

Danish Yearbook of Musicology

33 · 2005

Danish Yearbook of Musicology

Volume 33 • 2005

PUBLISHED BY
Danish Musicological Society

EDITED BY
Michael Fjeldsøe
and
Thomas Holme Hansen

Distributed by DanMusik Aps
Copenhagen 2006

Danish Yearbook of Musicology • Volume 33 • 2005
Dansk Årbog for Musikforskning

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Layout by Hans Mathiasen
Printed by Werks Offset A/S

Danish Yearbook of Musicology is published with support from
the Danish Research Council for the Humanities.

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ISBN 87-88328-24-4
ISSN 0416-6884

Printed in Denmark

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The present issue of *Danish Yearbook of Musicology* is the first to use peer reviewing. This takes the publication one step further on the path towards an international approach to Danish musicology, which during the last years has been given first priority. As the journal accepts articles on a wide range of topics related to Danish music and to musicology in the widest sense, an editorial board has been established on a 'dynamic' basis; that is, it is open to changes, depending on the expertise needed. We are very proud and pleased that so many colleagues in Denmark and abroad so willingly have accepted to join the editorial board.

The present volume presents four articles and a Viewpoint, reports and reviews, and a bibliography of scholarly, musicological literature related to Denmark; as a matter of fact, the bibliography seems to be increasing in size for each year. Though this is a good sign, there are also serious discussions on how and why musicology should be performed, and to what end. In the Viewpoint, Lars Lilliestam raises these questions on the basis of the debate in Sweden during 2005. Olle Edström, too, is concerned with fundamental questions in his article, arguing for a position which mediates between pure sociology and exclusive aestheticism. On the other hand, articles by Jane Alden and Jens Hesselager present cutting edge scholarship on otherwise well known topics. Alden argues that 15th-century Chansonniers were not only musical artefacts, but also of cultural value and prestige to its owners, and give an impression of the status of musical manuscripts of this era. Jens Hesselager presents an interesting argument on how operas of Schumann and Berlioz can be seen as alternative models for 19th-century music theatre, even if they did not have a lot of impact on the development of opera in the way that Wagner's drama did. Anders Bonde's article is somewhere between these positions, as he is discussing how to use computers in music analysis in ways that make sense. In doing this, he addresses both fundamental questions and the possibilities of using new technology in the humanities.

We would like to thank all contributors, and especially Peter Hauge for helping out with the proof reading in English and Peter E. Nissen for his assistance to the editors during the last year. We would also like to thank the Danish Research Council for the Humanities for their support.

Copenhagen and Århus, March 2006
Michael Ejfeldsøe & Thomas Holme Hansen

Viewpoint

Why Musicology? And How? – Or: The Future of Musicology

LARS LILLIESTAM

Music saturates human life in Western countries in a way that was unthinkable, say, 50 years ago. Music is everywhere in all possible situations. Listening to music is one of the biggest leisure interests and many people also play music. Against this background it is remarkable that musicology seems to be such an unimportant discipline on the margins of the humanities. How come? I want to address this problem and present some ideas about how it should or could be instead. This is written from a Swedish perspective, but most of the problems I discuss are common to musicologists and scholars within the humanities more or less anywhere.

THE CRISIS OF THE HUMANITIES

In the last year there has been an intense debate in Sweden about the role and meaning of the humanities, principally in the daily paper *Dagens Nyheter* but in other forums as well.¹ This question has been debated many times before, not least in the end of the 1970s in the research project *The neglected humanities (Humaniora på undantag)*.² The igniting spark at the beginning of 2005 was a government bill about future research policies where the role of the humanities appeared weaker than ever. On top of this was a report from The Times Higher Education Index showing that when it comes to the humanities no Swedish university ranked among the 50 best universities in the world.

In the debate a number of problems within the Swedish humanities were pointed out. The humanities have much smaller grants than medicine or the natural sciences, which leads to both poorer teaching and research and a too heavy workload wearing out the staff. Scholars are claimed to suffer from a weak self-esteem and confidence, they are much too bound by stiff traditions and original and innovative research is rare. The research is provincial and deals too much with narrow Swedish matters and scholars have too few international contacts. Scholars are seldom heard in the

1 *Dagens Nyheter*, 9 Feb., 26 Mar., 18 July, 10, 11, 12, 20, 21, 25 and 26 Oct., 8, 9, 11, 16, 21, 25 and 30 Nov., 2 and 3 Dec. 2005, and the journals *Glänta*, 2005/1–2, and *Tvärsnitt*, 2005/4.

2 Sven-Erik Liedman, 'Humanistiska forskningstraditioner i Sverige. Kritiska och historiska perspektiv', in Tomas Forser (ed.), *Humaniora på undantag: Humanistiska forskningstraditioner i Sverige* (Stockholm, 1978), 9–79.

public debate. The traditional dissertation in the form of a monograph is a rigid and antiquated form. Swedish scholars ought to write much more in English and adjust to the form used in medicine or the natural sciences: thus no large monographs but short articles. The Swedish secondary schools, which were reorganized in the early 1990s, are also claimed to provide deficient basic skills and knowledge for university studies.

No doubt some of these claims are true while others can be debated and questioned. Undoubtedly it is true that the humanities live with low allowances and its place in the public debate is often obscure.

Another important problem which has been pointed out is that Swedish studies within the humanities deal too little with contemporary problems and issues. In the following presentation I will specially address this issue.

So if there are problems with Swedish humanities in general the problems of Swedish musicology must be seen in relations to these. There have been critical voices raised about musicology in later years but practically no public debate. Musicology, by the way, is only mentioned once, in passing, in the mentioned debate in *Dagens Nyheter*.

So let us now deal with the specific musicological problems, continuing in the footsteps of Henrik Karlsson, Ansa Lønstrup, and myself in earlier critical articles.³

THE STUDENTS OF MUSICOLOGY

A majority of those who start to study musicology at ground level in the early twenty-first century have little experience of classical music. Many have never heard a whole symphony or opera or do not know who Mozart was. They are not familiar with the traditional canon of art music, composers, or their works. The literature on music history is seen by many students as boring and antiquated, dealing with music they do not know, in a way that is foreign to them.

On the other hand, the majority of present-day students have experiences of many different types of music, albeit with the basis in contemporary 'popular music' forms. They are often curious about music they know little about and readily discuss

3 Henrik Karlsson, 'Musikvetenskaplig förmedling', in Thomas Holme Hansen (ed.), *13th Nordic Musicological Congress Aarhus 2000. Papers and Abstracts* (Aarhus, 2002), 111–19; Ansa Lønstrup, 'Strategier i musikforskningen?', *Danish Yearbook of Musicology*, 31 (2003), 9–15; Lars Lilliestam, 'Vad gör vi med musikvetenskapen?', *STM Online*, 8 (2005) (www.musik.uu.se/ssm/stmonline/vol_8/index.html). See also studies with critical perspectives like Olle Edström, 'Fr-a-g-me-n-ts – a discussion on the position of critical ethnomusicology in contemporary musicology', *Svensk tidskrift för musikforskning*, 79/1 (1997), 9–68; Olle Edström, *En annan berättelse om den västerländska musikhistorien och det estetiska projektet* (Göteborg, 2002); and Tobias Pettersson, 'De bildade männens Beethoven: Musikhistorisk kunskap och social formering i Sverige mellan 1850 och 1940', (Diss.; Göteborg universitet, 2004); and on English ground, among others, Nicholas Cook, *Music, imagination, culture* (Oxford, 1990); Nicholas Cook, *Music – a very short introduction* (Cambridge, 1998); articles in Nicholas Cook and Mark Everist (eds.), *Rethinking Music* (Oxford and New York, 1999); and Martin Clayton, Trevor Herbert, and Richard Middleton (eds.), *The cultural study of music. A critical introduction* (New York and London, 2003).

matters of musical taste and meaning. Many have their stylistic abode in exclusive forms of rock music, heavy metal, world music, or improvised music, and often have a deep knowledge within these fields. Quite a few are also interested in older forms of rock, blues, country, gospel, or folk music.

Many students have limited knowledge of reading music and of traditional music theory but may well be skilled ear players. The divide between those with a wavering basic knowledge in music theory and those with a solid knowledge are growing. Many of the ways of analysing music that musicologists have been trained in appear less relevant and hard to understand if you lack a basic understanding of traditional music theory.

Taken together this means that there seems to be a growing divergence in experience and interest between, on the one hand, young students and, on the other hand, teachers, and senior scholars. The young to a large extent pose other questions and have different interests.

The future musicologists are trained now. If musicology is going to survive as a university discipline a reorientation is necessary both in the practice of teaching and in the contents of the curriculum, which must be adjusted both to changing qualifications and interests among students and to the problems of the music culture of today and tomorrow.

RESEARCH

As a musicologist you often get questions both from the general public and from students that are difficult to answer because there is no or very little research. I have often met colleagues from other disciplines who have been surprised by the fact that musicologists seem to deal so little with present day music and problems. We live in a time with extremely rapid and radical changes in media technology and use, as well as in musical socialization and the ways people use music in their everyday lives – but do musicologists really notice this? Questions generated by these changes seem to be tackled more often by others than musicologists, such as sociologists, media researchers, economists, scholars in cultural studies, etc.⁴

It is a cornerstone in humanities that it is the researcher's privilege to formulate his or her own research problem. Consequently, the typical humanistic research project is a solo project governed more by personal interests than by thoughts of relevance or the social good. Overriding agendas are mostly missing.⁵ It is less common that scholars work in projects with many people involved or projects which have been commissioned by some receiver. Humanistic researchers are simply not

4 See, however, Ruth Finnegan, *The hidden musicians. Music-making in an English town* (Cambridge, 1989); Odd Are Berkaak and Even Ruud, *Den påbegynte virkelighet: Studier i samtidskultur* (Oslo, 1992); Tia DeNora, *Music in everyday life* (Cambridge, 2000); Michael Bull, *Sounding out the city. Personal stereos and the management of everyday life* (Oxford, 2000); and Clayton, Herbert, and Middleton (eds.), *The cultural study of music*, as examples of studies dealing with such problems.

5 Karlsson, 'Musikvetenskaplig förmedling', and Lønstrup, 'Strategier i musikkforskningen?'

used to think in terms of ‘societal good’ or relevance. I am convinced, however, that we have to! It is a minimum demand that the scholar asks what relevance or usefulness his or her research has and who is interested in it (except the scholar himself!) etc.

SUGGESTIONS

It is my conviction that musicology, like any other discipline, must have contemporary problems as its starting point. In my opinion, the focus of modern musicology must primarily be on those musical forms and genres that the majority use and listen to. We have to have a keen eye for changes in musical behaviour and habits. What is to be considered as ‘contemporary problems’ and as immediate and pressing questions must be continuously discussed. So let me present some suggestions for a musicology of the future.

1. *All kinds of music can and have to be investigated!* Classical or art music does not have a unique position. An important field of study is how different ‘music worlds’ or genres relate to each other, and how people move between them and combine tastes for different types of music and musical activities.⁶

2. *Inspiration for this approach to the study of music can favourably be taken from ethnomusicology.* The ethnomusicologist Bruno Nettl once defined ethnomusicology as ‘what musicology ought to be but hasn’t become.’⁷ Music is part of the totality of human life and must be studied in context. Alan P. Merriam claimed that to get a comprehensive picture of the music of a foreign culture you must consider conceptualization about music, behaviour in relation to music, and music sound itself.⁸ It goes without saying that we ought to have the same perspective on music in our own culture!

To study the conceptualization of music means to investigate people’s ideas of music and how they describe, think and speak of music, and how they categorize, designate, and evaluate music. What from time to time has been seen as ‘low’ and ‘high’ music is a particularly interesting field.

To study the behaviour in relation to music means to focus on what you do in connection with music, and when, where, how, and why people use different kinds of music as well as what effect the music has.

Studying music sound is to investigate musical structures and how they are performed, and also how use, behaviour, and conceptualization about music cohere with different musical structures.

Music analysis is not a means in itself. It is a tool for describing and understanding how human beings communicate in non-verbal sounds (though often in combination with lyrics, i.e. semantic sounds). Music analysis is a study of how people express themselves in musical sounds, how musical styles, genres and conventions (‘languages’,

6 Finnegan, *The hidden musicians*.

7 Bruno Nettl, *The study of ethnomusicology. Twenty-nine issues and concepts* (Chicago and London, 1983), 3.

8 Alan P. Merriam, *The anthropology of music* (Evanston, 1964), 32.

‘grammars’, ‘dialects’) are constructed and applied in different situations as well as how they change over time. It is just as important to investigate how music and musical ‘languages’ change, as it is to examine verbal language and its changes.

Music should thus be understood not only as objects, something that sounds, or musical ‘works’, but also as an activity, as something people do. The terms ‘musicking’ and ‘to music’, once coined by Christopher Small,⁹ comes to mind.

3. The study of music must *start from today’s perspective* at the same time as it has to have a historical perspective. Historical music, let us say Mozart, is used and valued and performed today, here and now, in other ways than when it was created. How did the music sound, and how has it been used, evaluated, and described in the past – and in the present day? How did the Western canon of musical works and composers originate, develop, and how has it been applied in different situations?

4. There are still enormous *gaps of ignorance within musicology* when it comes to many of the most popular and widespread musical expressions. We need profound and nuanced studies about everyday-music (from children’s songs to psalms) and popular genres: ‘svensktoppen’ and ‘danskoppen’ (Swedish and Danish main stream popular music), dance music, the innumerable subgenres within ‘rock’ and ‘pop’, techno, disco, schlager, film music, computer game music The project about Danish rock history is a commendable initiative – as well as the international conference *The local, the global and the regional* that was held in Copenhagen in October 2005.

If we do not understand commonplace musical forms and their use and attraction we do not have good enough tools to understand more exclusive forms of music either.

The obvious focus and aim of the humanities must be to get a versatile picture of human behaviour which is as complete and accurate as possible. To do this you cannot on any ground exclude any kind of human behaviour and activity, for instance musical styles and expressions, as less interesting, not possible to study, or not worthy of investigation. No musical sound or use is too ‘trite’ not to be studied.

5. When it comes to analysing music the problem is not only *which* music is analysed but also, and perhaps more important, *how* it is analysed. In my opinion many of musicology’s established models for music analysis can be questioned. Who really listens to music in the ways musicologists assume that they do?

Many analytical models presuppose a specific structural listening and ways to apprehend and experience music that only a small portion of the music’s audience and users apply and understand. There is a big difference between what might be called an analytical, structural or perhaps musicological approach or listening mode, and an everyday listening based primarily on uses like pleasure and enjoyment, relaxation, mood control, and dance.

As researchers we ought to start with the simple question: how do people really listen to and perceive music? What do different individuals apprehend of musical structures? What do lyrics mean to different people? What do you listen for in different genres? It might be worth a try to ground music theoretical thinking and con-

9 Christopher Small, *Musicking. The meanings of performing and listening* (Hannover, 1998).

cepts in the musical forms that the students of today are more familiar with than the traditional approach originally based on European art music. Another way could be to approach music theory through the modern computer programs for music making.

Even Ruud, professor of musicology in Oslo, has criticized musicology for being one of the most technical disciplines of the humanities whose analyses often get 'impenetrable for outsiders. The result is that musicology becomes isolated as a humanistic discipline, living its quiet life in a positivistic enclave'.¹⁰ Many analyses of music are written only for those with a solid knowledge of music theory and appear as gibberish for those who lack this knowledge. There certainly lies a challenge, not only for musicologists but for scholars in general, to present their analyses to a larger audience in understandable and popular ways.

Another problem is that traditional concepts of music theory in many cases are insufficient when analysing modern 'popular music' for instance. They may work well for those parameters in music that can be notated, but when it comes to the analysis and description of sound, rhythmic nuances, and inflections – parameters that are infinitely important in many forms of contemporary music – the tools of music analysis are rather unsophisticated. Developing new tools of music analysis is urgent.

6. There is a growing insight that many problems demand *interdisciplinary treatment*, and that neither the humanities alone, nor any other disciplinary field alone, can deliver thorough answers. In many cases it is necessary with teamwork and collaborations in projects between, for example, musicologists, psychologists, medical scientists, sociologists, economists, etc.

As a musicologist I have sometimes felt slightly estranged in relation to the ways advocates for other disciplines look at and study music, both when it comes to musical practice and concepts of music. Many more meetings are required between researchers from different disciplines to bring about deeper and better questions and approaches, solutions, and answers.

7. As a Swedish musicologist it must be my task to *investigate Swedish music* and Swedish musical culture. Who would do it otherwise? This also means that my research naturally should be presented in Swedish. My findings must, however, also be related to the musicological world at large. It is of utmost importance that good Swedish studies are translated into English or substantially summarized.

It has been claimed that Swedish dissertations ought to be written in English, but in many cases it will be strange and strained to read about Swedish music or lyrics, or any Swedish cultural matters, in a foreign language – not to mention what you lose in precision, depth, and nuance when you do not write in your first language.

This brings up yet another problem: the Anglicization of Swedish (or Danish) research. It is very easy to keep good contact with English-speaking scholars and their works, but contacts with musicology and other disciplines in non English-speaking areas ought to be much more frequent.

¹⁰ Berkaak and Ruud, *Den påbegynte virkelighet*, 209. Many other scholars have also discussed this problem, among them Cook, *Music, imagination, culture*.

8. On the other hand you cannot take for granted *what is to be considered as Swedish music in modern multi-cultural society*. Neither the Western canon of art music nor the history of Western ‘popular music’ is self-evidently relevant for people with non-Western backgrounds. How do we as musicologists deal with this? How can we involve differing cultural traditions in our teaching and research? Of course the problem is similar in other disciplines of the humanities, like, history, literature, and art.

9. *What do people do with music? And what does music do with people?* To my mind these are the most interesting and urgent questions. Music is an instrument that human beings use for different purposes. Music is an ideological tool, a means for orientation and an expression of values. A study of changes in musical sound and of people’s use and conceptualization of music can reveal a lot about social, cultural, and ideological conditions and changes. This approach has been called ethnomusicology on your home ground, doorstep musicology, the cultural study of music, or cultural musicology.

We urgently need deeper knowledge not only about characteristics of musical styles and genres but also about themes such as listening, dancing, how music is created, the collection of music, reading about music, music and identity (‘the soundtrack of my life’), great experiences of music, being a fan, local music histories, music and work, ceremonies, music, religion and the philosophy of life, music and the brain, the relation between music and health, music therapy, soundscapes, musical socialization and pedagogy, the relation between music and class, gender, and ethnicity, music festivals, live music, music production, music technology, changing musical patterns and behaviour The kind of musicology that mainly deals with ‘traditional’ music history, biographies of composers, and ‘traditional’ theoretical analyses of their works is less urgent in the present situation.

