Labeled **3, 4** with a bracket.

System 2 (Measures 13-22):

- Measures 13-14: Labeled **full close** with a bracket.
- Measures 15-16: Labeled **s.** with a bracket.
- Measures 17-18: Labeled **full close** with a bracket.
- Measures 19-20: Labeled **semiperfect close** with a bracket.
- Measures 21-22: Labeled **full close** with a bracket.

System 3 (Measures 23-32):

- Measures 23-24: Labeled **s.** with a bracket.
- Measures 25-26: Labeled **s.** with a bracket.
- Measures 27-28: Labeled **full close** with a bracket.
- Measures 29-30: Labeled **full close** with a bracket.
- Measures 31-32: Labeled **s.** with a bracket.

Example 5.9: Cadential structure of a Gibbons fantasia in $\sharp A$ *re*, MB 20, no. 10

Musical score for measures 33-46. The score is written in two staves (treble and bass clef).
 Measures 33-38: **full close** interval, marked with a bracket and a downward arrow. Measure 38 is marked with a downward arrow.
 Measures 39-43: **passing close** interval, marked with a bracket and an 'x' above the staff.
 Measures 44-46: **passing close** interval, marked with a bracket and an 'x' above the staff.
 Measures 39-40, 41-42, and 45-46 are marked with 's.' (sustained).

Musical score for measures 46-61. The score is written in two staves (treble and bass clef).
 Measures 46-57: **semi-perfect close** interval, marked with a bracket and a '3' above the staff.
 Measures 58-61: **semi-perfect close** interval, marked with a bracket and a '2' above the staff.
 Measures 58-59, 60-61, and 62-63 are marked with 's.' (sustained).

Musical score for measures 62-69. The score is written in two staves (treble and bass clef).
 Measures 62-65: **extended full close** interval, marked with a bracket and a downward arrow.
 Measures 66-69: **flourish** interval, marked with a bracket and a downward arrow.
 Measures 66-67, 68-69, and 70-71 are marked with 's.' (sustained).

The musical score is presented in two systems, each with a treble and bass staff joined by a brace. The notation includes various musical symbols such as notes, rests, and bar lines. Above the staves, several brackets and labels indicate phrase boundaries and structural elements:

- System 1 (Measures 2-10):**
 - Measures 2-3: Labeled "subject (s.)" with a bracket.
 - Measures 4-5: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 6-7: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 8-9: Labeled "full close" with a bracket.
 - Measure 10: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
- System 2 (Measures 11-18):**
 - Measures 11-12: Labeled "full close" with a bracket.
 - Measures 13-14: Labeled "false close" with a bracket and an 'x' mark.
 - Measures 15-16: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 17-18: Labeled "full close" with a bracket.
- System 3 (Measures 19-23):**
 - Measures 19-20: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 21-22: Labeled "half close" with a bracket.
 - Measures 23-24: Labeled "passing close" with a bracket and an 'x' mark.
 - Measures 25-26: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 27-28: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 29-30: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 31-32: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 33-34: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 35-36: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 37-38: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 39-40: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 41-42: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 43-44: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 45-46: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 47-48: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 49-50: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 51-52: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 53-54: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 55-56: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 57-58: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 59-60: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 61-62: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 63-64: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 65-66: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 67-68: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 69-70: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 71-72: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 73-74: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 75-76: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 77-78: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 79-80: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 81-82: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 83-84: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 85-86: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 87-88: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 89-90: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 91-92: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 93-94: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 95-96: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 97-98: Labeled "s." with a bracket.
 - Measures 99-100: Labeled "s." with a bracket.

Example 5.10: Cadential structure of Gibbons's 'Fantazia in F#m (MB 20, no. 12). Double barlines show section boundaries.

(following entrances not marked -- see example 1.23)

false closes

36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43

— false close —x

— false close —x

— false close —x

false closes

44

45

46

47

48

49

mi close

5

6

mi close

50

51

52

false close

53

54

55

4, 3

false close

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

full closes

4, 3

passing close

3

chordal sequence

mi close

chordal sequence

full close

3, 4, 2

false close

full close

3, 4

full close



Example 5.11: Opening imitative subjects of two Gibbons keyboard fantasias in $\flat A$ *re* (MB 20, no. 10 and no. 12).

closing flourish extending over the next three bars. In the third strain, another false E close sets up the final sequential progression which closes the pavan. It is notable that this piece includes only false closes and half closes on E, not full closes, even though E is clearly a harmonic region of importance secondary only to the final of A.

Finally, Gibbons's *In Nomines* for consort, whose differing final conclusions were noted in the previous chapter, also offer an interesting perspective on the relationship between *re* and *sol* tones. They number four: one for four parts (MB no. 26), two in standard five-part scoring (nos. 27–28), and one for an uncommon five-part scoring with two bass viols (no. 29). All have flat signatures: the four-part setting and one of the two five-part settings (no. 27) are in $\flat D$ *re*; the other five-part setting and the piece with two bass viols are in $\flat G$ *sol*. Except for the piece with two bass viols, they place the cantus firmus on the same pitch as the final, beginning and ending on D in the D-final pieces, on G in the G-final piece, and have a limited tonal compass which excludes full closes on the fifth degree, resembling in this respect Gibbons's smaller-scale *re* tone pieces: the D pieces use $B\flat$, $F\sharp$, and $C\sharp$ but not $G\sharp$, while the $\flat G$ *sol* piece uses $E\flat$, $B\flat$, and $F\sharp$, but no $C\sharp$. The *In Nomine* with two basses, however, is once again an anomaly: it places the cantus firmus on D, but has a final cadence on G, thus classifying it as $\flat G$ *sol* along with no. 28.

Its tonal compass is also wider than the other *In Nomines*, including both Ebs and C#s, and it is the only one of the four which makes full closes on the fifth degree as well as the final. Although the first and last close of the piece are in G, there are far more closes on D than on G between them, making the final conclusion in G somewhat unconvincing to modern ears. These pieces are a reminder that tonal compass is no measurement of harmonic refinement and sophistication: the second *In Nomine* (no. 28) achieves extremely expressive harmonic effects entirely through the use of varied suspensions, without any need for an expanded range of pitches.

In summary, although there are real distinctions between the *re* and *sol* tonalities in Gibbons's music, there are also significant differences between the same tone expressed in different systems. The tonal compass defined by the choice of natural or flat system means that pieces in the *re* tone are less likely than pieces in the *sol* tone to make full closes on the fifth degree, and correspondingly more likely to close on other degrees such as the second or fourth, or to make *mi* cadences or half closes on the fifth. However, the *re* and *sol* categories are not as cleanly delimited as Butler's neat systematisation would suggest. In particular, ♮ *A re* pieces have a less restricted tonal compass than ♭ *D re* pieces, regularly extending the normative tonal compass to include D#s. This extension of the ♮ *A re* tonal compass represents a partial blurring of the distinction between *re* and *sol* tones. Nevertheless, some residual differences between the two tones remain, since the sharp fourth degree is used less freely in *re* pieces than in *sol* pieces.

Contrary to Butler and Owens, not all pieces in the same 'tone' necessarily share a common sound. Gibbons's pieces in ♮ *A re* and ♭ *D re* have unique characteristics which are not merely transpositions of each other, and pieces in ♮ *A re* can be further separated into distinct categories according to whether they respect the limited, normative tonal compass or the expanded tonal compass including D#. Gibbons's three keyboard fantasies in this tonality provide a good example of this diversity: one concentrates on A and D as cadential degrees

(*MB* no. 11), one on A and C (*MB* no. 10), and one on A and E (*MB* no. 12). Each of these pieces has a distinct tonal profile which is only partially determined by the choice of tonality. These irregularities or asymmetries in musical practice are no more surprising than the fact that particular major and minor keys in later harmonic tonality retain differing characteristics and associations. However, they highlight the fact that a historical theory like Butler’s ‘tones’ is an idealisation of historical practice, no less than modern theory.

5.5 Changing the ‘air’

Harmonic tonality is often conceptualised as a hierarchical system, in which similar rules of harmonic logic operate at several different levels, and each chord, cadence, or modulation has implications for those which follow. Earlier tonal systems, by contrast, are sometimes pictured as simpler, ‘flat’ structures. In such a system, the choice of a key may define a boundary – limiting, for example, the tonal compass – but within this boundary, harmonic events succeed each other fairly freely, with few implications for what follows. Carl Dahlhaus argues that sixteenth-century polyphony inhabits such a ‘nongravitational’ tonal system, since it lacks a ‘centre of gravity’ around which the harmonies arrange themselves:

Instead of having ‘harmonic logic’ tie the resolution of the contrast to the reconciling degree, 16th-century chordal technique leaves the choice of a continuation to the composer, a choice limited only by the boundaries of the system.⁴²

In particular, Dahlhaus argues that this kind of nongravitational system operates in William Byrd’s music. Observing that compositions with C and G finals in Byrd’s *Psalms, Sonnets and Songs* of 1588 share the same set of cadential degrees, Dahlhaus claims that this set of cadential degrees forms the

⁴²Dahlhaus, *Studies on the Origin of Harmonic Tonality*, 245.

underlying 'system of interrelationships' which defines the tonal boundaries of these pieces, while the degree of final cadence is a contingent feature:

the clausula degrees *c*, *g*, *d*, and *a* form a self-supporting system of interrelationships that is only secondarily and 'formally,' not functionally, based on an underlying mode. If the opening lines cadence on the degrees *g* and *d*, then the mode established by the final cadence can be not only g-mixolydian but also c-ionian.⁴³

Hendrie, too, describes the characteristics of the eight church tones in terms that imply a flat, non-hierarchical system:

Tone 1 implies that the final cadence is on D, that there is no key-signature, that the lesser third is more common than the greater; that the accidentals B♭, F♯, C♯, G♯ will probably be used (but no others, unless the piece is exceptional); and that all the cadences that can be reached by means of these accidentals may occur in the course of the piece.⁴⁴

There is a striking similarity between this description of tonal types with a common set of cadential degrees, and the idea of different tonalities which share a common diatonic background scale and tonal compass.

In Dahlhaus's and Hendrie's description, the choice of final has only a limited influence on the internal content of a composition: the succession of harmonies and cadences is limited by a background system – either a tonal compass or a 'system of interrelationships' – which is common to pieces with different finals. In Dahlhaus's phrasing, the mode is definitely 'established' only by the final cadence. If the only difference between the ♮ *D sol* and ♮ *A re* tonalities were the choice of final cadence, as this implies, it might seem questionable to treat this property as an integral part of the composition's tonality. The evidence from tonal compasses presented above, however, suggests that there are real differences between pieces composed in these tonal types, which are not accounted for by the properties of the common background system. Furthermore,

⁴³Ibid.

⁴⁴Hendrie, 'The Keyboard Music of Orlando Gibbons', 15.

several of Gibbons's compositional techniques may be seen as ways of imposing more direction and patterning on the unrestricted, 'nongravitational' tonal space described by Dahlhaus. Gibbons's sequences based on extended counterpoint models or continuous imitation suggest a strong tendency towards more patterned and predictable relationships between successive harmonic events. Similarly, Gibbons's passages of continuously overlapping false closes are designed to extend the length of the cadential progression from dissonance to resolution, transforming it from a purely local event into one which governs longer passages.

Although Crook's definition of tonal compass pertains to complete pieces and repertoires, the concept can usefully be extended to describe the internal harmonic structure of individual compositions as well: instead of the pitch positions used in an entire piece, the pitch positions used in successive sections, or even in successive bars, can be tabulated and compared. This is comparable to the approach taken by Christopher Field's study of the 'cosmography of harmony' in the music of Jenkins, Ferrabosco and other musicians of early-seventeenth-century England, although Field expresses the concept in hexachordal terms, noting the *mi-fa* steps used in successive bars:

Obviously there is a limit to what such a graph based on hexachordal shifts can tell us about a piece of music. Nevertheless the method may perhaps, when combined with other analytic approaches, prove a useful tool. Thinking in terms of hexachords may also help to avoid the pitfalls which are apt to beset key-based harmonic analysis in music of this period⁴⁵

Field describes several English compositions by Bull, Ferrabosco the younger, and Jenkins which make a complete 'circumnavigation' of pitch space, necessitating an enharmonic change from flats to sharps or vice versa.