When I began to study musicology with Jan Ling in the early 1970s it soon became evident that you could gain immensely interesting insights to human behaviour by studying music. This is still a personal guiding star.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

It is my strong conviction that changes of the kind I have suggested are necessary if musicology should be a living, modern, and relevant discipline. We work on the taxpayer’s commission and money. It is our duty to deliver relevant, useful, and current knowledge about music and new and inventive perspectives on what it means to be a human being in present day society.

It is also the road we have to travel if we want to live up to the songs of praise about the usefulness of the humanities and the visions of what humanities ought to be that were expressed in the Swedish debate in 2005, as: ‘a place where society scrutinizes itself and becomes aware of itself’, a forum for ‘critical reflection’ or ‘critical examination from a historical perspective’, ‘a corrective and a stimulant to other sciences’, a tool for strengthening democracy.¹¹

11 The quotes are from contributions in the debate in *Dagens Nyheter* 2005 by Sara Danius, Lisbeth Larsson and Ebba Witt-Brattström.

Sven-Erik Liedman, professor of the history of ideas at Göteborg University, claimed almost thirty years ago that the usefulness of the humanities basically is ‘ideological’ by which he meant ‘all means to influence peoples’ concepts about the world, society, and themselves with research and research findings’¹²

Naturally this is valid for musicology as well. How these visions should be implemented is a most pressing issue that we as scholars and musicologists must address if the discipline is to survive.

12 Liedman, ‘Humanistiska forskningstraditioner i Sverige’, 10. See also Sven-Erik Liedman, ‘Den nya röda dagen och humanistens sotdöd’, *Glänta*, 2005/1–2, 92–96.

On the Aesthetics of 15th-Century Chansonniers

JANE ALDEN

It is hard to know whether it was the lavish presentation of the manuscripts, their inclusion of works by famous composers, or the frivolous subject matter of their texts that appealed most to owners of 15th-century chansonniers. The popularity of songs concerned with unrequited love, chivalry, New Year celebrations, and the vagaries of Fortune's wheel is already evident in earlier sources. But these chansonniers are more than simple repositories of song: the poetic texts, accompanying music, careful calligraphy, border decoration, and delicate illuminations invite – of readers past and present – multiple and interrelated modes of reading. Indeed, what sets these manuscripts apart from earlier and later song collections is the extent to which the reading experience of their users was mediated by the interaction of their related components.

This article investigates the semiotics of 15th-century chansonniers. I will concentrate on two of the group of five related chansonniers – the so-called Copenhagen, Dijon, Laborde, Nivelles, and Wolfenbüttel chansonniers – believed to have been copied in the Loire Valley region in the third quarter of the 15th century.¹ These five manuscripts distinguish themselves on account of their small size, the choice of high quality parchment, careful musical notation, and attractive decoration. I will argue that although they are related, both in terms of facture and content, to other books then in private ownership, they offered their readers an experience that was unique in several key ways.

THE CHANSONNIER AS A 'POLYPHONIC TEXT'

An illuminated manuscript presents a multi-layered text that invites disparate kinds of reading. Its textual contents, page layout, and pictorial decoration together call for a reading that can be simultaneously narrative, non-linear, pictorial, and thematic. If the manuscript also contains musical notation, the complex act of apprehending polyphony is added into the reading experience. Indeed, polyphony itself can be seen as a metaphor for this complex experience. Even more than other secular manuscripts, chansonniers embody the ideal of the multifaceted object.

1 The manuscripts are now housed in the following libraries: Copenhagen, Kongelige Bibliotek, MS Thott 291, 8°; Dijon, Bibliothèque municipale, MS 517; Washington, Library of Congress, MS M2.1.L25 Case, the 'Laborde Chansonnier'; Paris, Bibliothèque nationale de France (BnF), département de la musique, Rés. Vmc. MS 57, 'Chansonnier Nivelles de la Chaussée'; Wolfenbüttel, Herzog August Bibliothek, MS Guelf. 287 Extrav. A thorough summary of the arguments in favour of their Loire Valley provenance can be found in Paula Higgins, 'Antoine Busnois and Musical Culture in Late Fifteenth-Century France and Burgundy' (Ph.D. diss.; Princeton University, 1987), 234–96.

The tradition of music manuscripts whose words, pictures, and notation all work in the same graphic space had been well established by the 15th century. A famous example is the Fountain of Youth in Chaillou de Pesstain's interpolated *Roman de Fauvel* (Paris, Bibliothèque nationale, MS fr.146, f. 42r), where the boundaries between music and illumination overlap so that music becomes part of the decorative make-up of the page.²

The distinctive semantic nature of such manuscripts has been recognized only recently. Though contemporary readers understood the complexity of these artifacts, scholars of medieval texts have often used language that suggests a polarization between word and image. Until the rise of 'new codicology', writing, depiction, and content were treated as different entities, tackled separately by paleographers, scholars of literature, art history, and music. Terms such as decoration and ornamentation were used to dismiss figuration from writing, as if it were superficial and superfluous to the text. More recent scholarship has come to focus on the materiality of books and their *mise-en-page*.³ This approach is particularly fruitful for the study of chansonniers, in relation to whose readers' experience the interaction of the verbal, visual, and musical is central.

On account of their small size, chansonniers are often compared to similarly diminutive manuscripts intended for personal, solitary use, such as Books of Hours and 'girdle' books.⁴ Small Books of Hours had an earlier vogue in the 13th and 14th centuries; their revival in the 15th century began in Paris but was soon overshadowed by their popularity in the Loire Valley, in the 1450s and 60s.⁵ Our group of chanson-

2 For extensive discussion of this manuscript, see Emma Dillon, *Medieval Music-Making and the Roman de Fauvel* (Cambridge, 2002). On the specific relationship of music to the Fountain of Youth, see 256–57.

3 See, in particular, Dillon, *Medieval Music-Making*; Michael Camille, *Image on the Edge: The Margins of Medieval Art* (Cambridge, Mass., 1992); Laura Kendrick, *Animating the Letter: The Figurative Embodiment of Writing from Late Antiquity to the Renaissance* (Columbus, Ohio, 1999); Keith Busby, *Codex and Context: Reading Old French Verse Narrative in Manuscript* (Amsterdam, 2002); Henri-Jean Martin and Jean Vezin (eds.), *Mise en page et mise en texte du livre manuscrit* (Paris, 1990); Henri-Jean Martin et al. (eds.), *La naissance du livre moderne (XIVe-XVIIe siècles): mise en page et mise en texte du livre français* (Paris, 2000).

4 Sometimes described as the 'best-sellers' of the Middle Ages, the popularity of Books of Hours needs hardly be restated. Though only a few survive, the frequent depiction of girdle books in paintings and sculpture attests to their similarly wide popularity; see J.A. Szirmai, *The Archaeology of Medieval Bookbinding* (Aldershot, 1999), 236–39.

5 Examples of miniature-sized Books of Hours copied in Tours (c.1470) include the so-called Hours of Diane de Croy (Sheffield, Ruskin Gallery, R. 3548) and the Hours with the devise 'Hale ce moine' (Paris, BnF, MS n.a.l. 3203), respectively 102 x 69 mm and 93 x 70 mm; see François Avril, *Jean Fouquet: peintre et enlumineur du XVe siècle* (Paris, 2003), 364–68. For an example of an earlier and even smaller precedent, see the Hours of Jeanne d'Evreux (New York, The Metropolitan Museum of Art, The Cloisters Collection, Acc. 54.1.2), made in Paris in the early 14th century (c.1325), and measuring only 89 x 62 mm. The most prolific period in the Parisian production of Books of Hours was between 1400 and the arrival in Paris of the English armies of Henry V in 1420. The foreign occupation of Paris led many scribes and illuminators to flee to the provinces; see Christopher de Hamel, *A History of Illuminated Manuscripts* (2nd edn.; London, 1994), 184–85.

niers originated in the same region at approximately the same time and their physical appearance (size, illumination, support, etc.) was clearly influenced by this trend. Their secular content, by contrast, allies them more closely with other deluxe secular manuscripts, such as poetry anthologies and romances. Though related to these devotional and literary texts, chansonniers are differentiated by the inclusion of music.

SONGS OF LOVE AND LONGING

Chansonniers belong to the tradition of vernacular chivalric poetry, which, from the troubadours onwards, was concerned with singing about love. By making reference to the established conventions of *fin'amors*, writers of chansons created an allegorical space of love. As is well known, the formalized object of adoration was a lady of high standing. Convention required that her suitor's love be unrequited: while her role was to educate her lover, whose moral standing must be improved to make him worthy of her, his role was to behave with humility and respect, and to endure suffering for her sake. The playing out of these roles formed the *topos* of most chansons: the same types of characters, and even some of the same allegorical figures, are found in both musical and textual sources.⁶ The shorter length of song texts, however, precludes the narrative that characterizes romances. As a result, the significance of the themes shared between chansonniers and poetry anthologies derives more from participation in the same frame of reference than from the specifics of their content.

Although little is known of the circumstances in which chansonniers were made and used, the subject matter of their texts suggests they would have been particularly suitable as gifts for weddings or other intimate celebratory occasions. In his famous *Art de dictier* (1392), Eustache Deschamps describes love poetry as a 'natural music ... because the *dits* and songs or metered books they make are read with the mouth, and proffered by voice if not sung'. Such poetry was read aloud ('with the mouth'), but often only 'between lords and ladies in secret and private retreat', with obvious erotic implications.⁷

The chansonniers' main theme, love, was expanded and reinforced by the illuminations, in accordance with standard practice in books intended for the aristocratic market. The imagery drew on familiar tropes of courtly love as a way of imbuing these books with a noble pedigree. The specific aristocratic context of this love was clarified by the illuminations: courtly and rustic images frequently appear alongside one another, serving to distance the aristocratic ideal from the everyday; the privileged are juxtaposed with 'ordinary folk' as a way of showing all characters assuming their rightful place in the ordered view of society much cherished by the nobility.

6 The themes evoked in chanson texts are discussed by Howard Garey, in his introduction to the Mellon chanson; see *The Mellon Chansonnier*, ed. Leeman L. Perkins and Howard Garey (New Haven, 1979), 63–79.

7 'Pour ce que les diz et chançons par eulx faiz ou les livres metrifiez se lisent de bouche, et profèrent par voix non pas chantable'; text and translation given by Joyce Coleman, *Public Reading and the Reading Public in Late Medieval England and France* (Cambridge, 1996), 113–14.

INTRODUCING IMAGES TO TEXTS

Books provided a pleasant pastime, but were also intended to be instructive. Romances were the most popular, followed by histories, philosophical, moral, and advisory texts. 15th-century owners of such books were able not only to identify with great historical heroes, but also to show the refinement of their court. Books describing the lives of Alexander the Great, Charlemagne, and other role models were commissioned and offered as flattering mirrors of their owners. The large size of these manuscripts – they are a world apart from small personal or devotional books – suggests that they were read from lecterns, so that all those assembled could see and follow the lavish illuminations. Here, illuminations offered particularly suitable objects of identification: according to the chronicler of Charles VII, Gilles Le Bouvier, merely looking at heroic images ennobled the spectator.⁸

It is noteworthy that whereas the texts of these histories – originally written in Latin or Greek – were not illustrated, their French translations were illuminated as a way of adapting the texts to the wishes and exigencies of the new public. The narratives were visually recontextualized with identifiable contemporary buildings (including St Gatien, Tours; le palais de la Cité, Paris; and the chateau at Mehun-sur-Yèvre, near Bourges) acting as substitutes for their historical counterparts.⁹ This visual glossing served as a way of making historical events present, with the manuscripts self-consciously prefiguring the histories their owners hoped would be written about them. Even in less prestigious manuscripts, the figures in illuminated initials form part of a dynamic exchange between past and present, helping the reader identify with typologies of chivalry. In providing, in lavish format, a pictorial commentary on vernacular texts, these manuscripts prefigure chansonniers, particularly the extent to which they combined the visual, aural, and literary to carry a message that was more than the sum of its parts. Though chansonniers radically depart from the epic tradition in terms of content, they served similar purposes, as books for leisure reading. The decorated borders and initials found in chansonniers drew on a vocabulary borrowed from historical, as well as devotional texts.¹⁰

8 Le Bouvier described seeing pictures of ‘the kings of France and Sicily’ as ‘a very noble thing’ (‘c’estoit moult noble chose a veoir les ... roys de France et de Cecille’); in Gilles Le Bouvier dit le Héraut Berry, *Les Chroniques du roi Charles VII*, published for the Société de l’histoire de France by Henri Courteault and Léonce Celier, with the collaboration of Marie-Henriette Jullien de Pommerol (Paris, 1979), 319.

9 Jean Fouquet added, c.1470, a number of illuminations to a large and impressive manuscript begun more than 50 years earlier for Jean, Duke of Berry. The manuscript (in two volumes) is a translation of *Antiquitatum Iudaicarum* (Les Antiquités judaïques), by Flavius Josephus (Paris, BnF, MS fr. 247 and n.a.f. 21013). Particularly striking is the illustration of the siege of Jericho, which appears to be taking place on the banks of the Loire (rather than the Jordan), and Solomon’s temple in Jerusalem, which is a lush depiction of St Gatien, Tours.

10 Mary Olson discusses the common iconographic codes shared by artists; see Mary C. Olson, *Fair and Varied Forms: Visual Textuality in Medieval Illuminated Manuscripts* (New York, 2003), 166.

INTRODUCING MUSIC TO TEXTS

Even if a patron was not musically literate, he or she was able to gain entry into the conceptual performance of its texts by owning a book of music. Indeed, chansons were no doubt popular in a way that sacred music, because of its more specifically functional nature, could never aspire to be.¹¹ Because of their more modest length and strophic musical forms, non-musicians could gain familiarity with songs relatively easily. The demarcation of phrases is usually determined by the texts, which would often have been familiar from poetry anthologies. Whatever their musical background, then, patrons could hope to gain quite a close knowledge of the pieces contained in their chansonniers. Certainly, the fact that chansonniers contain music implies that their patron benefited from musical notation. After all, why else pay to have it copied in this manner?

But even if chansonniers were consciously produced for semi-literate ‘end users’, this did not mean that the accuracy of their musical content was in any way compromised: the luxuriously decorated Loire Valley chansonniers provide our best and often our only sources for much of the 15th-century song repertory. Indeed, works by all the best-known composers of the time are included in these manuscripts. Symbols of prosperity they may have been, but these chansonniers are not mere notational exemplars – they are collections of known musical works, consciously compiled as song anthologies.

VISUAL MUSIC

The 15th century saw the development of white mensural notation, arguably the most elegant form of musical script ever used.¹² It is probably no accident that this notational development should coincide with a rapid expansion in the market for books with music, suggesting that musical manuscripts may have gained in value as visual objects, irrespective of whether the patron was musically literate. The pictorial use of musical notation was not new to the 15th century, the most striking precedents being the pieces by Baude Cordier and Jaquemin de Senleches in the Chantilly

¹¹ In general terms, this is supported by the wider distribution of chanson sources. Whereas for a mass or motet to survive in as many as three sources is unusual, many chansons survive in more than ten sources, and some a good deal more.

¹² The development of white or void notation was motivated – at least in the first instance – by pragmatic rather than aesthetic considerations. Where, when, and, most importantly why this change from black notation took place is still being debated. The change coincided with the gradual shift from parchment to paper, and was almost certainly a response to the problems caused by the corrosive effect of black ink (particularly of filled notes) on paper; see Marie-Noël Colette, Marielle Popin, and Philippe Vendrix, *Histoire de la notation musicale au Moyen Âge et à la Renaissance* (Paris, 2003), 141–42. Ink was expensive, and filling all the note-heads was time-consuming. As the demand for books grew, so too did the need for scribes to be able to copy efficiently. A chansonnier scribe needed a finely-cut pen to copy texts into these small books. Void notation allowed the same pen to be used for the music (rather than the wider nib used to fill black note heads); see Richard Rastall, *The Notation of Western Music: An Introduction* (2nd rev. edn.; Leeds, 1998), 101–2.

codex. These *ars subtilior* pieces were clearly intended to be read as much as heard. Their visual idiosyncrasies are an integral or perhaps the most crucial part of their meaning.¹³ The aesthetic and decorative appeal of musical notation can be gauged from the fact that in 1414 the young Charles d'Orléans had the song *Madame je suis plus joyeulx* embroidered in pearls onto a cloak (960 pearls for the text and 568 for the music, providing four pearls arranged in a square for each note): this object of pure luxury – it cost £276/7s/6d *livres tournois* (a sum in excess of the annual salary of most court officials) – strikingly attests to the high aesthetic value of musical notation *per se*, independent of any performance context.¹⁴

That musical notation was valued on aesthetic grounds is further underscored by its inclusion in paintings, murals, and intarsia. Walter Frye's motet *Ave regina celorum* appears in two paintings attributed to the Master of the Embroidered Foliage (an artist active in the Southern Netherlands in the late 15th century), both of the Madonna and Child. In one painting (now in Paris), an angel musician holds a choirbook with two voices of Frye's motet; in the other painting (now in Polizzi Generosa, Sicily) an angel sings from a scroll containing the beginning of the Tenor voice of the motet. The same work, complete with all three voices, is found on the ceiling of the oratory in the château at Montreuil Bellay.¹⁵

Two well-known chansons survive in marquetry in Italian palaces: Isabella d'Este had Ockeghem's canon *Prenez sur moy* inlaid in the walls of her *grotta* in Mantua (Palazzo Ducale) and Federico III da Montefeltro had *J'ay pris amours* inlaid in his *studiolo* at Urbino.¹⁶ Federico is himself the dedicatee of a second song, *Bella gerit musasque colit Federicus in omni*, also found in the intarsia. The *studiolo* contains numerous *imprese* (mottos and emblems) belonging to the duke, including the emblem

13 Works by Baude Cordier include the heart-shaped *Belle, bonne, sage* as well as the canonic *Tout par compas*, notated in two concentric circles, drawn as if with a compass; the text of Senleches' song *La harpe de melodie*, written in the shape of a harp, with the notes written on staff lines formed by the strings of the harp, tells the reader 'The harp should indeed gladden all with a melody written without melancholy for pleasure to see and hear the music played'; for further discussion of these pieces, see James Haar, 'Music as Visual Object: the Importance of Notational Appearance', *L'edizione critica tra testo musicale e testo letterario*, ed. Renato Borghi and Pietro Zappalà (Lucca, 1995), 97–128; and Reinhard Strohm, "'La Harpe de mélodie" oder das Kunstwerk als Akt der Zueignung', in Hermann Danuser et al. (eds.), *Das musikalische Kunstwerk: Geschichte. Aesthetik. Theorie: Festschrift Carl Dahlhaus zum 60. Geburtstag* (Laaber, 1988), 303–16.