Although many of Gibbons's compositions rely on the same techniques of sequential progression which other composers employed to chart truly circular

⁴⁵Field, 'Jenkins and the Cosmography of Harmony', 29.

harmonic voyages, none journey quite as far as this. Very few of them include any enharmonic pairs at all, two exceptions being the keyboard 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' (*MB* 20, no. 9) and the third fantasia for six viols (*MB* 48 no. 33). The keyboard fantasy uses both $D\sharp$ and $E\flat$, and $G\sharp$ and $A\flat$, but these extremes of the tonal compasses are widely separated from each other, being reached usually as the extremes of sequential progressions. The consort fantasy separates its $D\sharp$ and $E\flat$ not only in time but also in scoring: $E\flat$ s occur only in the first treble and first tenor part (b. 74, b. 85), while $D\sharp$ s occur only in the second treble part (b. 101).

Even when Gibbons remains strictly within the normal tonal compass, many of his compositions exhibit a harmonic structure in which its extreme points are held in reserve, being reached only in later sections. Some clear examples come from the keyboard pieces in dance genres, with their clear sectional articulation. The 'Lord Salisbury' pavan in $\natural A$ *re*, for example, includes $F\sharp$, $C\sharp$, $G\sharp$ and $D\sharp$ in its overall tonal compass, but not all of these pitches appear in each of the three strains, for $D\sharp$ s are excluded from the first, appearing only in the second and third strains. The same is true of a Galliard in $\natural A$ *re* (*MB* 20 no. 24), whose first $D\sharp$ appears in an *E* close at the end of the second strain. Another pavan in the same tonality (*MB* 20 no. 17) expands its tonal compass to include $B\flat$, and again this additional pitch position is excluded from the first strain, appearing only in the second strain and onward. Finally, three keyboard Galliards in $\natural D$ *sol* (*MB* nos. 20, 21, 22) share both an overall tonal compass of $B\flat$, $F\sharp$, $C\sharp$, $G\sharp$, and a harmonic plan by which it progressively expands, with the first $F\sharp$ s appearing at the end of the first strain and the first $G\sharp$ s at the end of the second strain.

Similar tonal structures can be more difficult to discern in fantasias, where sectional articulation is less explicit. One simple example comes from Gibbons's first fantasy for two treble instruments (*MB* 48 no. 1), a rare instance of a Gibbons composition in $\flat F$ *fa*. It ranges over the full flat-system tonal compass of $E\flat$, $B\flat$, $F\sharp$ and $C\sharp$, but although $B\flat$ s and $B\sharp$ s are present from the

first imitative entrances, the other pitch positions are introduced progressively, one at a time. The first F $\sharp$ appears in the fourth point of imitation, in b. 41; the first C $\sharp$ in b. 48 of the same section; and the first E $\flat$ s not until the penultimate imitative point, in b. 64.

Two more examples of a progressively expanding tonal compass come from the three-part consort fantasias. The third piece in this set (*MB* 48 no. 9) has a $\flat$ *G sol* tonal type, and the usual flat-system tonal compass: E $\flat$, B $\flat$, F $\sharp$ and C $\sharp$. As with several of the dance movements, the pitch position at one extreme of the tonal compass is introduced later than the others: in this case the E $\flat$ is absent from the first point of imitation, appearing first in b. 21 of the second point of imitation. Similar shifts of tonal compass operate in the fourth three-part fantasy (*MB* no. 10), in $\natural$ *D sol* with the normal natural-system tonal compass of B $\flat$, F $\sharp$, C $\sharp$ and G $\sharp$. All flat and sharp inflections are omitted from the first point of imitation in this piece, whose pitch content is purely diatonic. Gibbons introduces the first F $\sharp$ s, C $\sharp$ s and G $\sharp$ s in that order, over the course of the second point of imitation (bb. 14–21), and the first B $\flat$ is delayed until after all five of the first points of imitation are completed, first appearing in a false close in b. 34.

Two very clear examples of shifting tonal compasses which go beyond the standard limits to touch on 'inordinate' pitches come from the two four-part consort fantasias with double bass (*MB* 48 nos. 24–5). Both pieces are in the $\natural$ *C fa* tonality, and both are clearly sectional, alternating imitative work with harmonically ambiguous 'long soft' passages and dance-like passages. Each exceeds the standard natural-system tonal compass in a different direction: no. 24 adds E $\flat$ s and no. 25 D $\sharp$ s to the standard B $\flat$ –F $\sharp$ –C $\sharp$ –G $\sharp$ compass. The second fantasy (no. 25) has the simpler structural outline of the two, consisting of six sections: four points of imitation, a 'long soft' section in longer note values (bb. 65–85), and an extended concluding dance movement in repeated strains. The tonal compasses of each section are shown in Table 5.9. A progressive opening up of tonal space is clearly discernible in the tonal compasses of the first four

imitative sections. The pitch content of the opening point uses only F $\sharp$ in addition to the natural diatonic scale; G $\sharp$ first appears at the end of the second section (b. 35), C $\sharp$ in the third section (b. 36), and B $\flat$ in the fourth section (b. 50). Gibbons reserves the only D $\sharp$ s of the movement for the central ‘long soft’ section, where they form false closes on E (b. 72, b. 75) – cadences on the major third degree, which otherwise never occur in Gibbons’s C-final pieces, and which are further marked as unusual by the double bass and organ parts falling together to the lowest pitch of the movement. These E closes begin a sequential progression of false closes on A, D, G, and a final return to C (b. 87) which set up the final ‘Fast’ section, the first part of the movement which employs all the notes of the complete tonal compass.