14 Details of compensation paid to French court musicians can be found in Leeman L. Perkins, 'Musical Patronage at the Royal Court of France under Charles VII and Louis XI (1422–83)', *Journal of the American Musicological Society*, 37/3 (1984), 507–66. For sources on Charles d'Orléan's commission (dated 1414, when he was 20 years old), see David Fallows, *A Catalogue of Polyphonic Songs, 1415–1480* (Oxford, 1999), 265.

15 Fallows, *A Catalogue*, 572–73.

16 On *Prenez sur moy*, see Fallows, *A Catalogue*, 326; on *J'ay pris amours*, see *ibid.*, 195. For further discussion of the intarsia, see William Prizer, 'Isabella d'Este and Lorenzo da Pavia, "Master Instrument-Maker"', *Early Music History*, 2 (1982), 87–127; see also Nicoletta Guidobaldi, *La musica di Federico: Immagini e suoni alla corte di Urbino* (Florence, 1995), 46, 49–59, and pl. 28 for a facsimile of the intarsia of *J'ay pris amours*; also Gustave Reese, 'Musical Compositions in Renaissance Intarsia', *Medieval and Renaissance Studies*, 2 (Durham, 1968), 74–97 and pl. 4.

of the Order of the Garter (bestowed on him by Edward IV in 1474). Whatever personal significance these songs had for Federico, their inclusion here suggests something akin to a musical *impresa*.

In none of these circumstances is notation directly related to performance – that is, these hardly seem suitable as performance texts. Rather, these images attest to an interest in the visual representation of music. The use of musical notation in these non-practical contexts is the outcome of a desire to elevate objects above the functional realm – part and parcel of an aspiration that the nobility practised comprehensively in other areas. If musical notation was valued in its own right, then what better medium for its calligraphic development than an illuminated chansonnier? These manuscripts were clearly not prepared in a hurry, nor produced out of musical necessity for use in performance.¹⁷ As principally aesthetic objects, they offered the scribes the opportunity to experiment with musical notation in the broader context of a decorated page.

PAGE LAYOUT

The page layout of chansonniers contributes to the aim of creating visually satisfying musical presentations. In liturgical manuscripts of polyphonic music, voice parts were, of necessity, written in choirbook format (*cantus collateralis*), so that the singers could gather around and perform from the one book. Chansonniers were also copied in choirbook format, but whereas the nature of the repertory transmitted in sacred manuscripts meant it was rarely possible for whole pieces to be presented across an opening, this situation was normal in chansonniers.

In fact, chansons were so musically compact that complete texts could usually be presented on each opening even in the smallest of these manuscripts.¹⁸ Since the majority of chansons are for only three voices, the text could be copied onto the verso leaves, under the discantus.¹⁹ The result is that almost every opening of a chansonnier portrays a musical whole. Thus, these manuscripts presented the reader with the opportunity to contemplate discrete musical works as visual entities; more than simply preserving chansons for posterity, they translated a musical experience – adorned with visual decoration – onto a page in all its immediacy.

17 As Craig Wright observed, these manuscripts show few signs of use by performers; see his ‘Voices and Instruments in the Art Music of Northern France during the 15th Century: A Conspectus’, in Daniel Hertz and Bonnie Wade (eds.), *International Musicological Society, Report of the Twelfth Congress, Berkeley 1977* (Kassel 1981), 643–49, on 644.

18 The Laborde Chansonnier is the smallest of the Loire Valley group, measuring only 126 x 92 mm, with a copying space of approximately 95 x 60 mm. The Wolfenbüttel Chansonnier is only a little bigger, at 148 x 104 mm. Dijon and Copenhagen are approximately 170 x 120 mm and the Chansonnier Nivelles de la Chaussée measures 190 x 133 mm.

19 In sacred manuscripts, choirbook format meant that the discantus and tenor were usually copied on the verso leaves, and the altus and contratenor on the facing recto, the voices supplying the *discant* thus appearing on the same leaf. In chansonniers, the pattern was to place both lower voices on the facing recto, leaving the discantus alone on the verso in three-voice songs.

The inclusion of music in chansonniers had repercussions on its graphic presentation, involving some aesthetic choices by the scribe. For example, all of the virelais in the Copenhagen Chansonnier are copied over two openings (the refrain on the first, and the couplets on the second). Both musically and visually, the two openings each have distinct identities: in musical terms, the form of the virelai is sharply differentiated in the couplet section, on account of the internal repetition. The contrast between the music of the refrain and that of the couplets is symbolically represented – at least in the Copenhagen Chansonnier – in the notation. The scribe was forced to compress the notation of virelai refrains, in order to accommodate their longer musical texts. But couplets presented a different challenge: their music might be shorter (because of the repeat), but two lines of text are underlaid to each line of music. Though his script for these texts is very compressed, the scribe did not apply the same degree of compression to the music, but instead chose to space out the notes (see Figure 1). The distinct characters that form the initials reinforce the visual contrast between the two openings, further reflecting the musical change in mood and pace.²⁰

With the combined presentation of verbal, visual, and musical aspects, the reader is invited to pursue a number of visual paths across the page. Even from a purely musical point of view, though he or she might grasp an overall sense of a song, its choirbook format forces the reader to follow only one voice at a time. Similarly, the need to match the additional text strophes to the music calls on the reader to play an active role in the poem's reconstruction. The layout of the page thus made readers aware of their own interpretative activity. The same process, by which each of the components is read separately, applies equally to the border decorations and illuminations.

BORDERS AND INITIALS

Floral borders reinforce the fictional dimension of these song texts by providing them with an ornamental trellis reminiscent of the borders of a garden. The symbolic association would not have been lost on readers familiar with the walled garden of the *Roman de la Rose*. The derivation of the French word for border (*bordure*) plays on a pun between *bords* (borders) and *bordes* (jests).²¹ Borders were – etymologically and symbolically – places for amusement, entertainment, frivolity, and bawdiness.²² Such allusions were intentional, as shown by the illuminators' inclusion of

20 This contrast is further accentuated by the different visual aspect of the two openings, the one using the hair side of the parchment, the other the flesh side. Gatherings were arranged so that hair-side leaves faced each other (and flesh faced flesh), in order to be visually consistent. Scribes almost always began virelais on hair-side openings, since this side of the parchment was better suited to densely-packed notes and stems, because the ink was less likely to spread.

21 The word *bordure* also stood for debauchery and whoring; see Alan Hindley, Frederick W. Langley, and Brian Levy, *Old French-English Dictionary* (Cambridge, 2000), 86.

22 Kendrick lists further cognates, such as *bordel* (brothel), *borderesse* (prostitute), *border* or *beborder* (to joust or to fight with or to play at hitting a mark with a lance), as well as *bordon* (bagpipe); see Laura Kendrick, 'The Jesting Borders of Chaucer's Canterbury Tales and of Late Medieval Manuscript Art', *Animating the Letter*, 217–25.

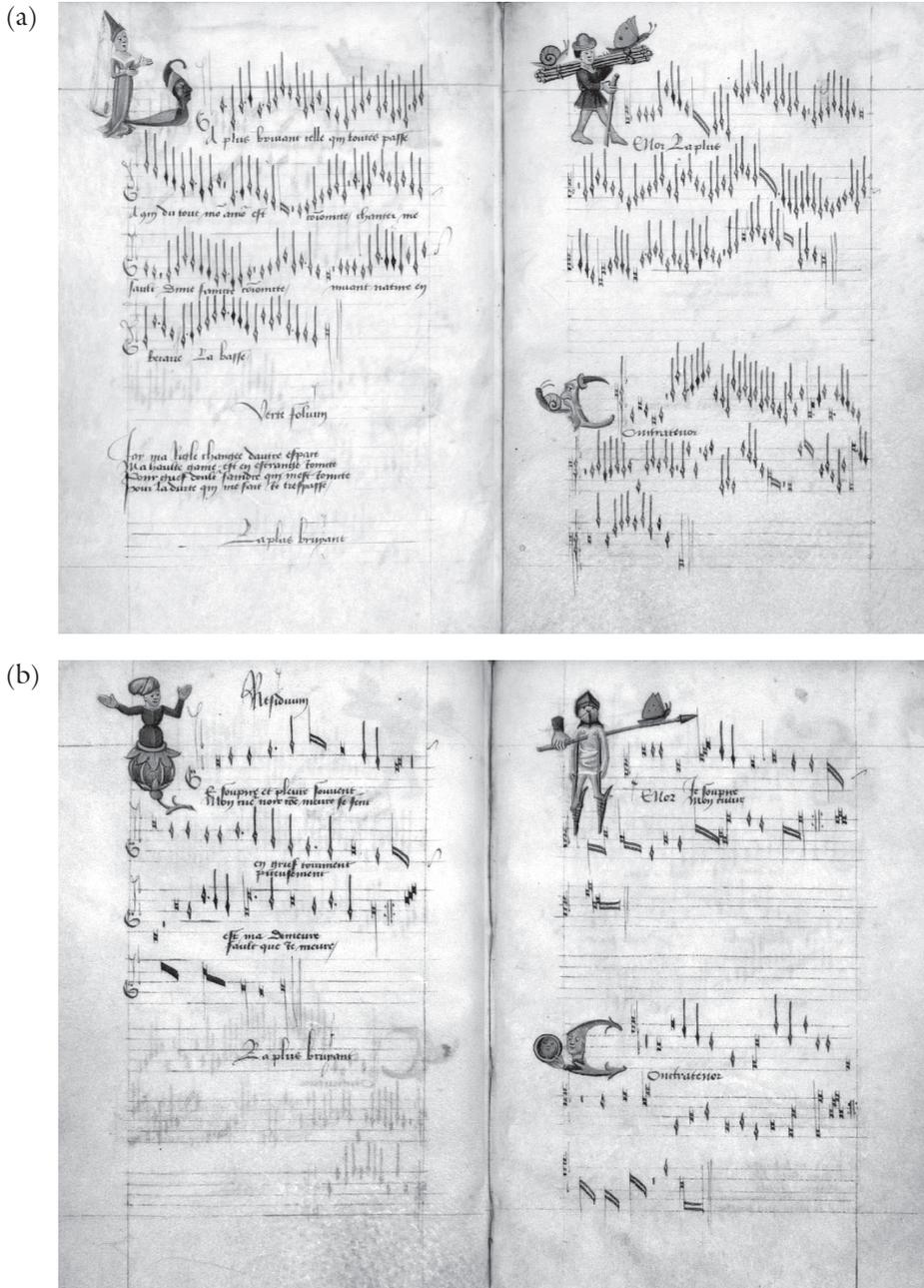


Figure 1. Copenhagen, Kongelige Bibliotek, MS Thott 291, 8^o; the ‘Copenhagen Chansonnier’, *La plus bruyant*, first opening, ff. 33v–34 (a), *Residuum*, ff. 34v–35 (b). Images reproduced from the website of the Royal Library, Copenhagen: http://base.kb.dk/pls/hsk_web/hsk_vis.forside?p_hs_loebenr=27.

verbal and visual puns in their margins.²³ There are numerous examples in illuminated manuscripts of figures playing horns or trumpeting (on which more below); though these images are immediately evocative of minstrelsy, they also pun on the word *tromperie* (trickery).²⁴ As I will show, the playful allusions of these puns are particularly well-suited to chansonniers. The illustrations in these books themselves comment on the nature of secular song: they are more than a decorative afterthought, instead serving as an adjunct to the reading apparatus.

Decorated initials immediately identify chansonniers as luxury objects. But they do much more. The musical and poetic texts, visually supported by flourished serifs and decorated borders, are often introduced using historiated initials. The relationship between the figures depicted in the initials and the text they preface is rarely direct, but the figures intrigue the reader, calling him or her to pause to explore the images they contain. Their eye-catching quality encourages readers to return again (and again) to the page and to rethink their response to the images portrayed. These large letters also have practical functions. They enable someone leafing through a manuscript to find songs by title. The animated letters can also trigger mnemonic responses: memorable images arouse the reader's emotions, and help them to recall the specific pieces the initials introduce.²⁵ In his magisterial book *Likeness and Presence*, Hans Belting argues that in the Middle Ages art for art's sake did not exist.²⁶ Books were decorated for a purpose; every image functioned in some capacity – to inform, to aid in devotion, to facilitate memorization, or to explain.

The most striking aspect of the initials in the Copenhagen Chansonnier is that instead of the usual structure of letters onto which ornamentation is grafted, the initials are themselves composed of the decorative characters.²⁷ Thus, the finely-dressed courtly lady seen on the verso leaf of Figure 1a herself forms the vertical stroke of the letter 'L' for the song *La plus bruyant* (with a grotesque forming the horizontal stroke). The letter 'T' (for tenor) on the facing recto is formed by a man carrying logs and a staff (his body making the vertical stroke and the logs and staff the horizontal stroke for the top of the letter). Beneath him, a grotesque with a snail tongue forms the 'C' of contratenor. The nobility of the lady is in contrast to the

23 For discussion of visual puns, see Camille, *Image on the Edge*, especially 36–47.

24 An exceptionally rich web of puns derived from the common root *trompe*: *baillier la trompe* was to act the fool; *jouer de la trompette* was to trick someone (with a pun on *tromper*); and a *trompeur* was not only a trumpeter or horn-blower, but also one who mocked others; see Hindley, Langley, and Levy, *Old French–English Dictionary*, 594. Frédéric Godefroy gives a contemporary use of *trompeur* found in *Les cent nouvelles nouvelles* (1486): 'L'official voyant que ce estoit ung vray trompeur, et qu'il se trompoit de luy'; see Frédéric Godefroy, *Dictionnaire de l'ancienne langue française, et de tous ses dialectes du IXe au XVe siècle*, 10 vols. (Geneva, 1982) viii. 84.

25 See Mary J. Carruthers, *The Book of Memory: A Study of Memory in Medieval Culture* (Cambridge, 1990), 257.

26 Hans Belting, *Likeness and Presence: A History of the Image Before the Era of Art*, trans. Edmund Jephcott (Chicago, 1994), originally published as *Bild und Kult: Eine Geschichte des Bildes vor dem Zeitalter der Kunst* (Munich, 1990).

27 The initials in the Wolfenbüttel Chansonnier seem to have been illuminated by artists in the same atelier, even though the music of this manuscript was copied some years before the Copenhagen Chansonnier.

rustic attire of the man on the opposite page; judging from the position of her hands and her open mouth, she appears to be addressing him, but he is facing the opposite direction and apparently walking away. As we have seen, spreading virelais over two openings allowed the illuminators to give the second part of each song a different iconographic program. This is the case with the second opening of *La plus bruyant* (Figure 1b), where the lady emerging from a floral bud sharply contrasts with her predecessor on the first opening: judging from her attire, she is not a noble lady. Facing her on the opposite page is a naked knight on stilts – a ridiculed aristocrat, impaled on a spear held by an anonymous hand (the illuminator's?).²⁸

Most of the figures depicted in chansonnier initials would be equally at home in non-musical manuscripts; indeed, the people, animals, and objects represented tell of the extent to which these manuscripts belonged to a broader culture of decorated books. Animals, people, grotesques, and angels are frequently depicted with instruments, in both sacred and secular books. The popularity of visual, verbal, and musical puns on the word *trompe* (discussed previously) becomes significant in light of the iconographic depiction of wind instruments in the decorated initials of chansonniers (see Figures 2a, 2b, and 2c). While these figures are depicted *with* wind instruments there are a number of others depicted *as* instruments. These characters go beyond the representation of music to its deliberate embodiment.

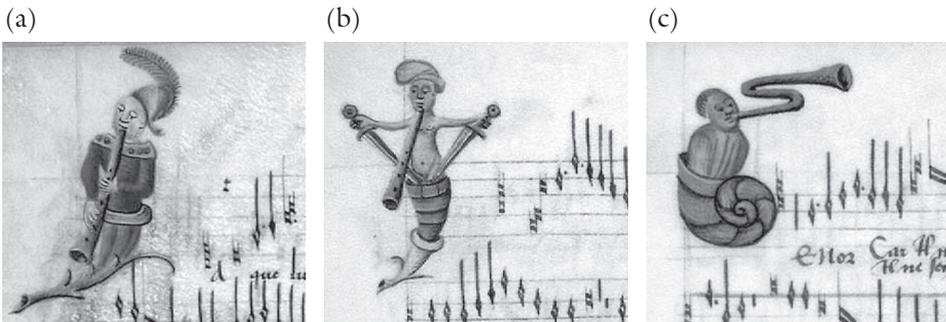


Figure 2. Copenhagen Chansonnier, *Ja que li ne*, f. 37v (a), *Garison scay/Je suis mire*, Residuum, f. 19 (b), *Soudainement mon cueur*, Residuum, f. 29 (c), (cf. fig. 1).

A wide variety of initials are found in the Dijon Chansonnier.²⁹ The figures inhabiting the letrines (demarcated space around the letters) are mostly grotesques and

28 For discussion of the technical musical terms in the text of *La plus bruyant*, of the interplay between text and music, and a new edition of the song, see Peter Woetmann Christoffersen, 'Æslets skryden og sang gennem tårer: Billeder i musik i 1400-tallets populære og kunstfulde traditioner' (The Braying of the Ass and Singing through Tears: Pictures in Music in 15th-Century Popular and Courtly Traditions), *Musik & Forskning*, 26 (2001), 97–134.

29 Though the same scribe copied both the Copenhagen and Dijon Chansonniers, the manuscripts were not decorated by the same artists. The initials in Dijon are not of the same quality as those found in Copenhagen and Wolfenbüttel, and over half of Dijon remains undecorated. There are no guide letters for initials (generally added to assist the illuminator) in the undecorated part of the manuscript, making it possible that the scribe was himself responsible for the decorated initials, and guide letters were therefore unnecessary.

caricatures, accompanied by various creatures. Three letters contain faces with noses turned into wind instruments. The first appears in the contratenor initial of *Le resiouy* (see Figure 3a). His musical nose points directly at the clef, crossing the boundary line of the lettrine to do so. The same face, still scowling, appears in the tenor of *Jamais si bien* (see Figure 3b), this time with his nose bent down so that he can play it with his right hand. There are three holes, though his fingers are superimposed over the lower two holes, so only the top one is darkened. The third appearance of this curious frowning character is in the contratenor initial of *Tart ara quaresme* (see Figure 3c). This is the most exaggerated nose of the three: the ‘instrument’ has a number of holes and takes on a cornet or trunk-like shape.³⁰

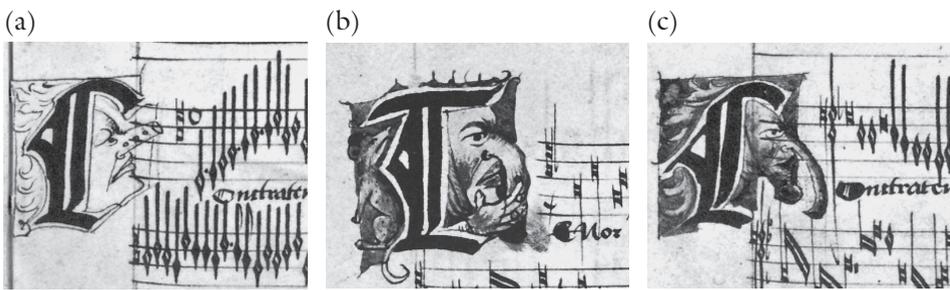


Figure 3. Dijon, Bibliothèque municipale, MS 517, *Le resiouy d'une seule esperance*, f. 34 (a), *Jamais si bien*, f. 52 (b), *Tart ara quaresme*, f. 58 (c). Dragan Plamenac (ed.), *Dijon, Bibliothèque publique, manuscrit 517*, Publications of Mediaeval Music Manuscripts, no. 12 (Brooklyn: Institute of Medieval Music, n.d. [1971]).