Table 5.9: Tonal compasses of successive sections in Gibbons, four-part fantasia no. 2 (*MB* no. 25)

Section	Bars	Type	D $\flat$	A $\flat$	E $\flat$	B $\flat$	F $\sharp$	C $\sharp$	G $\sharp$	D $\sharp$	A $\sharp$
1	1–27						+				
2	28–35								+		
3	36–49						+	+			
4	50–64					+	+	+			
5	65–88	‘Long soft’					+	+	+	+	
6	89–126	‘Fast’				+	+	+	+		

Gibbons’s other fantasy for four viols, *MB* no. 24, has a more elaborate tonal plan, corresponding to the arch form of its alternating dance and ‘long soft’ sections (Table 5.10). It begins with a point of imitation whose tonal structure is comparable to the opening sequential spirals of the fantasias for three viols with and without double bass (*MB* no. 7, no. 16). Four orderly entrances on C and G, using only pitches from the natural scale, are followed by two entrances on F, whose addition of B $\flat$ s causes a significant shift in tonal emphasis (Example 5.12). Although B $\flat$ falls within the normal natural-system tonal compass, it seems significant that after these F entrances it disappears again from the harmony, reappearing only in b. 62 of the second ‘long soft’ section. As in the other four-part fantasia, Gibbons reserves the extreme of

the tonal compass – here, E $\flat$ – for the central ‘long soft’ section, in bb. 110–125 (Example 5.13). Following this tonal excursion, the remainder of the piece progresses through a dance passage marked ‘away’ and containing only the natural pitches of the diatonic scale (bb. 125–130); a brief ‘long soft’ section and another marked ‘Fast’ which both reach to B $\flat$ (bb. 131–135 and bb. 136–151), and a final ‘long soft’ section (bb. 152–167) which closes in diatonic simplicity. As a whole, the piece suggests Gibbons taking the logical harmonic progress of one of his sequentially spiralling circle-of-fifths passages and applying it on a larger scale as a tonal plan.

Table 5.10: Tonal compasses of successive sections in Gibbons, four-part fantasia no. 1 (*MB* no. 24)

Section	Bars	Type	D $\flat$	A $\flat$	E $\flat$	B $\flat$	F $\sharp$	C $\sharp$	G $\sharp$	D $\sharp$	A $\sharp$
1	1–24					+	+				
2	25–42						+	+	+		
3	43–54	‘Long soft’					+		+		
4	55–61	‘Fast’						+	+		
5	61–68	‘Long soft’				+	+				
6	69–83	Triple				+		+			
7	84–92								+		
8	93–109					+					
9	110–124	‘Long soft’			+	+			+		
10	125–130	‘Away’									
11	131–135	‘Long soft’				+	+		+		
12	136–151	‘Fast’				+	+	+			
13	152–167	‘Long soft’									

In several other pieces, Gibbons compresses the opening up of tonal space into a single section, beginning by using only the notes of the diatonic scale implied by the signature, and gradually expanding the tonal compass through the successive introduction of inflected pitch positions. Some such passages are sequential in nature; others are points of imitation in which latent cadential implications are gradually strengthened through the increasing use of sharp inflections, as in the opening section from six-part fantasia no. 6, in $\natural$ *A re* (*MB* 48, no. 36). Beginning with imitative entrances using only the notes of the natural scale, Gibbons introduces the first C $\sharp$ in b. 8, the first G $\sharp$ and F $\sharp$ in

The musical score is presented in two systems. The first system contains measures 2 through 10, and the second system contains measures 11 through 25. Each system consists of a treble staff and a bass staff. The music is written in a key with one flat (B-flat) and a common time signature. The notation includes various note values (quarter, eighth, and sixteenth notes), rests, and accidentals. Brackets are used to group measures and indicate phrasing. The score illustrates imitative entrances on the notes C, G, and F, as described in the caption.

Example 5.12: Imitative entrances on C, G and F in the opening of Gibbons, four-part fantasia no. 1 (MB 48 no. 24)

Long [and] soft

125 Away

Example 5.13: The central 'long soft' section, with its 'inordinate' Eb, from Gibbons, four-part fantasia no. 1 (*MB* 48 no. 24)

b. 13, and finally the first D $\sharp$ in b. 29. The final section of the same fantasy (b. 92) begins one step further to the flat side, augmenting the diatonic scale with the first B $\flat$ s of the composition in b. 95, and only then re-introducing F $\sharp$ (b. 99), B $\natural$ (b. 101), and G $\sharp$ (b. 103); Gibbons does not return in this section to the D $\sharp$ s of the opening. A final non-imitative example of this gradual expansion of harmonic space comes from the other $\natural$ *A re fantasia* (no. 5), whose fifth section (bb. 69–82) again begins diatonically before introducing G $\sharp$, F $\sharp$ and D $\sharp$ in swift succession in bb. 74–77.

5.6 Changing the ‘key’

Gibbons’s use of ‘inordinate’ pitches outside the normal tonal compass may be an example of what Morley describes as the ‘absurdity’ of changing the key. In an evocative passage, Morley describes changing the key in this sense as a technique of text-expression, suggesting that a change of key in this sense is an unusual technique to be reserved for unusual situations, unlike the more local changes of ‘air’ implied by false and full closes on different notes.

about all thinges keepe the ayre of your key [...] except you bee by the wordes forced to beare it, for the Dittie [...] will compell the author many times to admit great absurdities in his musicke, altering both time, tune, cullour ayre and what soeuer else, which is commendable so hee can cunninglie come into his former ayre againe.⁴⁶

Morley’s use of the word ‘absurdity’ in connection with changing the key recalls a passage from an earlier treatise by William Bathe which Morley seems to have paraphrased elsewhere, but the sense of the two passages is quite different.⁴⁷ Discussing how to solmize passages with accidental flats correctly, Bathe writes:

[...] the flat so comming should alter the *ut*, but to alter the *ut*, doth alter the key (which is in musick a great absurditie) therefore

⁴⁶Morley, 166; Morley, ed. Harman, 276.