A grotesque creature with an instrumental nose is also found in the Copenhagen chansonnier, as the discantus initial of Hayne's *De tous biens plaine* – one of the most popular songs of the 15th century (see Figure 4a). Another grotesque – the discantus initial of the similarly popular song *D'un autre amer* by Ockeghem has an even longer protuberance emerging from his nose, which may symbolize yet another wind instrument (see Figure 4b).³¹

³⁰ Aside from the obvious pun on the dual meaning of the noun *trompe* – as both trumpet and elephant's trunk – the related verb *trompeter* suggests further possible meanings: this was a verb used to describe the act of speaking with a loud voice, which could perhaps be extended to singing; see Algirdas Julien Greimas and Teresa Mary Keane, *Dictionnaire du moyen français: la Renaissance* (Paris, 1992).

³¹ Musical instrument creatures are also found outside of chansonniers; for example, there is a wingless bird with a long beak in the form of a wind instrument (with five holes) in a Book of Hours dating from c.1480, now in New York Public Library (Spencer MS 43); see John Plummer, *The Last Flowering: French Painting in Manuscripts, 1420–1530, from American Collections* (New York, 1982), no. 98.

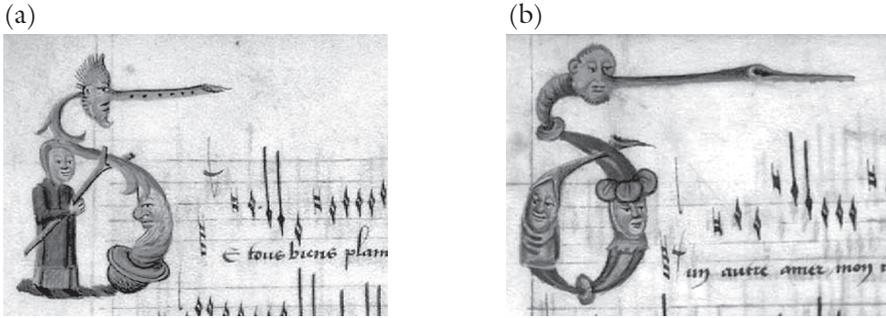


Figure 4. Copenhagen Chansonnier, *De tous biens plaine*, f. 4v (a), *D'un autre amer*, f. 32v (b), (cf. fig. 1).

These *bordes* in the *bords* take the humorous initials found in the Dijon and Copenhagen chansonniers one stage further, with the physical body providing the instrument of play. The ‘trumpeters’ shown here play an active role in bringing this music to life. Perhaps the purpose of these embodied wind instruments was to allow those not musically literate to participate in, or be witness – in a musical sense – to the songs contained in the chansonniers. They were a way of articulating the place of music *within* the culture of aristocratic books, rather than alongside it. The bawdy initials provided a witty counterpart to the elegant and refined musical notation found in these chansonniers.

CONCLUSION

To an unprecedented degree, a cultural emphasis on display motivated the patronage of the arts in 15th-century France. Collecting and commissioning books and manuscripts was a way of demonstrating the status of the patron: by implication, the more extravagant the decoration, the more splendid the owner. A direct association is suggested between owner and subject matter: someone with the means to commission a book describing – in song – an amorous world of earthly pleasures belonged to that world. In this way, elaborately decorated books served to reinforce the public apprehension of the prestige and social standing of their patrons, attesting at the same time to their refinement.

It was this social context that favoured the cultivation of chansonniers. These luxury objects artfully combine love poetry, lavish decoration, and meticulous musical notation. They may have been associated with live musical events, but their close relationship to other secular manuscripts makes clear that they also participated in a broader cultural tendency to mythologize and make permanent the authority of the people whose patronage occasioned their copying. Though their owners were probably unable themselves to read mensural music, they understood that the purpose of the musical notation was to provide the means to make polyphony. In this way, these songbooks demonstrated the largesse of their patron, attesting to courts endowed with literate, skilled musicians, and owners who recognized the value of this art.

The poetic forms and the border decorations found in these chansonniers are drawn from established generic categories to form a web of recurring patterns. Motivic play between voices and thematic references between songs, though outside the scope of this study, provide a further aspect of patterning particular to the musical content of these books. Chansonniers contain *visual representations* of songs, captured and recorded on parchment for posterity. The inclusion of musical iconography in the borders and initials provides evidence that the enjoyment of their readers derived in large part from the specifically musical content.

Chansonniers were a way of preserving a musical culture as an artifact in its own right. In the same way that a patron would identify or wish to be identified with mythological or historical figures from the past, the performing patron – even if fictional – sought to embody the values in these books of song. Owners engaged in reading, seeing, hearing, and even singing from their chansonniers would have understood these books to embody the interaction of verbal, visual, and musical symbols. The task of readers, both past and present, is to undertake these activities simultaneously, so that the multiple narratives can work in conjunction with one another.

SUMMARY

The most distinct aspect of 15th-century chansonniers is their simultaneous presentation of text, music, and image. Whether their owners looked on these books as records of past musical events or repositories for future occasions, the songs they contain acquired a visual identity from their elegant presentation in these small, deluxe, personal manuscripts. The inclusion of decorative borders and illuminated initials expanded the appeal of chansonniers to readers with varied levels of musical literacy. As such, these books were able to symbolize and represent the musical interests of their patrons in very tangible terms. The attention paid by scribes to the visual representation of music can be seen in the well-designed page layout, clarity of musical notation, and musical iconography. Decorative characters in initials (here and elsewhere) often play horns or trumpets, but for a number of figures in these manuscripts the wind instruments they play are parts of their own bodies. This playful embodiment of music suggests that chansonniers were valued as musical objects even by those unable to read their contents.

Between sociology and aestheticism

– yet another attempt to bridge over troubled water

OLLE EDSTRÖM

Whereas humanist scholars try to avoid the Scylla of reducing art to its social function, social scientists dread the Charybdis of a purified, defunctionalized, formalistic conception of art ... Taken together, if properly used, their approaches are capable of complementarity.

Vera Zolberg¹

The present article has been developed as yet another attempt to contribute to the question of what music is, what is meant by ‘understanding’ music, and what music ‘means’.² My point of departure is that the musicological school I represent has recently been discussed in two separate articles in *The Swedish Journal of Musicology*. In the first of these articles the sociologist Peter Martin argues that the musicological/ethnological approach used in the majority of studies published in the series of publications from my department do not to a sufficient degree incorporate sociological aspects.³ In the second article the music historian Bo Marschner takes the opposite stand, arguing that these studies, and not the least mine, to a far too great extent are directed towards the category which he terms ‘life’, largely social aspects – in opposition to the ‘musical work’.⁴

Within the limitations an article allows for, I will thoroughly discuss both Martin’s external (social) perspective and Marschner’s ‘internal’ works or aesthetic perspective, but first I will address briefly ‘the biological’ as well as other ‘pre-social’ basic prerequisites. Thus, in my opinion, there is important knowledge to be drawn upon from disciplines such as linguistics and psychology, knowledge that makes it possible to see the opposition between ‘life’ and ‘work’, a notion increasingly developed from the eighteenth century and onwards, from a more elucidated point of view.

1 Vera Zolberg, *Constructing a sociology of the arts* (Cambridge, 1990), 12.

2 This is a topic I have previously explored on several occasions, see Olle Edström, ‘Musikens ursprung – fåglar – människan’, in Per-Erik Brolinson et al. (eds.), *Skriftfest. 19 uppsatser om musik tillägnade Martin Tegen på hans 60-årsdag* (Värgårda, 1979), 63–80; ‘Till förståelsen av musikupplevelsen’, *Svensk tidskrift för musikforskning*, 68 (1986), 17–38; ‘Fr-a-g-m-en-ts – A discussion on the position of critical ethnomusicology in contemporary musicology’, *Svensk tidskrift för musikforskning*, 79 (1997/1), 9–68; and *En Annan berättelse om den västerländska musikhistorien – och det estetiska projektet* (Göteborg, 2002). I see the present article as an overview for a forthcoming book. The article has been translated from Swedish into English by Mats d Hermansson in collaboration with the author. All quotations in Danish and Norwegian have been translated too.

3 Peter Martin, ‘Music and the Sociological Gaze’, *Svensk tidskrift för musikforskning*, 82 (2000), 41–56.

4 Bo Marschner, “‘Værk’ og “liv” som (modstridende?) musikvidenskabelige grundlag’ (‘Work’ and ‘life’ as (contradicting?) foundations of musicology), *Svensk tidskrift för musikforskning*, 86 (2004), 11–27.

BEFORE MARTIN AND MARSCHNER

The music pedagogue Bennet Reimer recently wrote about an experience he had in China.⁵ After hearing an elite ensemble perform a traditional instrumental piece, he was surprisingly asked: 'So what do you think that piece was about?' As he didn't know what to answer the conductor said:

'We'll play it again.' He spoke to the ensemble briefly and they repeated the piece, this time even louder and more frantically ... The best I could do was to say, when they finished: 'Well, it sure is an exciting situation there.' 'But you still don't know what is going on? ... It's about a battle in a swamp,' he said, incredulous that their performance could have been any clearer than that was what the music was describing.⁶

If Reimer had been more knowledgeable, he would have known that the traditional Chinese way of understanding music is by focusing on what Reimers calls 'delineation', whereas he listened to the actual music itself, its 'inherent' qualities.

Similar experiences have presumably occurred to most of us. I remember a lecture recital with different songs from Arnhemland performed by some elderly gentlemen. They were presented by the ethnomusicologist Stephen Wild who introduced their music and, among other things, spoke about the different structures of the songs. I, however, found that the structure of the different songs was more or less the same. I tried, but could not discriminate between the structures, or as the music psychologist Bob Snyder writes, there were no patterns in my long-time memory that I could use while hearing the songs from Arnhemland:

Identification occurs when we not only recognize something, but are able to connect it with memories of its name and associated with its concept. Conscious recollection, on the other hand, takes place when we purposefully try to retrieve something from long-term memory.⁷

Thus it is obvious that we need to be members of a culture or to be familiar with the ways of a culture to be able to comprehend, broadly speaking, what is going on. As Reimer tells us, it was not so much that he could not discriminate, but that he listened to the music in the wrong way and thus had a limited knowledge of the Chinese ontology of music.

As the reader knows, there are many dichotomies used to describe this division ('inherent–descriptive'); probably, it is more common to speak about the 'inner–outer' meaning of music, the 'intrinsic–external', 'implicit–explicit' meaning, or 'absolute music–programme music', etc. These are presumed dichotomies that musicologists, among others, have written extensively about. But the problem could also be regarded as an illusion.⁸

5 Bennet Reimer, 'Once more with feeling – Reconciling discrepant accounts of musical affect', *Philosophy of Music Education Review*, 12/1 (2004), 1–13.

6 Ibid. 6.

7 Bob Snyder, *Music and Memory* (Cambridge, Mass., 2000), 10.

8 For the historical situatedness and an elegant implosion of this dichotomy compare Lydia Goehr, 'Writing music history', *History & Theory*, 31 (1992), 182–99.

When it comes to the question of ‘what music is’, a growing interest in the biological roots of music have developed during the past few decades. I briefly discuss this area of research in the introduction to my alternative presentation of Western music history.⁹ Within the past few years, several interesting books have been published within this field.¹⁰ In addition, a great number of articles are continuously published in various magazines within disciplines such as neurology, linguistics, and psychology. A considerable amount of this literature treats what could be termed the pre-social prerequisites. Possibly, from a sociological point of view, it could be argued that what happens on a biological level is of little interest, as it is the same for all human beings in all cultures, not to mention the insoluble dilemma of how to separate the social interaction as such from our biological predispositions, as they obviously must interact in the social situations in which they are studied. It can also be put into question when the transition from a supposed biological to a social level occurs – maybe even if it occurs before birth or, for instance, when the child is one week old! However, within these fields there is much research of interest in connection with the question of how human beings receive music, and how these prerequisites rule the perceptual ability of human beings, which in its turn interacts with and is of major importance for how music is used, understood and what meaning it has within a culture. I will elucidate this with three examples from different fields.

For the past twenty years much research has been made on infants and music. The psychologists McMullen and Saffran refer to research that suggests that newborn babies prefer their mothers’ voices, and that already at that stage they can discriminate between the rhythm of their mother tongue and a foreign language:

It is likely that infants acquire specific information about musical rhythmic information in their prenatal environments as well, assuming sufficient exposure and quality of auditory input (maternal singing is presumably the best source of such input).¹¹

After birth the mother communicates with the child in a special way. The cultural anthropologist Ellen Dissanayake describes this cooperation between mother and child as an ‘improvised and improved-upon duet’, that is ‘baby-talk’ (‘motherese’) where a special vocal register is used, ‘a higher, softer, breathier, singsong tone of voice’. Dissanayake mentions, however, that in some cultures the infant is not addressed in speech but by means of rhythmical noises ‘such as tongue-clicking, hissing, grunting’.¹² It is easy to imagine that the prosodic patterns and sound structures which infants learn to distinguish in these ‘pre-linguistic’ situations in different cul-

9 Edström, *En Annan berättelse*, 16–29.

10 Ellen Dissanayake, *Art and Intimacy – How the Arts began* (Seattle and London, 2000); William L. Benzon, *Beethoven’s Anvil Music in Mind and Culture* (New York, 2001); Patrick N. Juslin and John A. Sloboda (eds.), *Music and Emotion – Theory and Research* (Oxford, 2001); Lawrence M. Zbikowski, *Conceptualizing Music – Cognitive Structure, Theory, and Analysis* (Oxford, 2002); Isabelle Peretz and Robert J. Zatorre (eds.), *The Cognitive Neuroscience of Music* (Oxford, 2003).

11 Erin McMullen and Jenny Saffran, ‘Music and Language: A Developmental Comparison’, *Music Perception*, 21 (2004), 289–311, on 294.

12 Dissanayake, *Art and Intimacy*, 30.

tures interact with the prosodic elements existent in the songs and music heard by the children then and later. This happens at such an early phase of life that it probably can be seen as a transition from a pre-cultural to a cultural existence.

A second example is the research which, in a wide sense, exists within music psychology and contributes to the support, improvement or rejection of theories within e.g. music theory or music aesthetics. Maybe those aesthetes, for instance Nick Zangwill, who by means of the methods of analytical philosophy blow life into Hanslick's thoughts about how to listen to music, might be influenced by the psychologists Laurel Trainor's and Louis Schmidt's comprehensive article on how listening to music, in similar ways as other emotional stimuli, activates autonomous, subcortical, and cortical systems.¹³ Early in their article there are allusions that can easily be understood as a direct retort to Zangwill's article with the title 'Against emotion: Hanslick was right about music':

It is likely surprising to psychologist to learn that some philosophers have argued that music does not express emotion, given the empirical data showing substantial agreement between listeners as to the emotion expressed in particular piece of music. For example, a century and half ago, Hanslick proposed that music appreciation had nothing to do with emotion.¹⁴

It is a regrettable fact that it is more common that music psychologists are familiar with the name of Hanslick, than that music theorist have knowledge of contemporary research within music psychology.

A third example is how different thought systems can be explained on the basis of how the actual syntax of a certain language affects our perception of the surrounding world. I take my point of departure in the double condition that language is the primary means of communication and a discourse which to the highest degree affects for instance how we understand music and what meaning it has:

The important thing here is not only that we learn to use language without really knowing what complicated rules we constantly employ ... but that along with language, we gain much knowledge about the world, knowledge that is contained in the language, as it were, and which, although we would not be able to formulate it, continually guides us when we think or speak in that language.¹⁵

With the general approach of this quotation in mind, maybe the concrete scenario presented by another linguist, Richard Levinson, will surprise the reader.¹⁶ His research on a number of languages, not belonging to the Indo-European family, shows

13 Nick Zangwill, 'Against emotion: Hanslick was right about music', *British Journal of Aesthetics*, 44 (2004), 29–43; Laurel Trainor and Louis Schmidt, 'Processing emotions induced by music', in Peretz and Zatorre (eds.), *The Cognitive Neuroscience of Music*, 311–24.

14 Ibid. 311.

15 Friedrich A. von Hayek, 'Über den "Sinn" sozialer Institutionen', *Schweizer Monatshefte*, 36 (1956), 512–24, as quoted in Rudi Keller, *A Theory of Linguistic Signs* (Oxford, 1998), 65.

16 Stephen C. Levinson, *Space in Language and Cognition – Explorations in Cultural Diversity* (Cambridge, 2003).

for instance that these languages entail totally different prerequisites for understanding concepts of space and direction such as right, left, north, south, etc. It has always been assumed, until now, that our conception of space is always relative and is based on our bodily experiences, but this is not correct. According to Levinson, this view is plainly an ethnocentric mistake.