⁴⁷Owens, ‘Concepts of Pitch in English Music Theory’, 198.

by the last solution, there is a great absurditie graunted.⁴⁸

Owens writes that Bathe's use of 'key' here refers only to the background diatonic scale: 'A piece begins in one key (scale), goes into another because of the addition of a flat, and then returns to the first key.'⁴⁹ For Bathe, the 'absurdity' exists only in the mind of the solmizing singer, who must mentally place the same syllable on two adjacent notes in order to tune them correctly. However, this cannot be the same sense of 'absurdity' which Morley intends. In the first place, the tonal compass of almost every composition includes at least one flat inflection in addition to the diatonic scale specified by its signature: natural-system pieces routinely use Bbs, and flat-system pieces routinely use Ebs. If all these routine changes of scale implied a change in the 'air' and the 'key', almost no composition could be considered to stay in the same key from beginning to end. Nor, surely, would Morley indicate that these changes of scale were an expressive technique, or that they are permitted in madrigals but not in fantasies. Morley must be talking about a more dramatic departure from the tonal norm: a musical license which a competent listener could recognise as beyond the ordinary, and which would be particularly appropriate for depicting extreme emotional realm of the madrigal:

as you schollers say loue is ful of hopes and feares, so is the Madrigall
or louers musicke full of diuersitie of passions and ayres.⁵⁰

Venturing beyond the normative tonal compass into remoter harmonic regions is one effective way of changing the 'key' in this more extreme sense.

Any expansion of the tonal compass beyond the sixteenth-century norm widens it to include twelve pitch positions, filling in the formerly absent pitch position (D $\sharp$ or E $\flat$ in the natural system; G $\sharp$ or A $\flat$ in the flat system). Two of Gibbons's published three-part fantasias as well as the first three-part fantasia

⁴⁸William Bathe, *A Brieve Introduction to the Skill of Song*, sig. Aviii^v, quoted in Owens, 'Concepts of Pitch in English Music Theory', 198.

⁴⁹Owens, 'Concepts of Pitch in English Music Theory', 199.

⁵⁰Morley, 172; Morley, ed. Harman, 282.

with double bass exceed the standard tonal compass in this manner. The eighth published fantasy (*MB* no. 14, in $\natural$ *D sol*) moves the furthest in the sharp direction, being the only natural-system piece in the collection which uses $D\sharp$ s. According to the sixteenth-century norms Crook describes, this pitch position is doubly transgressive, being not only outside the tonal compass of the natural system, but also a chromatic inflection of the *D* final. The compass of the first published three-part fantasy, *MB* no. 7 in b *G sol*, extends the tonal compass in the opposite direction, reaching to $A\flat$ s in the course of its opening sequential imitation. Curiously, precisely the same is true of the first three-part fantasy with double bass (*MB* no. 16), which is set in the same b *G sol* tonality, and is also the only piece in its set which includes $A\flat$ s. As described in chapter 3, both fantasies open with a set of periodic entrances which move sequentially into increasingly flat harmonic regions. Although Gibbons may have modelled one piece directly on the other, it also seems possible that he simply considered an imitative structure which opens up tonal space in this manner an appropriate beginning gesture for a set of pieces.

Many of Gibbons's departures from the usual tonal compass occur at the beginning or end of a sequential progression. This is true of the $A\flat$ s and $D\sharp$ s in the three-part consort fantasias discussed above, and also applies to many uses of 'inordinate' pitches in the keyboard music. In the 'Fancy in Gamut Flatt' (*MB* 20 no. 9, in b *G sol*), $A\flat$, $G\sharp$, and $D\sharp$ pitches occur only in the course of a sequence of false closes which begins with a false *E* cadence and ends with an *F* cadence.⁵¹ The only $D\sharp$ s to occur in a $\natural$ *D sol* keyboard piece occur in an extended imitative sequence at the conclusion of the 'Fantasia for Double Organ'. In both of these cases, the closely connected logic of imitation and harmonic progression motivates the movement outside the normal boundaries of the key. Such use of sequential counterpoint patterns and progressions like these shows a clear concern for moving through harmonic space in a smooth and continuous way, in contrast to the unrestricted succession of cadential degrees implied in

⁵¹See the section on 'Imitative sequence' in chapter 3 of this thesis.

Dahlhaus's 'nongravitational' system. Although Gibbons does not take this process to its logical conclusion by making a complete enharmonic circuit of tonal space, like Ferrabosco and Jenkins, it is not surprising to find that the logic of harmonic sequence also motivates some of his excursions beyond the boundaries of the inherited sixteenth-century tonal system.

Several of Gibbons's most expressive departures from the normal tonal compass occur as part of a 'long soft' passage of cadential ambiguity. In these passages, the use of notes outside the normal tonal compass combines with an ambiguous cadential structure to create the sense that the music has descended into a mysterious, free-floating realm removed from the more quotidian concerns of the surrounding passages. One example already discussed is the use of E $\flat$ in the first four-part fantasia discussed above; another comes from the six-part fantasia no. 1 (MB 48 no. 31, in $\flat$ *G sol*). This fantasia contains only a single A $\flat$, in the bass of b. 35. As in the four-part fantasia, the introduction of this 'inordinate' pitch triggers a dramatic opening up of tonal space, introducing an E $\flat$ cadence and beginning a 'long soft' passage in which Gibbons displays his mastery of harmonic ambiguity through weakened and evaded cadential implications.

Gibbons's broadest expansion of tonal compass in the six-part fantasies occurs in fantasy no. 3 in $\natural$ *D sol*, whose successive sections clearly progress through different harmonic regions (Table 5.11). In this piece, uniquely among the consort fantasies, Gibbons expands the natural-system compass in both directions to include both E $\flat$ s and D $\sharp$ s. (In this table parentheses are used to indicate pitch positions which are used only once or twice within a section, usually at the extremity of some kind of sequential process). The first two sections use the normal compass of B $\flat$, F $\sharp$, C $\sharp$, and G $\sharp$, first introducing the most distant sharp inflection of G $\sharp$ in b. 19. The tonal compass of the third section narrows by excluding G $\sharp$, prefiguring a move towards flatter harmonic regions. In the fourth section, Gibbons omits all sharp inflections beyond F $\sharp$,

and introduces the first E♭ in b. 74; the fifth section retains the E♭ while re-introducing C♯s. Finally, Gibbons concludes by swinging back to the opposite point of the tonal compass, omitting E♭s and even B♭s from b. 93 onward, and re-introducing not only G♯s but even a D♯ in b. 101. As in other ♯ *D sol* pieces like the ‘Fantasia for Double Organ’, a sudden swing to the sharp side seems to be an effective way of setting up a quasi-sequential conclusion.