Through thorough studies of some non-Indo-European languages and their use, Levinson has shown, contradictory to the assumptions of cognitive psychologists, that there is a complicated interactive linguistically directed process, which results in different ways of understanding the world. Levinson summarizes:

Despite the fact that so much current theory emphasizes the innate basis of linguistic and conceptual categories, the facts of linguistic and cognitive diversity point to an important role for constructivism in human cognition ... A language ‘canalizes’ the mental landscape, offering complex concepts that would otherwise be mostly out of the range of independent invention – complex concepts, like specific instantiations of frames of reference, that then come to dominate the internal coding of states of affairs and events.¹⁷

This perspective – although put together by a large number of cultural factors – is also used by the psychologist Richard Nisbett, who discusses how the surrounding world is understood from a Western and Eastern perspective respectively.¹⁸ The message he conveys is similar, and here we can refer back to Reimer’s experience: when a Chinese and an American person see the same painting [or hear the same music] they do not see [hear] the same thing. Nisbett simply shows – and very convincing too – that the reason behind the Chinese and American students not seeing the same thing when looking at the same picture is explained by two different cognitive styles. The origin of these is lost in time, but can be traced back a few thousand years. The Western style is connected to the Greek inheritance: the Greeks were primarily traders who often met other ethnic groups speaking different languages. The Greeks learnt how to argue and make deals, they were interested in nature and had a language system with many nouns suited to an analytical and mathematical way of thinking. As Nisbett writes: ‘If one proposition was seen to be in a contradictory relation with another, then one of the propositions had to be rejected.’¹⁹

In the much more densely populated China the dominating group was the Han people, depending on agriculture. Here cooperation and the bringing of different opinions into line with each other was important. The Han people spoke the same language, and a written language developed based on graphical imitations which made the language legible in spite of different dialects. At the same time, in one sense, the meaning of the words to a high degree depended on the context (in addition, the meaning of phonemes depended on pitch). One thing/one object was never

¹⁷ Ibid. 325.

¹⁸ Richard Nisbett, *The geography of thought. How Asians and Europeans think differently, and why* (New York, 2003).

¹⁹ Ibid. 25.

really simple to define. Objects were not seen as separate entities, but were always embedded in a context – ‘in which the elements are constantly changing and rearranging themselves.’²⁰ Thinking was rather concrete than abstract.

Nisbett discusses how these different ways of thinking (‘mentalities’) affect most aspects of the cultures and that the monophonic Chinese music reflects the Chinese predilection for unity.

At an early stage, the concurrent factors: ecology (climate, situation, contacts), language, interest and attitude towards logics, the view on objectivity–subjectivity, etc. resulted in different ways of understanding the surrounding world, ways and strategies which Nisbett has proved are still valid today.

The intention here has been to show that musicologists (irrespective of terming themselves music historians, theorists, ethnomusicologists, aesthetes, etc.) can benefit from partaking of the results of research within psychology, linguistics, biology, and similar disciplines. This applies both to findings which show that the new-born infant is not a *tabula rasa* and research and theories that can help musicologists understand the social prerequisites of music.

It is the latter that will now be discussed, i.e. questions such as what happens when we understand something when we listen to music, what ‘meaning’ music has, as well as what meaning music has for our lives.

MUSIC AND ‘THE SOCIAL’

Peter Martin’s book *Sound & Society – Themes in the sociology of music* (1995) was welcomed as an important contribution to sociomusicology. In general, it received positive criticism.²¹ Martin’s choice to elaborate on certain parts of his discussion in his article in *Svensk tidskrift för musikforskning*²² was partly due to his participation in a colloquium in Gothenburg in 1999 and partly due to my article ‘Fr-a-g-me-n-ts’ (1997) published earlier. In his article Martin states that musicologists do not use a sociological point of view to a sufficiently high degree, which means that musicologists still understand music as something ‘in itself’.

It becomes clear that Martin is well acquainted with the Anglo-American musical debate which has been going on since the 1980s. Initially, John Shepard and Susan McClary are mentioned as scholars who by means of music analysis wanted to show how music reflects various aspects of the values of Western society. As Martin writes, in their analysis they want to ‘go beyond the notes themselves to elicit the fundamentally social meanings which they convey’.²³ Others, as I and some of my colleagues in Gothenburg, have instead chosen to integrate the production, the performance, and the perception of music in their analyses. Accord-

²⁰ Ibid. 27.

²¹ An exception – that somehow bounces back on the reviewer – is Robert Walser’s review in *Contemporary Society*, 27/3 (1999).

²² Martin, ‘Music and the Sociological Gaze’.

²³ Ibid. 41.

ing to Martin, in neither of these schools the interest of ‘the social’ has led to a ‘sustained engagement with the themes and traditions represented within the established discourse of sociology’.²⁴

Martin points out that the task of the sociologist is not to determine the value of different types of music, but to show *why* different types of music are *conceived of* as having different value. The sociologist, who is not more objective than others, can remain objective or unbiased towards the results of the sociological construction behind the investigated values through the sociological method. This is followed by a discussion of what is meant by this social constructivism – and here Martin focuses on recent sociology which:

has focused on the ways in which the ‘objective facticity’ of the intersubjective world is produced, reproduced, and changed through organized practices which, however routine and regularly occurring, must nonetheless be enacted be real people in real situations.²⁵

But although musicologists have realized the importance of these processes, Martin is of the opinion that it is problematic from a theoretical point of view to say, as for instance Shepherd does, that music indirectly can decode a specific view of society (‘world-sense’), which a certain social group is supposed to hold. Martin points out that it is not sufficient to emphasize the importance of taking into account the situation in which the music is performed – here he refers to my article²⁶ – but to see ‘the social’ as fundamental – ‘as the focal point where all other factors ... are brought together’. Furthermore, he adds that ‘all of what we call ‘experience’ is mediated in some way or another’,²⁷ which means that, from a sociological point of view, it is always through the analysis of context and situation – and not musical works – that we understand something of what I termed ‘the ethnomusicological knowledge of the everyday usage, function, and meaning of music’.²⁸

As a consequence of the fact that culture is continuously created in a co-operative interaction between human beings, it is suggested that the concept ‘appropriation’ should be used instead of ‘reception’. It is emphasized that this social process continuously goes on by means of conversation/language.

The article is finished off with three exhortations. The first is to study all forms of music from a sociological perspective. The second is to realize that musicological interpretations often have the character of ‘politics of meaning’. Here Martin means

24 Ibid. 42. The first method equals the one treated by Zolberg, *Constructing a sociology of the arts*, 53–78 under the heading ‘Studying the art object sociologically’. Here Zolberg discusses a number of different ways and methods through which sociologists have studied various art forms. The second method is equalled to ‘The art object as social process’ (ibid. 78–106). Initially, it is stated here that, contradictory to the former way of looking at art, the ‘sociologist who work in this mode undertake to explain how work comes to be defined qua art’.

25 Martin, ‘Music and the Sociological Gaze’, 46.

26 Edström, ‘Fr-a-g-m-en-ts’, 64.

27 Martin, ‘Music and the Sociological Gaze’, 48.

28 As quoted in Martin, ‘Music and the Sociological Gaze’, 42.

when a musicologist through his/her analysis of a piece of music claims that the music can, should or ought to be heard in a certain way, and which easily can acquire a factual character. Against this position Martin poses sociological studies which e.g. show and reveal the social mechanisms facilitating a certain form of hearing.²⁹ The third aspect, which has been mentioned, is that musicologists rather than studying how music expresses the interests and values of a social group, should study how these values emerge within the culture.

Martin develops his criticism further in a review essay.³⁰ Here he returns to the shadow cast by Theodor W. Adorno over the connection between music and society, i.e. that sociomusicology has predominantly been occupied with the question of how free individuals have created supposedly autonomous works, which ‘none the less contained “social messages” or meanings’.³¹ When it comes to ‘new musicology’ and the research of Susan McClary, Martin returns to the problem of how ‘the social’ enters music, and he points out that when McClary writes that Mozart’s Prague Symphony ‘relies on tonality’s harmonic flexibility to persuade us that we are hearing individualist expression’,³² he does not know whether she is saying that the meaning is in the music itself or if the meaning of her utterance is to listen to music her way. Martin finds that McClary provides no real evidence of how the notion of how social content is ‘inscribed’ in musical works is taking place. Again, he says that it is not music’s ‘truth content’ that is interesting to the sociologist, but how the meaning of music is constituted in the social processes of this discourse. In fact, ‘new musicology’ is very similar to ‘old musicology’ and is actually not less ideologically based.

Probably, Martin is correct when he assumes that musicologists not seldom write about the music they/we like and value highly.³³ It is very likely that in many cases it has been difficult to place the personal experience in a sanctuary free of values and then step out of it and observe the field objectively. The music has been a non-separable part of the identity of the individual. Probably, Martin has a point when he claims that I and others have not to a *sufficiently* high degree seen ‘the social’ as the cause and effect of everything. I can also appreciate that the concept ‘appropriation’ is wider than ‘perception’, but question of course whether the former should be delimited against the increasingly more common concept ‘affordance’ (see below).

29 Among the examples of prominent musicological analyses mentioned by Martin are Tia DeNora’s analysis of the concurrent social conditions and behaviour which facilitated Beethoven to emerge as the most distinguished composer of all in the early nineteenth century, cf. Tia DeNora, *Beethoven and the Construction of Genius* (Berkeley and London, 1995).

30 Peter Martin, ‘Over the Rainbow? On the Quest for “the Social”’, in *Musical Analyses*, *Journal of the Royal Musical Association*, 127 (2002), 130–46.

31 Ibid. 132.

32 Ibid. 144.

33 Personally, however, I have written the least about the music I have come to like the most. I wrote my dissertation on the *jojk* of the Sami (Laplanders) and have written much about contemporary Sami music, about the popular hit song before the Second World War, about the CD *Dangerous* by Michael Jackson, but less about jazz and Western art music.

Otherwise I cannot see that there is any actual opposition between Martin's and my epistemological standpoints.³⁴ An exception, of course, is that I am not prepared to give up that part of our activity which deals with the actual music, because then we would become nothing else than sociologists, but I will return to this topic later.

Naturally, there are other sociomusicologists who work with some of the problems brought up by Martin such as a) how music is used and so what it means for contemporary human beings, b) how in this process the mediation between society and music can be understood, and c) what an accomplished theoretical music analysis used in a sociomusicological context would mean? This article only allows for a brief presentation of the fields and methods of these scholars. Initially, I will supplement the presentation with some studies by Tia DeNora, who, together with Martin, is one of the general editors of the series *Music and Society* (Manchester University Press).

Tia DeNora is a well-known sociomusicologist and among her previous work there are at least three important books.³⁵ Against a background of my aim here, I will touch upon what her analysis of a musical work in an article from the mid 1990s has to offer. Here she is asking:

[n]ot only about how the social 'gets into' the musical (the social provenance of a musical work), but also about how the musical 'gets into' the social.³⁶

After having touched upon the advantages and disadvantages of the concept of homology,³⁷ DeNora concentrates on how a piece of music can act as a non-verbal resource at the same time as it provides non-verbal resources for the clarification of perceived reality. DeNora describes a period when she often had to connect to a server by means of a telephone line. She often experienced the short connection period as very long:

One day, during a week when I had been reading an essay about Bizet's opera ... I pressed the key to the repeated rhythmic phrase that appears in the opening four bars of the Habañera ... And even before Carmen had begun to sing the words ... I was on the mainframe. Somehow, this 'playing' of Carmen became a habit.³⁸

34 Hopefully – if he had been able to read Swedish – Martin would have noticed that my presentation (Edström, *En Annan berättelse*; forthcoming in English in 2006) is an attempt in the direction he is asking for, although from an ethnomusicological standpoint.

35 DeNora, *Beethoven and the Construction of Genius*; Tia DeNora, *Music in Everyday Life* (Cambridge, 2000); Tia DeNora, *After Adorno – Rethinking Music Sociology* (Cambridge, 2003).

36 Tia DeNora, 'The musical composition of social reality? Music, action and reflexivity', *The Sociological Review*, 43 (1995), 298.

37 The study discussed here is Willis' work about the use and meaning of music among young English bikers (Paul E. Willis, *Profane Culture* (London, 1978)). The concept of homology is also used by Alf Björnberg, *En liten sång som alla andra – melodifestivalen 1959–1983* (Diss.; Göteborg, 1983), 147 ff., as a possible explanation in connection with his study of the Swedish Melody Grand Prix. Cf. also Middleton's profound discussion on the value of the concept in Richard Middleton, *Studying Popular Music* (Milton Keynes, 1990), 147 ff.

38 DeNora, 'The musical composition of social reality?', 302.

What had previously been experienced as a long waiting time was now perceived as a short period. The music, a few bars of Bizet's opera *Carmen*, 'had the effect of translating time'. On these occasions she found herself in, or thought 'in music, as opposed to thinking about music',³⁹ and she wondered what in the music that she related to when it became, for instance, a time resource; i.e. how a non-musical time of waiting and a musical behaviour merged into an experience. And, it is added, how should we describe this?

The answers are taken from a traditional musicological model of explanation – where the interesting part is how DeNora combines various aspects in a sociological reading. Because, she says, the repeated bass figure in these four bars is in a style that can be musically recognized. In addition, in every bar the figure functions as something that begins and ends ('it "goes up" and "comes down"'). She also experiences a rhythmical analogy (beginning–end).⁴⁰ Therefore, DeNora's conclusion is:

[t]he opening of this music isn't 'about' waiting; rather the music itself is in waiting, and it is in waiting in order to do the musical work of paving the way for the melodic passage that will follow a few seconds later when *Carmen* starts to sing.⁴¹

The four bars functioned as a nice social-musical time experience. With her analysis DeNora wants to get away from a (musicological) analysis which shows what music signifies.⁴² Although DeNora admits that there are musical structures which have acquired a strongly fixed meaning within a certain culture, she insists that a focus on the structure is not enough as 'the social is not "in" the text; rather it is "in" the interaction between text and actor'.⁴³ DeNora adds that 'we have to regard music criticism as a part of this interactive, constitutive process', i.e. again she warns us against the eagerness of the musicologists to tell the readers what music means, what she calls the 'politics of reading'.

The micro-process described by DeNora in her article is basically about the concept 'mediation', understood as the factors involved in the social process which affects the structure of the music – and vice versa. But, naturally, the concept can also be elevated from an individual to a general perspective, where it is applied on society at large. Such a macro-perspective is used by the sociologists Hennion and Grenier.⁴⁴ The aim of their article is to analyse mediation by focussing on the different interacting 'musical' processes which take place here.

39 Ibid. 303.

40 It would be an overstatement to say that DeNora's theoretical music analysis is completely free from objections. For instance she writes that there is a change between the tonic and dominant in every bar, which I hardly find likely. She misses that the bass figure of the four bars functions as a kind of drone on the tonic. It is also said that every bar 'sketches the octave' – although the ambitus per bar is a tenth.

41 Ibid. 305.

42 Here DeNora discusses Susan McClary, *George Bizet's Carmen* (Cambridge, 1992).

43 DeNora, 'The musical composition of social reality?', 311.

44 Antoine Hennion and Linn Grenier, 'Sociology of Art: New Stakes in a Post-Critical Time', in S.R. Quah and A. Sales (eds.), *The International Handbook of Sociology* (London, 2000), 341–55.

The authors question the traditions within sociology which place the actual artistic process and the work of art outside the research area of sociology. Thus, within these traditions the art objects are only seen as signs mediating different social processes.⁴⁵ Hennion and Grenier, on the other hand, would rather like to see a sociology of art *in favour* of art instead of one *against* art, a direction that ‘acknowledge the singularity of these products as events which are irreducible to either their origins or their effects’.⁴⁶

They point out that something more is needed than the concurrent factors which according to Howard S. Becker form the process through which works of art are constituted and through which it is determined whether they will last or perish.⁴⁷ But when all the intermediating – and reciprocally interacting – factors have been taken into account within the world of art, the ones who like, enjoy and use art should not be left out. The authors strive for a method which shows how the mediating factors result in something more, than what is achieved by a mechanical addition of their interaction:

Mediations are of a pragmatic status: they are the art which they bring forth, and they cannot be distinguished from the appreciation they generate. They can thus help us better understand the contingent ways in which particular intermediaries, entities and processes participate in the progressive emergence of a particular artistic work, as well as the complex and changing ways in which specific value judgements of appreciations become linked to specific art works.⁴⁸

However, the authors do not express that they commit themselves to the value of a work of art, but want to understand the connection between the work and reality and how the work is appreciated. Their starting point is that the connection between a work and taste is contingent. But they point out that the thought of the effects of mediation can be developed. In a broader sense, the creation of a work occurs ‘in all the interstices between the multiple intermediaries involved in producing and appreciating art’.⁴⁹

What this possibility for a study, using mediation as a tool, might result in is, however, not explained in greater detail in the article. On the other hand, in other articles by Hennion⁵⁰ it becomes clearer why music in particular is an optimal candidate for showing how mediation operates. The object of music is sounding

45 In addition, as we know according to the sociologist Jean Baudrillard’s analysis, today the signs are void of their content. We perpetually hunt for new emptiness. For a discussion see Edström, *En Annan berättelse*, 293.

46 Hennion and Grenier, ‘Sociology of Art’, 344.

47 Howard S. Becker, *Art Worlds* (Berkeley, 1982).

48 Hennion and Grenier, ‘Sociology of Art’, 350.

49 Ibid. 351.

50 Antoine Hennion and Joël-Maire Faquet, ‘Authority as performance: The love of Bach in nineteenth-century France’, *Poetics*, 29 (2001), 75–88; Antoine Hennion, ‘Music and Mediation: Towards a new Sociology of Music’, in M. Clayton, T. Herbert, and R. Middleton (eds.), *The Cultural Study of Music: A Critical Introduction* (New York and London, 2003), 80–91.

notes, but the mediated process can be studied, as ‘music has nothing but mediations to show; instruments, musicians, scores, stages, records.’⁵¹ A study by Hennion and Faquet on how the interest and passion for Bach and his music emerged in the nineteenth century is presented as an example. The sociological problem is that the image of Bach either depends on Bach – his creative ‘genius’, i.e. his music – or it is we who have created his importance as a brilliant composer. In an attempt to get past this they try to study all three: ‘Bach, us, and “the music”’. Among other things it is pointed out how a certain performance practice of Bach’s music developed, and how other music by French and other composers was ‘bachified’ due to the steadily increasing interest in Bach’s music – its structure and his method of composing – among composers and the general audience. It is emphasized that of the three parts the important thing is neither the genius, Bach himself, nor ourselves today:

– but *the intermediary work on his oeuvre, in the most concrete meaning in the term*, that which is transmitted through various media and through multiple interpretations, and which changes us each time by simultaneously forging our taste and the yardstick by which we measure that taste.⁵²

Later, when Hennion formulates the task, he sees this way of working as practicable in attaining understanding about the meaning of music, the music taste of people, and the function of music. However, he emphasizes that ‘the work itself’, what sociology tends not to mention, should stand out more clearly.

But this expectation does not include the sounding music, except from the point of view that Hennion sees it as an interactive factor. As a musicologist I would have hoped for a clearer discussion regarding how the understanding of the musical structure is changed in this process. From a musicological point of view this process can be seen as the reception history of a work. Hennion and Faquet do point out – and more consistently from a sociological point of view in comparison to musicologists – the ‘double-sidedness’ in the process. They write that ‘Bach is becoming music’ and that ‘music is “becoming Bach”’. As I understand this, the very notion of what music is was affected by the Bach renaissance of the nineteenth century, at the same time as this process stylistically had a retrograde effect on those from this period who wrote, played and listened to music. Both these developments affect our view of what music is.

In any case, Hennion gets closer to music ‘in itself’ and attributes it ‘in itself’ more significance than for instance Becker did in his classical work. But he does not grapple with the musical structure and deals only to a little extent with the question

51 Hennion, ‘Music and Mediation’, 83. As self evident, however, as it might be that music ‘in itself’ cannot be the bearer of meanings, the idea that it can has often been propagated. For a recent contribution that comes very close to suggesting that music’s expressive qualities literally resides in the music ‘itself’, see Leo Treitler, ‘The language of Interpretation of Music’, in Jenefer Robinson (ed.), *Music & Meaning* (Ithaca, N.Y., 1997), 23–54.

52 Hennion and Faquet, ‘Authority as performance’, 85.

of how Bach might have been understood and experienced by those who heard the music. Disregarding DeNora's discussion regarding the syntactical possibility of music to fit into and be integrated with a social activity, it can be stated that music is perceived as an object which in co-operation with and under the influence of another social activity can be part of individual and collective activities. Still, for a musicologist, Hennion's and Grenier's thoughts that mediations 'are the art they bring forth', and that mediations 'cannot be distinguished from the appreciation they generate', miss the point of the power and meaning of music as a sounding and affecting object. It is hard, at least for a musicologist, not to think and experience that music somehow talks back to the knowledgeable listener, and that it is possible to extract and pinpoint the musical factors, making this possible.⁵³

Moreover, music and especially song, talks back or rather interacts with the person all the time, since listening to a song is almost always an active pursuit and an act that very often makes it possible for the listener to sing the song or part of it. Thus, the process of internalizing and performing as part of listening makes it quite a different type of cultural pursuit than for instance looking at a painting. A song sings in me because I, as almost everybody else, can also sing it out loud, but I cannot paint in my inner self, the painting I have just seen.

Regarding the previous analysis by DeNora of the waiting time/bars from *Carmen* it can be questioned if there is a difference to express and show a) from a *musicological* point of view: that the musical structure (the properties of which have been found through a more thorough and correct analysis) functioned as a tool which DeNora used rhythmically as an integrated part of her experience waiting to be connected; or b) from a *sociological* point of view claim: that by entering the musical structure it becomes a 'cultural "work place" for the articulation of meaning and action, a real structure upon which one can "hang" or "map" non-musical associations and activities'?⁵⁴

The musicologist sees/hears the structure as both a tool and as a sounding symbol of the waiting time, whereas the sociologist understands the music structure and the action as referents to each other in an event/action which changes the experience of the waiting time. The difference is obviously due to the fact that the musicologist with his/her detailed knowledge of the music tends to understand the music as a 'subject' whereas for the sociologist it is only an 'object' among others – an object which human beings can socially acquire ('appropriation') or, as an increasing number of sociologists and psychologists express it today, what music can 'afford'.⁵⁵

53 The phrase 'talk back' comes from Peter Cook and Mark Everist, 'Introduction', in id. (eds.), *Rethinking Music* (Oxford, 1999), 4.

54 DeNora, 'The musical composition of social reality?', 306.

55 DeNora uses the latter concept in her empirically oriented study *Music in Everyday Life*. It is used by a number of authors in Patrik N. Juslin and John A. Sloboda (eds.), *Music and Emotion* (Oxford, 2001), in Clayton et al. (eds.), *The Cultural Study of Music*, as well as in Eric Clarke and Nicholas Cook (eds.), *Empirical Musicology – Aims, Methods, Prospects* (Oxford, 2004). It has become somewhat of a vogue-word.

As the music psychologist Eric F. Clarke has explained the concept ‘affordance’ was introduced as a substitute for value, what an object has to offer.⁵⁶ The concept is often used in a dynamic sense, what something makes possible for somebody in a specific context and with a specific aim. Seemingly, the concept has an infinite flexibility; it is possible to imagine that what music ‘affords’ depends on its structure and how it is performed. Plainly expressed, it is possible to envision that in addition to an emotional content there is also an integrated conceptual content. If it had been possible to measure these – both could have a scale from 0 to x. This would imply that ‘affordance’ functions as an all-embracing sociological explanation, and inversely that the object offers everything. Of course, the thought of such a radical essentialist stance is not plausible for a musicologist; starting from scratch is not possible for an object (e.g. music) as there is always an underlying tradition. In addition, within a specific culture the structure of the music is not contingent in relation to the use of the music.

This line of reasoning conceals a more profound complex of problems which seem difficult to solve and which from an epistemological point of view apparently march back and forth in the same spot: On the one hand, to claim that there *is* an essence, a content in music, would imply that this already exists on a pre-cultural and pre-symbolic level and then in a noumenal world. Essence is given an a-historical dimension.⁵⁷ On the other hand, the opposite – an anti-essence – would mean that it is ‘the social’ that forms our understanding of everything, which leaves us with the problem of how this process interacts with ourselves, with humans as biological beings.⁵⁸ In fact, we only know to a limited extent the nature of our brain, how it functions etc. The hope that we at some point will understand it fully actually seems to be contradictory from a logical point of view.⁵⁹ At the same time as a constructivist point of departure is adhered to, it is necessary to remember that cultural history is characterized by the view that specific objects in themselves have certain meanings, and that this view has been handed down from generation to generation.⁶⁰ Furthermore, to avoid that the concept becomes an amorphous, contemporary replacement of ‘appropriation’, it should be emphasized that from a musicological perspec-

56 Eric Clarke, ‘Empirical Methods in the Study of Performance’, in Clarke and Cook (eds.), *Empirical Musicology*, 77–102.

57 Cf. Tony Jackson, ‘Questioning Interdisciplinarity; Cognitive Science, Evolutionary Psychology, and Literary Criticism’, *Poetics Today*, 21 (2000), 319–47. Among musicologists belonging to this school are of course those who are so idealistic that they believe in eternal values (‘romantics’) or who *know* what has quality and so is best for all of us (‘modernists’).

58 In this group of musicologists those can be found who have adopted the beliefs of post-modernism and those who, like the philosopher Richard Rorty, see the culture you live in as the departure point of everything.

59 For a similar biological-sociological survey of various theories and interdisciplinary possibilities, see Jackson, ‘Questioning Interdisciplinarity?’. Discussing a corresponding dichotomy, here expressed by the concepts essentialism vs. relativism, he finds that he cannot see any possibility for either side to get past its own limitations, *ibid.* 344.

60 For a well-informed article on the use of the concept affordance in another context see Ian Hutchby, ‘Technologies, Text and Affordances’, *Sociology*, 35 (2001), 421–56, and the following debate between him and Brian Rappert in *Sociology*, 37 (2003), 565–89.

tive nothing is gained if the musical structure is not discussed, its meaning is analysed, and this knowledge is integrated in the sociomusicological presentations. Sociomusicological research must deal with *both music and sociology*. I usually express this by insisting that the musicological answers should be sought by means of an analysis consisting of the combined factors of a) the individual, b) the situation, c) the structure of the music, and d) the performance, where the first two words deal with 'the social' and the second pair with 'the music'.⁶¹ This means that the expertise of music history and music theory, which we have acquired, comes to good use in a socio-musicological analysis as well. In addition, of course, we must not forget the qualitative meaning which individuals attach to their personal experiences of music. At least since the Age of Enlightenment, music increasingly has become part of the social life of a great number of people and it is of major importance for the individual and his/her individuality. It cannot be reduced to a dry sociological fact.

Thus, as this survey has sought to point out, there is every reason, in DeNora's usage of language, to study music–society–man from the sociological epistemological standpoint of 'interactive constructionism' and, in addition, to take seriously Martin's statement about 'the social' as the cause and effect of everything. But I think that according to the rules of the game, musicologists will also henceforth continue to pay greater attention than sociologists to the sounding/played music and to the group-individual's experience of the music. Although it is hardly possible for anyone to measure epistemologically the difference between two ideal analyses, one musicological and one sociological, of the same musical situation, I rather see the difference as positive than negative. Divergent standpoints are necessary for the improvement of the methods of both disciplines.

MUSIC AND UNDERSTANDING

Before I discuss the epistemological tradition which Bo Marschner represents, I will mention briefly the question of music as a language and the semiotic possibilities of music. This topic will here by necessity rather be confined to a determination of a position than to a more comprehensive discussion. Three short sentences may serve as an abstract: *Music is not a language in the sense of our spoken/written language. The spoken/written language is our dominating form of communication. Music has a strong emotional quality, but is weak from an abstract-conceptual point of view.* Add to this the following as a short background:

The psychologists McMullen and Saffran, previously mentioned, find that there is no reason to believe that the ability of human beings to intuitively learn a musical syntax is principally different from that of language, but in the case of music this takes place at a later stage of childhood.⁶²

61 Cf. Olle Edström, 'The Place and Value of Middle Music', *Svensk tidskrift för musikforskning*, 73 (1992/1), 51; Olle Edström, *Göteborgs Rika Musikliv – en översikt mellan världskrigen* (Göteborg, 1996), 142–42, 673.

62 Cf. McMullen and Saffran, 'Music and Language', 292–93.

Music, however, is not a semantic system, but shares many prosodic elements with language.⁶³ Gradually we learn to speak to varying degrees about the experiences music transmits/brings forth, i.e. we describe this metaphorically by means of the language we have learnt. Here, in line with the linguist Rudi Keller, language is understood as an instrumental system of signs through which we transmit thoughts, ideas, and feelings.⁶⁴ According to this view there exists no pre-programmed specialized language module or anything similar. We use a sound sign which can function as an index, icon or symbol to make the receivers understand our intentions. We interpret the semantic content of the words and the message in a specific social context.

Note that the signs in themselves are only *tools* and do not contain meaning, but that the receiver can understand the received message because of the signs, provided that she understands the syntax of the language. The words are understood through their use, which means that the signs are instruments of communication. Keller emphasizes over and over again that meaning can be formulated without the use of explanations that contain concepts which, so to speak, represent something from the start. We do not learn the concept because the word music signifies the concept, but we learn by degrees the differences between music and non-music through the use of music, and in this way the concept of music is formed for us. Words classify as well as represent and, in addition, facilitate communication.⁶⁵ Because of this, for Keller the idea that it is language that reflects the private, inner corporal experiences is wrong; what happens here is that we search for analogous icons when we try to describe our experiences.⁶⁶ For Keller metaphors are an iconic technique through which something acquires an added and extended dimension.⁶⁷ As is well known, once the metaphors have become part of our language, they are extremely often used in our oral/written description of music.

Alternatively, as Keller formulates it, what facilitates that a receiver understands my thoughts, i.e. the meaning of the signs, is not the same thing as these thoughts: 'If meaning were something to do with thought or cognition, if it were something mental, it could not be an aspect of signs'.⁶⁸ The signs make possible that a high degree of causality can be attained so that we can interpret 'the sense' of what is said:

63 It seems likely that in the evolution of mankind we have used sounds that contain prosodic elements (like the signals of primates today). Language developed later. Music/song, as for instance the olfactory sense, are pre-verbal 'faculties', which explains the difficulties involved in describing smells and music.

64 Rudi Keller, 'Zeichenbegriff und Metaphern', in Gisela Harras (ed.), *Die Ordnung der Wörter – Kognitive und lexikalische Strukturen* (Berlin, 1995), 179–92; Rudi Keller, *A Theory of Linguistic Signs* (Oxford, 1998).

65 In this context Keller criticizes the so-called cognitive linguistics: 'Cognitively oriented semantic theories contain two fundamental errors: they are, for one, representationally conceived, with all the resulting problems; furthermore, they employ circular arguments. From observations of linguistic circumstances, the existence of corresponding cognitive structures is inferred—structures that are then used to "explain" the observed linguistic circumstances.' (Keller, *A Theory of Linguistic Signs*, 70).

66 Cf. Snyder, *Music and Memory*, 110.

67 Keller is working with the sign concepts symptom (which equals Pierce's index), icon and symbol. When it comes to symptom it is said that this is a sign which lacks an intention 'of its own'; when leaves suddenly rustles an animal may experience this as danger, but that is not the 'intention of the leaves'.

68 Keller, *A Theory of Linguistic Signs*, 95.

The interpretation of an uttered sentence is like the establishment of truth in a trial based on circumstantial evidence. Meanings are circumstantial evidence provided by speakers to addressees, hopefully enabling them to guess the sense of the utterance on basis of their familiarity with rules of use and their situational or contextual knowledge. ‘Meanings’ and ‘sense’ are completely different categories. The sense of an utterance is the objective pursued with its use; the meaning of a word is its rule of use. Knowing to use a hammer would be knowing its meaning. Understanding why someone uses a hammer to pound a nail into a wall would be knowing the sense of using a hammer and the sense of this action.⁶⁹

If we transfer Keller’s way of thinking to music, we understand that the possibility of music to function as a means of communication is limited. Music has other functions. One way of breaking up Keller’s instrumental approach would be to point out the prosodic character of music and that we have an ability to make cross connections between different areas of experience, what Zbikowski terms ‘cross-domain mapping’.⁷⁰ He states that we form categories that can be understood pre-verbally. Aided by these we can acquire a larger system of concepts at the same time as we form a dense net of cross modal references by means of metaphors – that music ‘moves’, feels ‘heavy’, that a phrase is experienced as ‘light-footed’, etc. However, the problem, of course, is that the pre-verbal Zbikowski is talking about is described with language in his presentations (as in the presentations of everybody else), which, in my opinion, means that we again end up with Keller if we want to talk about the ‘meaning’ of music, the ‘content’ of music, and what music can communicate.

If we want to find musical analogies to Keller’s presentation, the thunder from a thunderstorm far off can be heard as a symptom, or a powerful voice can be understood as a symptom of anger (this equals index for Pierce). A descending third with the note values crotchet–minim in the once-accented octave, in a piece called ‘Summer Birds’ can be perceived as an iconic sign of a cuckoo.⁷¹ But we cannot, as with language, take it one step further and make the interval of a third into a cuckoo-sign. This is done in the language where the word cuckoo is a symbol of the bird. This can be summarized in German, but neither in Swedish nor English: ‘*Kuckuck* ist ein Symbol gewordenes Ikon eines Symptoms’.⁷²

69 Ibid. 115.

70 Zbikowski, *Conceptualizing Music*, 63.

71 The music semiotician Naomi Cummings presents the example that a high-pitched dynamically strong note in a violin piece can be perceived as an iconic sign for help, cf. Naomi Cummings, *The Sonic Self – Musical Subjectivity and Signification* (Bloomington, 2001), 91. There is a multitude of literature around on this idea, ‘from’ *topoi* in classical Viennese art music (cf. Leonard Ratner, *Classic music, expression, form and style* (New York, 1980)) ‘via’ the Wagnerian *Leitmotiv* ‘to’ gestures in the symphonies of Allan Petterson (cf. Laila Barkefors, *Gallret och stjärman: Allan Pettersons väg genom Barfotasånger till symfoni* (Diss.; Göteborg, 1995), 366). The idea that onomatopoeic words (icons) are the possibility available to a person to convey information about something goes back to Plato (Keller, ‘Zeichenbegriff und Metaphern’, 59).

72 Keller, ‘Zeichenbegriff und Metaphern’, 183.

Of course there is causality in the syntax of the music, a syntax which the individuals of a culture learn, but in the way Keller understands language, both the meaning and sense of a musical gestalt/structure are much weaker. Because of this, a musical symbol in the sense that a specific gestalt/sound structure has acquired a *fixed* denotation does not exist. It is a vain wish to exchange linguistic for musical and to introduce an equally valid theory for musical signs.

Neither does it help to make use of Derryck Cooke's 'terms', Leonard Ratner's *topoi* or Charles Seeger's/Philip Tagg's ideas about a smallest sound structure as the carrier of musical meaning, *museme*, analogous to the smallest unit of significant sound in a language, *phoneme*, as the museme does not work syntactically in the same way as the phoneme. Musemes cannot be separated from each other in the same way as phonemes, and they cannot form words as phonemes do; there are no musical nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc. From the outset, the structure of music does not allow for a lexical formation analogous to that in language.

If, however, there is a sufficiently large number of musemes the flow of the music can be semanticized if the context is right, or inversely if the structure of the music has been carefully adapted to the use of the music in a specific context.⁷³ But even in these special cases music will always have an elasticity of meaning which is far greater than that of language. This always means that the contextual circumstances: where, when, for whom, by whom the music is performed, in what culture and the general position of the music within the culture, is what determines *if* and to what extent the music transmits a semantic content. Use and context are the most prevalent factors for the meaning of music in everyday situations.

Although it is possible to attribute meaning to instrumental music in our culture, this is not something that people in general do or have done in everyday life. They would probably know that a piece should be called a waltz, or in another case perhaps that the melody was called 'Champagne-galop', or know that the title of the piece played by the symphony orchestra was 'Finlandia'. For a majority, however, it is problematic to describe musical experiences in greater detail should they be asked to do so. This means that some people only would be able to say that it was 'beautiful' or that they 'did not like the music', whereas an author interested in music can write a page, and a musicologist an article, an essay, or a book about the same piece. In the latter cases, factors such as a) the degree of general cultural and musicological knowledge the scholar has, b) how close the presented views/results are to those held at the same time within the culture, and c) the (literary) form used in the presentation, are of major importance for how the views/results will be received and how they will affect the receivers.

Although it would be tempting to discuss further this complex of problems, which have kept philosophers, music writers, music aesthetes, and musicologists

73 For a successful study see Philip Tagg, *50 seconds of television music: toward the analysis of affect in popular music* (Diss.; Göteborg, 1979). Also Nicholas Cook clearly shows how music interrelates with and effects the meaning in different multimedia contexts, cf. Nicholas Cook, *Analysing musical multimedia* (Oxford, 1998).

occupied for centuries, I have to leave it here. As the reader now anticipates, in most cases I have a sceptical attitude towards the advanced readings, launched in the past few decades, of what instrumental music tells/means/transmits. My sceptical approach is also due to my opinion that the general idea of our music history is not entirely correct.⁷⁴ An exaggerated focus on absolute instrumental music, music which is supposed not to have an underlying programme or title alluding to something extra-musical, has distorted our view of how music has been used by a majority of people. As I have mentioned earlier, song has always been the instrument closest to human beings. Primarily, humans have sung themselves through history, and have, in general, had an idea of what the text of the song was all about. This was equally true for instance during the Age of Enlightenment, the Romantic era, in the nineteenth century and is still the case in our time. When instrumental music was played or heard the pieces often had descriptive titles as ‘Träumerei’ which – to those who knew the titles – gave the music an extra-musical context, which somehow could be integrated in what was heard. As we know, through history there has often existed an interest in finding out what a piece of instrumental music ‘is all about’, e.g. a movement with the title ‘Sonata quasi una Fantasia’. We do this to ‘understand’ the music better. Of course, the motive for ‘translating’ a musical experience to communicate what we have experienced varies according to the situation and our aims. It can be a question of confirming our identity in a group, transmitting knowledge with an educational aim or that we in a scholarly situation want to change the ideological understanding of a piece etc.