Table 5.11: Tonal compasses of successive sections in Gibbons’s six-part fantasy no. 3 (*MB* 48, no. 33).

Section	Bars	D♭	A♭	E♭	B♭	B♯	F♯	C♯	G♯	D♯
1	1–27				+	+	+	+	+	
2	28–61				+	+	+	+	+	
3	61–67				+		+	+		
4	67–77			(+)	+	+	+			
5	77–93			(+)	+	+	+	+		
6	93–110						+	+	+	(+)

The two six-part fantasias in ♯ *A re* demonstrate the same polarity between the flat and sharp extremes of the tonal compass, represented by B♭ and D♯. Of these two pitch positions, D♯ is an expansion of the normal natural-system tonal compass, while B♭ is part of the normal compass, but is often used sparingly in ♯ *A re* pieces, perhaps due to its tendency to create *mi* cadences on the final of A. The tonal extremes of B♭ and D♯ appear in both six-part fantasies, but never within the same section. In fantasia no. 6 (*MB* no. 36), D♯s are used in the first, third and fifth sections; only the final section moves toward the flat side, including B♭s and omitting D♯s (Table 5.12). By contrast, fantasia no. 5 (*MB* no. 35) begins on the flat side of the tonal compass with an opening point of imitation whose tonal compass includes B♭s, but no D♯s. The second section (bb. 17–26) has a narrower compass, omitting B♭ and also F♯. The third section introduces the first D♯s, in the course of its chromatic rising minim scales: this is one of very few examples of genuinely chromatic writing in Gibbons’s music. Gibbons maintains the D♯s and E cadences, while omitting B♭s, through the following two sections, up to b. 82. Finally, the sixth section briefly returns to

the Bbs of the opening in bb. 90–92, before leaving them for an extended final close.

Table 5.12: Tonal compasses of successive sections in Gibbons's six-part fantasies in $\natural$ *A re* (*MB* 48, nos. 35–36).

no. 35	Bars	D $\flat$	A $\flat$	E $\flat$	B $\flat$	B $\natural$	F $\sharp$	C $\sharp$	G $\sharp$	D $\sharp$
1	1–17				+	+	+	+	+	
2	17–27					+		+	+	
3	27–54					+	+	+	+	+
4	55–69					+	+	+	+	+
5	69–82					+	+		+	+
6	83–108				+	+	+	+	+	
no. 36	Bars	D $\flat$	A $\flat$	E $\flat$	B $\flat$	B $\natural$	F $\sharp$	C $\sharp$	G $\sharp$	D $\sharp$
1	1–40					+	+	+	+	+
2	40–44					+			+	
3	45–63					+	+	+	+	+
4	63–74					+	+	+	+	
5	74–92					+	+	+	+	+
6	92–115				+	+	+		+	

5.7 Conclusion

The tonal system of Gibbons's music functions on several separate levels. On the level of the background system, Gibbons remains fairly close to the normative tonal compass of sixteenth-century practice, though he routinely expands its eleven pitch positions to twelve or more – particularly where the limitations it places on cadential degrees are too onerous, as in *re* tone pieces. Within the 'nongravitational' system provided by this fixed background, Gibbons also shows a considerable amount of concern for progression in the 'air' or harmonic region over the course of a section or a complete composition. The notion of tonal compass provides a useful analytical tool for this music, since it suggests distinctions between the normal and the exceptional which are not obviously evident to a modern ear. In Gibbons's most ambitious compositions, 'inordinate' pitches outside the usual tonal compass are frequently held in reserve, either for a central section or for a conclusion. Even in pieces which remain entirely within the usual tonal compass, Gibbons is concerned with the progressive expansion of tonal space and for smooth, continuous movement through it. This concern for smooth changes in 'air' is evident in the use of sequential imitations, particularly in opening points of imitation, and in passages where an initially diatonic texture gradually expands to include accidental inflections.

Several of Gibbons's passages featuring 'inordinate' notes suggest an intentional step outside the usual boundaries of the key for expressive reasons. Morley might not have approved of these, since he permitted the 'absurdity' of changing the key only as an expressive device in vocal music. Gibbons's introduction of remote pitches and vague, mysterious airs into his fantasias might be interpreted as a striving after madrigalian expressivity in instrumental form. On the other hand, perhaps these tonal departures – like the play on cadential expectations that often accompanies them – represent a way of creating meaning out of the manipulation of conventions in a purely instrumental idiom, without reference to vocal models. Butler's reference to notes which are 'unapt

to be sung' but 'may be played' suggests that instrumental music might have been better suited than vocal to this kind of experimentation.

While Owens's tonalities provide a useful conceptual framework for thinking about English tonalities, they should not be considered absolutely valid as a categorisation system. Like the modes of Continental theory, Butler's 'tones' are the product of ingenious and systematic theorising, which smooths over the complexities of actual compositional practice. On the one hand, some pieces in apparently different tones have enough common characteristics as to make a strict distinction seem arbitrary: although the *re* and *sol* tones in Gibbons's music possess some distinguishing characteristics which set them apart, only a few pieces represent them in a pure form; more commonly, the addition of chromatic inflections outside the normative tonal compass means that the characteristics of these two tones become intermingled. On the other hand, there are substantive tonal differences between pieces in the same tone – for example, between Gibbons's $\natural$ *A re* and $\flat$ *D re* pieces – and between pieces in the same tonal type – for example, between Gibbons's three keyboard fantasias in $\natural$ *A re*. Like the twenty-four keys of harmonic tonality, the tonalities of early-seventeenth-century English music evidently retain their own unique characteristics, which are not entirely reducible to their theoretical definition in a symmetrical, transposable system. It would be interesting to know whether other composers treat these tonalities similarly to Gibbons, and in particular whether there are composers who are closer to the restricted system Butler describes. How, for instance, does Byrd's practice differ from Gibbons's, and how does this relate to their apparently opposite preferences for *re* and *sol* tones? It would also be interesting to compare English practices with those of composers from different backgrounds. Although Owens argues for 'the notion of a distinctive English theory of music' and I have adopted her terms here, the similarities of tonal compass between Gibbons's instrumental music and Lasso's motets suggest that some of these terminological differences may obscure underlying similarities.

Many other aspects of English tonality in this period remain to be explored. For instance, Campion describes a rule for harmonising basses approximating the later 'rule of the octave', according to which the first, fourth and fifth degrees of the scale are harmonised with fifth chords while other notes take sixth chords, thus implicitly relating the key to a set of chordal sonorities. Like the classification of cadence notes into 'proper' and 'improper', this represents an additional level of tonal organisation, imposed on top of the more basic restriction of the normative tonal compass. It suggests an alternative method for mapping the overall harmonic shape of a composition, by examining the chordal sonorities formed by the parts in each section, as well as their tonal compass and cadential direction. Such an approach might be particularly well-suited to pieces in variation and dance genres, which seem more chordal in technique than the fantasia. If not all these aspects of English harmony and tonality around 1600 can be reconciled into a single unified theory, this represents not an absence of order, but an expansion of possibilities. The fact that the early seventeenth-century tonal system is not unified into a seamless, organic whole may be part of what allows Gibbons to achieve such a unique variety of harmonic effects in his music.

Conclusion

As an English composer of the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries, Gibbons occupies a difficult historical position. Not only is he overshadowed on the one side by his great contemporary William Byrd, but on the other side, English music of this period as a whole is generally overshadowed in modern historical accounts by the more dramatic developments taking place at the same time in Italy. According to one widely-accepted historical narrative, the most important musical developments around 1600 are the rhetorical declamation of text, the texture of monody accompanied by *basso continuo*, and the free treatment of dissonance in the *seconda prattica*. Candace Bailey quotes Curtis Price's pithy description of this narrative as the 'Mesopotamian theory', since its portrayal of Italy as the sole source of musical excellence invites comparison to the 'fertile crescent' between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers where prehistoric civilisation first emerged before spreading out to less hospitable regions. Price continues:

England and Spain [...] are perhaps the most susceptible to the 'Mesopotamian' theory, and scholars and critics have therefore tended to attribute innovation and excellence in seventeenth-century English and Spanish music to Italian influence.⁵²

Other scholars have given accounts of the seventeenth century which dissent from this narrative. In his 1962 study of *The Elizabethan Madrigal*, Joseph Kerman proposed a startling alternative – startling because, in the introduction to this volume, Kerman expresses some disappointment with the English

⁵²Curtis Price, *The Early Baroque Era: From the Late 16th Century to the 1660s* (London: Macmillan, 1993), 4, quoted in Bailey, 'Orlando Gibbons, Keyboard Music and the Beginnings of the Baroque', 136.

madrigal repertoire as a whole, describing it as a ‘modest enough development’, which ‘cannot be said to have realised its full promise’, and which ‘found itself superseded around the start of the new century’: it is certainly no equal for the ‘huge Italian school, or schools, which preceded and accompanied it.’⁵³ Yet despite these failures, Kerman writes that the English madrigalists were more interested than their Italian counterparts in ‘purely musical devices’, and less interested in ‘splitting up compositions mercurially at the whim of the text’. Furthermore, the English were ‘dissatisfied with the simplicity of certain Italian forms’, and – most notably – more advanced in their treatment of tonality, since ‘a clear, logical feeling for tonality is developed only by composers whose interest is primarily in music and not in the illustration of words’.⁵⁴ In other words, the English madrigal succeeds precisely because of its indifference to rhetorical dramatisation of a literary text in the Italian manner, and it frequently surpasses its Italian contemporaries in its cultivation of tonal harmony and abstract musical unity (to use a deliberately loaded term). Subjectively, much English music of the early seventeenth century, including Gibbons’s, indeed appeals quite naturally to modern harmonic sensibilities; indeed, scarcely any writer on English music has failed to mention this. Arguments based on tonal design are central to O. W. Neighbour’s study of Byrd’s instrumental music, and Jessie Ann Owens has written more recently that ‘English music *sounds* tonal and English music theory uses concepts associated with tonality well before either happens on the continent’.⁵⁵ Perhaps it is time, as Bailey has suggested, to reconsider English music’s marginal position within the broader history of seventeenth-century music.⁵⁶

As the analyses presented in this thesis suggest, some of the techniques to which Gibbons frequently returns have significant resemblances to later prac-

⁵³ Joseph Kerman, *The Elizabethan Madrigal* (American Musicological Society, 1962), xxi.

⁵⁴ Ibid. 254–5.

⁵⁵ O. W. Neighbour, *The consort and keyboard music of William Byrd*, 2nd ed. (London: Faber and Faber, 1984); Owens, ‘Concepts of Pitch in English Music Theory, c. 1560–1640’, 183.

⁵⁶ Bailey, ‘Orlando Gibbons, Keyboard Music and the Beginnings of the Baroque’, 154–156.

tices: cadential passages that extend the expectation of a final resolution over longer spans of time, sequences that progress smoothly through harmonic space, and changes of ‘air’ and ‘key’ for expressive or structural reasons. Precisely because these usages become commonplace in later music, it can be easy to overlook their significance in their original context. In this respect, Christopher D. S. Field’s assessment of John Jenkins might equally well apply to Gibbons:

Jenkins’s art unfolds in ways that rarely startle, and it is easy to characterize him as a conservative in matters harmonic. Yet the exploration of musical space by English composers of the early seventeenth century put them in some respects ahead of Italian contemporaries.⁵⁷