Consequently: That people within the same cultural sphere who listen to a piece of instrumental music should be able to describe what the music ‘is about’/‘expresses’/‘describes’ with some kind of general agreement is a hermeneutic dream. It is easier to achieve general agreement regarding what the music is not about. Music in our culture has rather a) a rhetorically intensifying, b) an emotional and/or c) limited associative dimension – everything and to what extent depending on the individual, time, place, and the structure/performance of the music. To travesty DeNora, what music communicates could be nothing, anything, or everything. Here, she speaks about ‘the work itself’. As the reader anticipates, in a sentence like this there is a polemic against the view of a piece of music as a *Work* i.e. an *aesthetic object*. What this implies in connection with Marschner’s criticism will be the task of the next section to explore.

74 Cf. Edström, *En Annan berättelse*.

MARSCHNER AND MUSIC

It is now ten years ago since I first read Edward Said's book *Musical Elaborations*. Considering his position and other well-known books, I was surprised by sentences such as:

Some years ago Adorno wrote a famous and, I think, *correct* account of 'the regression of hearing', in which he emphasized the lack of continuity, concentration, and knowledge in the listeners that has made *real* musical attention more or less impossible.⁷⁵

One important reason for this, according to Said, is due to the fact that so few persons today are *connoisseurs* (Kenner), which means that a majority have a limited knowledge of musical works.

When you read his presentation it is clear that Said had a major knowledge of musicology and in addition – to all appearances – was a good pianist. The entire book testifies a profound and personal love of Western art music. For instance he can explain what a piece by Brahms meant to him in terms that made me hear reminiscences of authors such as Moritz, Tieck, Hoffmann, and others: 'I found myself finally coming to a sort of unstatable, or inexpressible aspect of his music'.⁷⁶ He presupposes that the person who listens, plays or think about music can carry these experiences within himself: it is said that you hear 'the music of his music'. On the last pages of the book he returns to his special theme of a particular musical structure 'musical elaborations', the essence of which:

[c]an be transformed and reflective, that it can occur slowly not only because we affirm and reaffirm its repetition, its meandering course, but also because it too seems to be about the same process, the way for example, there is something both reflective and circular – without regard for impressive development – in the leisurely, majestic unfolding of Bruckner's Ninth Symphony.⁷⁷

For me the underlying important message in Said's book was his ability to substantiate extensive contemporary literary, musical, and cultural knowledge and *at the same time* give evidence of an equally profound understanding of a traditional view, emerging from the Age of Enlightenment, of art's possibility of insight into music's 'own' world, to among other things, what he calls the music's music of Bruckner and Brahms.

Bo Marschner has written a comprehensive account on Bruckner, where he among other things discusses the connections between the development of form and motive in Bruckner's symphonies, something that is also presented against a background of Bruckner's personality.⁷⁸ By employing a wide-ranging analysis, Marschner

⁷⁵ Edward Said, *Musical Elaborations* (New York, 1991), 3.

⁷⁶ Ibid. 96.

⁷⁷ Ibid. 102.

⁷⁸ Bo Marschner, *Zwischen Einfühlung und Abstraktion – Studien zum Problem des symphonischen Typus Anton Bruckners* (Diss.; Aarhus, 2002).

simultaneously points out advantages and disadvantages in the process of studying the music of Bruckner – both as an analyst and a listener – with a structuralist or a phenomenological-hermeneutical disposition. As finally expressed, the experience that the listener eventually retains is mostly an immediate aesthetic experience.

In his inaugural speech Marschner also dwells on Bruckner and different ways of understanding and analysing music.⁷⁹ Initially, it is stated that whether a work is studied from a structuralist or a hermeneutic point of view it is the single works of art that are the central objects of research in aesthetic contexts. The various methodical facets of hermeneutics are discussed and it is stated that an important aim is to find an explanation for ‘the context of meaning behind the material and formal whole.’⁸⁰ Marschner, nevertheless, points out deficiencies in some hermeneutic approaches, but pleads for an aesthetic hermeneutics where an immediate understanding of the aesthetic work within a human world is the foremost interest. By means of language, the hermeneutic theorist suggests an explanation to the work, based on its specific character with which individuals identify themselves, or as Marschner summarizes it, the hermeneutic work’s ‘most prominent distinguishing feature: its assimilation with the given object and with the spirit (in the widest sense) which, mysteriously, has given it its special character.’⁸¹

It was, thus, with this knowledge that I took part of Marschner’s contribution at conference of The Swedish Society of Musicology in Gothenburg in May 2003.⁸² His aim was to show what musicological research focussing on ‘musical aesthetic objects ... music as *work*’⁸³ implies. Based on Dahlhaus it is said that the work has an “extra” quality, which gives the music a character of something that is distinctly more than a historical source or a document of its time.⁸⁴ Because of this the work is a more important category to study for a musicologist than the surrounding life of the work, ‘the social’, and consequently Marschner advocates that scholars within the humanities as much as possible should turn their backs on the politico-social views ‘dictated’ by society. Instead we should use the tools ‘*value, interest, cogency, and acribi*, in the mentioned order’.⁸⁵

Marschner sees these tools, within a frame of a humanistic research ideal, as suited to music as ‘art’, contrary to the tradition of ‘life’ which in Sweden above all has developed at the department of musicology in Gothenburg, ‘the home par excellence of the sociomusicological school in Sweden’.⁸⁶ For Marschner this form of musicological annexation to the social sciences is not particularly positive. In his article he refers to a short example of this type of research, found in my book *En*

79 Bo Marschner, ‘Hermeneutik som musikvidenskabelig kategori’ (Hermeneutics as a musicological category), *Cecilia*, [4] (1995–97), 71–88.

80 Ibid. 76.

81 Ibid. 88.

82 Marschner, “Værk” og “liv” som (modstridende?) musikvidenskabelige grundlag.

83 Ibid. 11–12.

84 Ibid. 13.

85 Ibid. 16.

86 Ibid. 17.

Annan berättelse, which he states ‘has been the most interesting for me and still at the same time has given me the most doubts.’⁸⁷

Thus, Marschner’s aim is to emphasize that it is the task of the musicologist to prove the value of the work of art, a value that otherwise is at risk of not being understood or of being forgotten. Marschner says that ‘[t]he work is what has been created once and for all’, and he adds that the work has something that can be called truth, which can only ‘be sought as a complex unity of objective and subjective moments.’⁸⁸ Indeed, the field of ‘life’ too is part of the scholar’s task, but Marschner sees this primarily as an ‘ideographic perspective.’⁸⁹ Because of this, a consistent theme for Marschner is that irrespectively of its age, the work does not lose its meaning and as he writes: ‘Art has a – quite singular – significance, and the science of art has as one of its irremissible tasks to interpret this significance from an aesthetic-cognitive point of view.’⁹⁰

In the same way as I supplemented Martin’s article with the views of a few other scholars, I will here briefly introduce a recently published Norwegian book called *Musikk og mysterium* (Music and mystery).⁹¹ One of the fourteen authors of the book, the musicologist Erling E. Guldbrandsen contributes with an essay about his experiences listening to Bruckner’s Ninth Symphony. This personal attempt to express what this implies is in some respects similar to Marschner’s approach to Bruckner’s music. Here, as in Marschner, the question is brought up what a sober established line of research cannot determine and what cannot be caught by technical or graphical reductions or ‘let itself be fully interpreted in a purely aesthetic understanding.’⁹² Guldbrandsen continues:

It seems to be something *different* that appears, something faceless which moves at the bottom of the sounding experience, something dark and unmentionable which at short moments comes forth through the musical figures.⁹³

On the one hand, Guldbrandsen places his own musical experience in a discourse which circles around Bruckner’s time and environment. As Marschner, he discusses,

87 Ibid. 21.

88 Ibid. 23.

89 Ibid. Here Marschner refers to his presentation in Marschner, *Zwischen Einfühlung und Abstraktion*, 115–47, where Bruckner’s development of form is discussed from the point of view of knowledge about his personality, Dilthey’s hermeneutics as well as Jung’s psychological theories regarding introversion and extroversion.

90 Ibid. 16. In a recently published article, Marschner gives evidence – in connection to my article on Brahms’ opus 118:1, ‘Ett pedagogiskt intermezzo – utkast till en “lecture recital”’, *Studia Musicologica Norvegica*, 28 (2002), 38–62 – of what a musicologist can say about music by employing his craftsmanship of music theory, see Bo Marschner, ‘Den privilegerede analyse: Nogle reflexioner over ett kritisk tilstand i dagens musikvidenskab’, in Alf Björnberg et al. (eds.), *Frispel – Festskrift till Olle Edström* (Göteborg, 2005), 464–75.

91 Erling Guldbrandsen and Øivind Varkøy (eds.), *Musikk og mysterium – fjorten essay om grensesprengende musikalisk erfaring* (Oslo, 2004).

92 Erling Guldbrandsen, ‘Bruckners mørke mysterium’ (Bruckner’s dark mystery), in Guldbrandsen and Varkøy, *Musikk og Mysterium*, 11–39, on 13.

93 Ibid.

among other things, Jung's ideas about the archetypal and how Bruckner created his long developments of form. Gulbrandsen goes on to write that the effect of a specific development of form is purely musically based and affects how we can pinpoint, by means of language, experiences 'which seemingly comes "before language"', and he says that there are 'things that imply that the psychologically unconscious can transcend the shackles of time and space and causality'.⁹⁴

Thus, Gulbrandsen aims to reach further than the available contemporary scientific paradigms allow, and he speaks about the third way of art, that the work of art 'concerns something more than itself, but *this other is maybe only conceivable through the design of the work of art itself*'.⁹⁵ The methods consequently, used to varying extent by both Marschner and Gulbrandsen, of psychologizing, analysing, and understanding the works of Bruckner, are mostly within the category described by Goehr as 'transcendentalism and formalism'.⁹⁶

As I have discussed in my book *En Annan berättelse*, the various ways of understanding and using music – which in different ways have been expressed by these scholars – was a socially applied path trod upon from the late eighteenth century by a slowly increasing group of people from the top layers of society.⁹⁷

Those who had access to this newly articulated understanding were people – including those who only listened to music, amateurs who played/sang, music teachers, professional musicians, music writers, etc. – who had acquired a major fascination for music, due to their upbringing and personal involvement. Naturally, the personal practical knowledge as well as the theoretical knowledge of music varied, but these individuals had been socialized into behaviours and opinions of music as an important factor for reaching a fuller inner life. To varying degrees, thoughts of art music as the highest form of music were held, music which could both express the inexpressible but also portray an artist's fixed idea of love to an actress. These groups had read about and discussed art and had realized that the word aesthetic, in different combinations, was part of the discourse through which various types of music was differentiated, and lower forms of music were kept at bay.

This process continued during the twentieth century and for a long time with good speed. However, changes in society and the development of mass media resulted in a gradual slow down of the process, but also that it transformed into new forms leading to new musical aims.⁹⁸ As a consequence of this, music is used in many new ways, which has also led to that it has acquired new meanings, that new genres are created in the lime light of contemporary 'commercialism' at a rate and scope that would have been unthinkable only fifty years ago, that it is possible to

94 Ibid. 33, 34.

95 Ibid. 37.

96 Goehr, 'Writing music history', 192.

97 Cf. Edström, *En Annan berättelse*, 136–89, where I have termed these strategies aesthetic II and aesthetic III.

98 Ibid. 191–312.

encounter music from more centuries than before and music from an increasing number of cultures through the Internet etc. One consequence of this for musicology has been that a decreasing number of students have encountered Western art music during their childhood and adolescence. Today, this genre of music, although always briefly introduced along with other genres, is less frequently used in ordinary music lessons in the comprehensive school, and few pupils study music in grammar school. The younger generation seldom listens to 'classical music' (played on Swedish national radio channel 2), and in the Swedish municipal music schools, instead of Gossec's 'Gavotte', tunes from the 'pop-repertoire' is increasingly used as practice pieces even for the pupils who learn to play the violin.

This change has not only affected the younger generation, but also older generations. Today retired persons, too, listen to what was previously called youth music and their use of music has changed as well, although not so fundamentally as for younger people. As a consequence of the same process the previous priority of interpretation, in favour of Western art music, has changed, as well as the view of the value and meaning of this music.

Thus, when I try to evaluate Marschner's critique, I recall the reactions his lecture evoked in the hall filled with about sixty musicologists, as well as the comments that were recently made (March 2005) when his text was brought up at a doctoral seminar at my department. In both cases a majority expressed a lack of understanding of much of Marschner's epistemological approach, which in general was seen as antiquated and too narrowly aimed at the music 'in itself'.

My view, however – which might be a bit unexpected for the reader – is that in general I can both understand and use music in ways similar to Marschner's approach. But – which is evident in my presentations – I rather see it as my main task as a scholar to explain *why and how music was/is used and so was/is understood in the way that I from my position understand what it was/is. And then, the approach, the methods and my conclusions become different.*

Naturally, I see my own and Marschner's (as everybody's) points of view as socially imprinted and know that there is an immense literature which describes a similar attitude towards the view and use of the categories of objects which in the nineteenth century came to be experienced and termed as art, aesthetic objects, etc. In several essays I have tried to describe the social processes in which these views and sometimes beliefs regarding 'the effect of art', 'art's inner life', 'the deeper truths of art', 'true and false art', and so on, became a natural part of life.⁹⁹ In general, these and a thousand other verbal expressions, relating to the 'content', 'meaning', and 'importance' of music, how music should be 'understood', etc. have been something that people have experienced as real and true. In the continuously ongoing, more or less obvious transitional period which people probably always live in, there has always been a major agreement among people how reality is experienced.

99 Cf. footnote 2.

As I have argued, the understanding of, what in a middle class culture in the past two centuries was understood as ‘aesthetic experiences’ was layered over by other aesthetic experiences during the second part of the twentieth century.¹⁰⁰ But that does not change the fact that today there are still many persons who, due to upbringing, education, or ethnic background, will agree with both Said’s and Marschner’s views of the special functions of Art. But as the reader has already anticipated, I think that the basis for this form of experiences slowly but definitely will decrease. Although I do not agree with Adorno regarding the cause and effect of these changes, I think there is much truth in his assumption that the era of Art music is – maybe not over – but declining.¹⁰¹

Because of this, Marschner’s study of the works of Bruckner from the point of view that they are aesthetic objects is not problematic to me, if the purpose is to explain why this is/was possible and what it implies. But studies which implicitly insinuate that art music as an aesthetic category is an ahistorical entity with an eternal quality composed into the work, or that there is an actual ‘underlying’ value or essence or ‘even worse’ that it, in some respect, has a truth – they even make me worried epistemologically. On the contrary, I am of the opinion that it is equally important to point out why the priority of interpretation which has been prevalent for a long time for this type of view of what should be termed a Work, how the work should be listened to, ‘understood’, etc., and why the normative claims built into this view to an increasing extent is met with scepticism today.

A further explanation to this reaction is that it occurs in a period when the world of music is more or less totally dominated by vocal music, which means that the traditional tool box of music analysis is opened less often and that the previous habit among musicologists to listen to longer instrumental works in concert halls has become less common. In the long run this change might lead to that it will be increasingly difficult to motivate younger generations to go through the type of learning process necessary to listen and understand, for instance, Bruckner’s symphonies in a way similar to that of the relatively small number of persons who lived during his and a few following generations. As I see it, this as an ongoing change. As Norbert Elias has taught us *sociogenesis* and *psychogenesis* are connected.¹⁰² Although I assume that the change of culture, like the change of nature is blind, I will not deny, nevertheless, that it is difficult for me to hold the opinion that it is positive that an increasing number of people probably will not know how to approach the music of Bruckner or Brahms – ‘just to sit still and listen to the same music for an hour?!?!?’

Of course, music is not something that exists in itself in a noumenal world, even though it has become possible for human beings during the evolution of mankind to think that it might be like that or is like that. A result of this in my opinion, is that a one-sided concentration on the work ‘in itself’, as if it existed outside time and space, or for that matter the work/composer ‘in themselves’ leads to incomplete

100 Cf. Edström, *En Anman berättelse*, 191–297, where I have termed these new aesthetic strategies from the twentieth century aesthetic IV and aesthetic V.

101 Cf. *ibid.* 201 ff.

102 Norbert Elias, *The Civilizing Process* (1939; rev. edn., Oxford, 2000).

descriptions. As everything – from the point of view of our biological predispositions – is socially mediated, the cause of something is just as important as the effect. Because of this I always try to make the user perspective my point of departure and think from the perspective that music has always been used or is used by a group-individual. I remain sceptical to privileged interpretations – grounded in a reading of the music – of what instrumental pieces ‘mean’ or as a variant of this, that the music is subjectivized, gets a life of its own and can supply societal knowledge. My user perspective could be compared to what DeNora writes on how musical compositions ‘come to be *situated* within particular social contexts ... a given music’s properties may lend themselves to various significances as its situation changes’.¹⁰³

Thus, it is from the viewpoints of what a) situation/time, b) place as well as c) the structure and d) performance of the music that I draw the conclusions I find relevant. One cannot discuss what music means/expresses etc. from a point of view that presupposes a general a-historic form of reception. How music functions and is used i.e. how it is/was listened to – in a concentrated way or hardly heard – depends on these four factors. It is important to understand that none of these factors are fixed but that everything cooperates and is integrated in the whole fabric of society.¹⁰⁴ If there was/is ideas that place the power and meaning of music in ‘non-worldly areas’ or which are based in beliefs, it is necessary to explain as far as possible, how these beliefs were formed and what function they have for the group-individual. To the greatest possible extent it is also important to pursue a necessary self-reflection. Naturally, this is a challenge, but the possibilities should at least be better if you manage to keep one foot in each camp, one in sociology and one in musicology, which is likely to give an understanding of both a more ideological use of music and a contemporary use. As evident, I find it important that a musicologist can approach the sounding structure of the music and explain what is going on. And, as I mentioned briefly in my introduction it is also necessary to be informed and make use of results from psychology, linguistics, and other disciplines of relevance to musicologists, not the least to put a-historical and a-cultural standpoints behind us.

This is somewhat like finding tenable methods and simultaneously by means of them lifting yourself in your own bootstraps. I refrain, however, from resorting to some kind of transcendental trick to explain what my present methods and ideas cannot clarify. But returning to Elias, it is possible to find a better balance between the two approaches, detachment and involvement, which is significant of all research, and not the least sociology and musicology. As the sociologist Richard Kilminster recently has discussed, there are signs of processes of change within Western societies at large that I find support the possibilities I hope for.¹⁰⁵

103 DeNora, *After Adorno*, 28.

104 For a detailed sociological analysis of the mechanisms involved in the shaping of a literary field cf. Pierre Bourdieu, *The Rules of Art* (Cambridge, 1996).