At the same time, these analyses highlight other aspects of Gibbons’s practice which do not fit easily into a progressive, evolutionary model of music history. For instance, while some of Gibbons’s sequences fall into categories familiar from later styles, many remain difficult to understand in these terms, and are more accurately captured by an analysis based on counterpoint models or imitative structure than by one which starts from harmonic principles. Similarly, although some of Gibbons’s extended cadential passages establish a single harmonic goal or a straightforward sequential progression, others – arguably more distinctive and characteristic of his style – feature a shifting, ambiguous series of harmonic implications which are suggested and evaded with a degree of subtlety that invites comparison to even later harmonic styles than those of the seventeenth or eighteenth century. The writings of Roger North suggest that by the early eighteenth century, these harmonic subtleties had already become illegible to listeners accustomed to the more predictable harmonic procedures of the later Baroque. Writing in 1728, North faults the *In nomine* as a genre for its lack of clearly defined cadences and key areas, which are replaced with ‘continual proffers and baulks’ – that is, passing and false closes – and ‘continual shiftings of tones’:

⁵⁷Field, ‘Jenkins and the Cosmography of Harmony’, 73.

[...] in the *In nomines* I never could see a cadence complete, but proffers and baulks innumerable. That which was properly termed Air was an entire stranger to this sort of harmony, and the audience might sit with all the tranquillity in the world, and hear continual shiftings of tones, with numberless syncopes and varieties, such as they were, and not be in the least moved, if pleased it was enough.⁵⁸

The ‘proffers and baulks’ which North implicitly devalues are, as argued in chapter 4, an essential element of Gibbons’s harmonic vocabulary, and no less meaningful for their deviation from the restrictive norms of later styles. As Alan Howard observes in relation to Purcell, ‘arguably, many aspects of the eventual dominance of tonality represented not progress, but a considerable loss’.⁵⁹

Rather than trying to integrate Gibbons and his contemporaries into an imagined mainstream which only partially aligns with their apparent values, perhaps it is better to discard the historical narratives that would marginalise so much evident musical excellence, and instead seek an appreciation of their achievements in relation to the considerable resources of their own historical musical culture. The contrapuntal artifice displayed in Gibbons’s fantasias, for instance, represents an aspect of musical art also highly valued in some later periods; yet the ingenuity with which Gibbons constructs his points of imitation surely merits admiration in itself, independent of any direct historical connection to these later styles. With respect to this goal, musical analysis grounded in historical concepts can be a valuable source of insight, since it can attempt to provide plausible hypotheses about the composer’s decisions and actions, even (or especially) when they have not been completely realised in the finished composition.

Although historical discourses about music provide the essential starting point for this type of investigation, the analysis of real compositions reveals the need to go beyond the terms and concepts they explicitly provide. Even

⁵⁸Roger North, *The Musical Grammarian*, ed. H. Andrews (London, 1925), 9; quoted in Denis Stevens, *Thomas Tomkins 1572–1656* (New York: Dover, 1967), 165.

⁵⁹Howard, ‘Purcell and the Poetics of Artifice’, 100.

where historical authors provide fairly detailed descriptions of some aspect of musical language – for example, the types of closes discussed in chapter 4 – the actual practice of composers invariably requires both the expansion and refinement of their historical terminology. Analysis is even more necessary for understanding musical features described in less detail by the historical sources. To cite three examples, Gibbons's use of counterpoint models, as detailed in chapter 1, goes well beyond what is implied by Morley's simple rule of thumb for composing a stretto canon; the imitative layouts of Gibbons's and Coprario's fantasias alike, as described in chapter 2, are more sophisticated than the simple examples in Coprario's *Rules how to Compose*; and the invention of a fantasia subject by 'unpacking' a four-part progression, as described in chapter 3, is more artful than the simple composition of a 'catch' detailed by Morley. Finally, in some cases historical theorists make strong empirical claims which analysis can put to the test. This is the case with Butler's account of the 'tones', as discussed in chapter 5. Although interesting as a historical hypothesis connecting the diatonic system, final, and overall pitch structure, Butler's theory proves too limited to accurately capture Gibbons's tonal practice in his instrumental music. To be successful, the attempt to 'derive a critical language from contemporary theory', in Owens's words, requires close readings of music as much or more than of theory texts.⁶⁰

Although the present investigation has focused on Gibbons's instrumental music, there is every reason to think that similar approaches would prove fruitful when applied to his texted vocal music. Such an investigation might also shed additional light on the instrumental music by pointing out analogies between passages in texted and untexted compositions. For instance, a cursory look at Gibbons's *Madrigals and Motets* of 1612 suggests that many of the same counterpoint models described in chapter 1 can also be found frequently in these texted pieces. It would be interesting to examine the role of these and other 'commonplaces' of sixteenth- and seventeenth-century counterpoint

⁶⁰Owens, 'Concepts of Pitch in English Music Theory', 183.

in a broader context, since they are by nature a shared, intertextual aspect of musical style. Similarly, a broader comparison of how different composers of this period approached the invention and disposition of imitative combinations in their fantasias, along the lines of the comparison of Gibbons and Coprario in chapter 2, would help to clarify the stylistic boundaries of the genre, and the different approaches which composers took to it. Further intertextual relationships might be traced through the re-use either of material or of constructive principles, both within the fantasia genre and beyond. Broadening the field of possible connections beyond the English repertoire, a possible comparison with Frescobaldi has been suggested in chapter 3, and the keyboard fantasies of Sweelinck would provide another obvious site for comparison. As suggested in chapters 2 and 3, the use of analysis in this kind of investigation allows it to avoid a simplistic and passive model of musical ‘influence’, by showing how musicians actively interacted with the material and techniques they encountered elsewhere in order to make something new out of them. Finally, although I have largely limited the historical sources consulted in this study to writings by English authors, on the hypothesis that the English musical theory and practice of this period is distinctive, it is clear that there are also significant overlaps with Italian and German theory and practice of the same period. Future research with a broader perspective may help to clarify both what is unique to the English instrumental repertoire of this period, and what it shares in common with other traditions separated by time or geography. I hope to have demonstrated here that analysis grounded in historical categories and augmented by modern theorising can provide us with a much more detailed and sympathetic appreciation for Gibbons’s remarkable musical achievements.

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