105 Richard Kilminster, ‘From distance to detachment: knowledge and self-knowledge in Elias’s theory of involvement and detachment’, in Steven Loyal and Stephen Quilley (eds.), *The Sociology of Norbert Elias* (Cambridge, 2004), 25–42.

Fully aware of the danger of trying to look at both sides of a coin at the same time (you then only see the edge) it is a question of changing perspectives. It is my belief that it is possible to do research both as a sociologist and as a musicologist either one studies *jojk* in the seventeenth century, Brahms in the nineteenth century, or popular songs in the twentieth century.

As the title of this article expresses I usually find myself on the move between sociology and aestheticism. Or maybe I should write that I strive for a synthesis and turn out to be located in a position in-between both and at the same time.

SUMMARY

The sociologist Peter Martin and music historian Bo Marschner have recently criticized the modus operandi of the Gothenburg School of Musicology. The former alleges underprivileging sociological aspects in our studies while the latter suggests neglect of the musical work itself.

My critique of these issues is prefaced by my argument that there is much to be learned from research in linguistics and psychology that deals with ‘pre-social’ and ‘biological’ prerequisites for music and culture. Then I discuss what is implied when Martin and other contemporary sociologists insist on the importance of the social as the focal point where all other factors – music among them – are brought together. I include in this part a discussion of the advantages of the concept ‘affordance’. With Keller’s theory of linguistic signs as a point of departure, I explore the ontological status of music and the possibilities of the use of music as a means of communication. I argue that music in our culture has a rhetorically intensifying, emotional and limited associative dimension. Further I consider Marschner’s epistemological outlook and views of music as an aesthetic experience, and his critique of my sociomusicological works. His views are supplemented with the views of a few other scholars.

In a concluding discussion I attempt to bridge the gap between a sociological and an aesthetic understanding of music, as both lead to an incomplete understanding of the use of and meaning of music. I argue for an understanding of music from the viewpoints of a) situation/time for, b) place of, c) the structure of, and d) the performance of music. What is important to me is to understand why and how music was used and is used in what ways. It is from a contemporary reflexive position that I argue for an understanding of the ongoing social process.

Uden for operahistoriens hovedspor

Berlioz' Benvenuto Cellini og Schumanns Genoveva

JENS HESSELAGER

Her er et par interessante spørgsmål til den kontrafaktiske operahistorieskrivning: Hvordan havde det nittende århundredes operahistorie mon taget sig ud uden Wagner? Eller uden Verdi? Eller Meyerbeer? Rossini? Weber? Nå ja, måske er de faktisk ikke *så* interessante alligevel. Men de kan i det mindste tjene til at minde om en banal sandhed: At det der i dag er fortid, engang har været et åbent og uafgjort felt af potentialer, visioner, ideer osv. Ja, endnu værre: En slagmark. I tiden op til og omkring de borgerlige revolutioner i 1848-49 synes kampen om operaens fremtid at have været specielt hed, ikke mindst i Tyskland hvor spørgsmålet var dybt politiseret. For mange hang det først og fremmest sammen med behovet for at skabe sammenhængskraft i den tyske kultur. En kulturel dannelsesopgave, der udgjorde en endnu ikke opfyldt forudsætning for dannelsen af en tysk nation. Men samtidig havde problemet også en mere generel side, der handlede om forholdet mellem kunsten og den nutidige virkelighed: “Kein Ruf ist der Zeit gemäßer, als der nach Wirklichkeit”, som fx kritikeren Robert Wolfgang Griepenkerl formulerede det i 1847, idet han lagde vægt på at kunstneren først og fremmest var forpligtet på sit “Zeitbürgerthum”.¹

I den sammenhæng var der specielt én komponist der delte vandene, nemlig Giacomo Meyerbeer. I løbet af 1830'erne havde Meyerbeer og hans librettist, Eugène Scribe, med *Robert le diable* (1831) og *Les Huguenots* (1836), begge skrevet til Pariseroperaen (*Academie royale de musique*), placeret sig som de væsentligste skabere af tidens mest indflydelsesrige model for hvad en stort anlagt opera, der var på højde med tidens tendenser, ville sige: Et historisk drama – en *grand opéra* – gerne i 5 akter, der grundlæggende er bygget op omkring en nummerstruktur (med recitativer, arier, duetter, ensembler, balletter osv.), men hvis dramaturgi desuden lægger afgørende vægt på større, komplekse, ‘spektakulære’ scener, hvor koret spiller en væsentlig rolle for dramaet, og hvor dramaet ikke alene udfolder sig musikalsk og verbalt, men i høj grad også visuelt. Med hensyn til denne visuelle side af dramaet lægges der desuden stor vægt på den realistiske scenografi, dvs. på historisk ‘korrekte’ detaljer og på lokalkolorit.

Richard Wagners opgør med dette musikdramaturgiske paradigme går som bekendt blandt andet på de netop nævnte træk: I stedet for et historisk emne, et mytologisk (ikke fra den antikke mytologi, men fra den nordiske/germanske). I stedet for nummerstrukturen, en ‘symfonisk’ kontinuitet i det dramatiske forløb, hvor grænserne mellem recitativ og arie opløses, hvor de lukkede former nedbrydes til fordel for en ‘uendelig melodi’, og hvor balletnumre intet har at gøre. Og i stedet for den

1 Robert Wolfgang Griepenkerl, ‘Die Oper der Gegenwart’, *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik*, 27 (1847); her citeret fra Hansjörg Ewert, *Anspruch und Wirkung: Studien zur Entstehung der Oper Genoveva von Robert Schumann* (Tutzing, 2003), 40.

sceniske og ofte visuelt spektakulære repræsentation af folket gennem koret, en grundlæggende verbalt funderet og dialogorienteret dramaform.

Disse to dramaformer stod naturligvis aldrig alene og var selvfølgelig heller ikke de eneste musikhistorisk konsekvensrige. Denne artikel retter imidlertid blikket mod hvad der viste sig at blive to mere perifere bidrag til den operahistoriske udvikling i tiden *efter* Meyerbeers *Les Huguenots*, men *før* Wagners mest monumentale teoretiske bidrag til den tyske debat om operaens fremtid, *Oper und Drama*, der udkom i Leipzig i 1852. Det drejer sig om Hector Berlioz' *Benvenuto Cellini*, uropført 1838 på Pariseroperaen, og Robert Schumanns *Genoveva*, uropført i 1850 på Stadttheater i Leipzig.

Der kan være mange gode grunde til at hverken *Benvenuto Cellini* eller *Genoveva* fik de store operahistoriske konsekvenser som musikdramatiske modeller, som afgørende inspiration eller provokation for senere operakomponister eller bare som første forsøg i retninger som andre senere skulle tage op.² For eksempel at de – som mange mener – havde uløste, eller uhensigtsmæssigt løste, dramaturgiske problemer, eller af andre grunde ikke var vellykkede. Formålet med at diskutere de to operaer her er imidlertid ikke at bedømme dem som mere eller mindre vellykkede værker. Snarere er det tanken at tage dem alvorligt som musikdramatiske udkast, som afvigelser fra de mere dominerende og konsekvensrige operahistoriske modeller, og dermed også som en hjælp til at få øje på lidt flere af fortidens pluralistiske, uafgjorte, åbne kvaliteter.

Der er flere grunde til at undersøge netop *Benvenuto Cellini* og *Genoveva* i denne sammenhæng. For det første et vist skæbnefællesskab: Der var tale om velovervejede og ambitiøse operadebuter af to af tidens absolut førende komponister (og musikkritikere) i hhv. Frankrig og Tyskland. Debuter der naturligvis vakte opsigt alene af den grund, og af hvilke man naturligvis måtte forvente, og forventede, markante og personlige bud på hvad aktuel musikdramatik kunne være. En øretæveindbydende situation som det måske næsten ville have været mere besynderligt hvis de var sluppet godt fra. For det andet en række radikale forskelle ved disse bud, der bl.a. gør det muligt at betragte dem som modpoler i en slags 'skygge-dualisme', hvor den ene (*Benvenuto Cellini*) indtager en slags forskudt eller alternativ Meyerbeer-position, mens den anden (*Genoveva*) demonstrerer et alternativ til Wagners Meyerbeer-reaktion.

BENVENUTO CELLINI

Apropos åbenhed og uafgjorte kvaliteter må man starte med at konstatere, at det ikke er så nemt at tale om *Benvenuto Cellini* som et entydigt definerbart og færdigt værk. Den nye Berliozudgaves såkaldte 'Urtext'-udgave af *Benvenuto Cellini* viser da også tydeligt at der var tale om et work-in-progress, hvor der strengt taget ikke kan etableres nogen autoritativ 'Urtext'. I stedet præsenteres tre del-stadier i værkets tilblivelses- og udviklingsproces i en og samme udgivelse: To Paris-versioner (før og efter revisionerne i forbindelse med de første opførelser i 1838) og den mere radikalt

2 Som en undtagelse der bekræfter reglen kan nævnes Peter Cornelius' til dels *Benvenuto Cellini*-inspirerede *Der Barbier von Bagdad* (1858).

reviderede Weimar-udgave fra 1852-53, som blev udgivet i klaverudtog i 1856.³ For at kunne give en nogenlunde kvalificeret vurdering af baggrunden for værkets ret blandede karakter, må man imidlertid tage endnu flere tilblivelseshistoriske aspekter med i betragtning. Da Berlioz og hans to librettister, Léon de Wailly og Auguste Barbier, begyndte at arbejde på operaen i 1834, var den således ikke tænkt til opførelse på *Académie royale de musique*, men på *Opéra comique*.⁴ Derfor var værket altså også i form og indhold først konciperet som en *opéra comique*, hvad der blandt andet indebar talt dialog. Dette synes at have fået vedvarende konsekvenser, specielt for stilen i operaens recitativiske afsnit. Recitativerne forekommer nemlig i højere grad end sædvanligt i samtidige *grand opera*'er at inkorporere stiltræk, der lægger sig op ad 'realistiske' samtalsituationer, hvor fx de samtalende afbryder eller misforstår hinanden (på komisk vis), hvor replikkerne ofte er ordrige og leveres i højt tempo, og hvor der hyppigt indgår små indskudte udbrud på et enkelt eller få ord, såsom: 'Ah, bravo!', 'Paix!' eller 'Mais comment?'

Orkesterets akkompagnement er i sådanne recitativiske afsnit skrevet i en dynamisk og ofte virtuos stil, der understreger situationens og personernes gestiske og dramatiske karakter, sommetider i karikaturens parodierende form. Der indgår jævnligt motivisk arbejde i dette *accompagnato*, men det er også påfaldende hvor ofte dette faktisk *ikke* er tilfældet, eller hvor ofte det motiviske materiale, der måtte være, begrænser sig til melodisk neutralt eller 'lokale' figurer uden erindringsfunktion. Selv de motiver der i løbet af operaen knyttes til bestemte personer bidrager først og fremmest til den løbende musikalske personkarakteristik, mens der ret sjældent er tale om at motiverne udfylder en egentlig narrativ funktion, ved at minde publikum om noget der har relevans for det overordnede plot. Når det alligevel sker, er det som regel i rent instrumentale afsnit. Musikken holder altså i meget høj grad dramaet fast på det nutids- og situationsbundne, i en overvejende *action*-præget form.

DET KOMISKE OG DET SERIØSE

Opéra comique ville ikke have operaen, sådan som Berlioz og hans librettister skitserede den for dem, og da det sidenhen lykkedes at få en aftale med Pariseroperaen måtte der naturligvis tages hensyn til de ændrede omstændigheder. Disse indebar først og fremmest at der ikke kunne indgå talt dialog, men også at der skulle være et vist spektakulært element – et element som dog heller ikke synes at have været fraværende i de hidtidige planer. Som scener der skulle levere "the necessary spectacle", fremhæver D. Kern Holoman i sin Berlioz-biografi de to folkerige scener i første akts andet tableau:⁵ Dels scenen på tavernen, hvor Cellini og hans venner holder drikkegilde, dels karnevalsscenen med dens gevaldige sceniske tumult og musikalske

3 Hector Berlioz, *New Edition of the Complete Works*, vol. 1a-d, *Benvenuto Cellini*, ed. Hugh McDonald (Kassel etc., 1994-96).

4 D. Kern Holoman, *Berlioz* (London, 1989), 157.

5 Dette blev i Weimar-udgaven til anden akt.

groteskerier.⁶ Scenen på tavernen inkluderer bl.a. det første Berlioz komponerede til operaen, allerede i 1834, nemlig den sang hvori Cellini og hans kunstner venner med stolthed besynger deres håndværk, ‘Chant de ciseleurs’.

Blandt de hensyn der skulle tages til Pariseroperaen var dog *ikke* at der nu skulle være tale om en mere alvorstung opera. Man ville nemlig have et værk i den moderate genre: “more gay than tragic”, skriver Holoman.⁷ Men de ændringer der fulgte efter førsteopførelsen synes alligevel overvejende at gå ud på at give værkets karakter en mere seriøs drejning. Allerede i dagene mellem første og anden opførelse tilføjede Berlioz således en arie til starten af andet tableau, Cellinis ‘La gloire était ma seule idole’.⁸ Denne tilføjelse indebar en justering af Cellinis karakter, som i løbet af de første to tableauer ellers overvejende havde været forbundet med hans kurmageri over for Teresa, hans rolle som bohemeagtig lederskikkelse i flokken af kunstner venner, hans fändenivoldske plan om at bortføre Teresa under karnevallet for næsen af hendes far og hans måde at håndtere situationen på da denne plan går i vasken. Her ender det med at han dræber Pompeo (rivalen Fieramoscas hjælper) hvorefter han pågribes, vrider sig løs og flygter i mængden. Igen dagen efter – i tredje tableau – tænker han mere på at flygte sammen med Teresa end på sin kunst. “Til helvede med min statue, og med paven, og loven”, som han formulerer det.⁹ Eftersom han nu er eftersøgt for mord, er det selvfølgelig forståeligt at han tænker mere på at flygte end på at færdiggøre sit mesterværk, men ikke desto mindre forbereder det os ikke på et fjerde tableau og et *denouement* der, for rigtigt at fungere, forudsætter at vi kan overbevises om at hans forhold til kunsten er præget af en kompromisløs seriositet. Den tilføjede arie hjælper lidt på det problem.

Som hermed antydnet kan en grundlæggende dramaturgisk problematik i *Benvenuto Cellini* således formuleres som et spørgsmål om hvordan det lader sig gøre at kombinere det komiske med det seriøse. En problematik der altså har noget at gøre med værkets tilblivelseshistorie. Men dermed aktualiseres imidlertid også – til dels på et nyt grundlag – et mere generelt æstetisk spørgsmål for det franske romantiske drama, og et spørgsmål der godt ti år tidligere hang tæt sammen sammen med romantikkens opør med den klassiske regelpoetik og skønhedsæstetik. Det er for eksempel en problematik som Stendhal beskæftigede sig med i *Racine et Shakespeare* fra 1823/25, og Victor Hugo i sit manifestagtige forord til skuespillet *Cromwell* fra 1827. Shakespeare spiller her en afgørende rolle som prototypen på en romantisk kunstner, der forholdt sig frit til klassiske regler og dyder: Han overholdt ikke ‘enhederne’ (i hvert fald ikke tidens og stedets), han vekslede frit mellem vers og prosa, han blandede komiske elementer og personer ind i sine tragedier og omvendt. I Hugos terminologi: han blandede det groteske med det sublime.¹⁰ Stendhal formulerede opgøret med regelpoetikken således:

6 Holoman, *Berlioz*, 179.

7 Ibid.

8 Ibid. 250.

9 Tredje tableau, 2. scene (nr. 17): “Au diable ma statue, et le Pape, et la loi”

10 Se Victor Hugo, ‘Préface de Cromwell’ (1827), i *Théâtre Complet*, vol. 1 (Paris, 1963).

En romantisk tragedie er forfattet i prosa, den følge af begivenheder som den præsenterer for tilskuerne varer flere måneder, og udspiller sig i flere forskellige omgivelser.¹¹

Også for Berlioz, som ellers ikke havde noget tilovers for Rossini-tilhængeren Stendhal, var dette opgør med den klassiske regelpoetik afgørende. Så meget endda, at han foretrak Victor Ducanges melodrama *Trente ans, ou La vie d'un joueur* fra 1827 – med prosatekst, en Faust-agtig handling der er spredt over 30 år og en stadig mere for-dærvet gambler i hovedrollen – fremfor det romantiske dramas gennembrudsværk fra 1830, Victor Hugos versdrama *Hernani*.¹²

Alle forskelligheder til trods tilhører imidlertid både *Trente ans*, *Hernani* og *Benvenuto Cellini* – under en bestemt synsvinkel – den samme type drama: De tematiserer ikke bare det romantiske dramas opgør mod det regelbundne i form og opbygning, men indsætter også en oprører og regelbryder som dramaets egen hovedperson. Dermed tangerer de også tidens populære ‘røverromantik’, med dens fascination af banditternes frie liv og selvbestaltede fællesskab uden for loven (og som regel også uden for storbyerne) – fx fremstillet som pirrende eksotisk, om end moralsk problematisk, eller som repræsenterende et rebelsk, måske endda revolutionært politisk budskab. Eksemplerne på tematikkens udfoldelse i forskellige varianter er legio – fra Friedrich Schillers skuespil *Die Räuber* (1781) over Walter Scotts historiske roman *Ivanhoe* (1819) til Prosper Merimées quasi-etnografiske sigøjnerstudie i novellen *Carmen* (1845) og så videre. Et karakteristisk træk ved historier som disse tre er at de fortæller historien om en overskridelse af grænsen mellem samfundets lovregulerede virkelighed og livet udenfor. Banditheltene – Schillers Karl Moor, Scotts Robin Hood og Merimées Don José – er alle ‘i virkeligheden’ af god familie, men havner af forskellige årsager i et konfliktforhold til den bestående orden, går over til den anden side og bliver bandeledere. Modellen genfindes naturligvis i et utal af operaer, hvoraf de mange eksempler i Verdis produktion – fx *Ernani* (1844), *I masnadieri* (1847), *Il trovatore* (1853) – kun udgør toppen af isbjerget.

FRIHEDSTRANGENS STIL

Banditten udgør også en tilbagevendende musikdramatisk figur i Berlioz’ univers. I *Lélio ou Le retour à la vie* (1831), som er udformet som en særegen kombination af talt monolog, vokal- og orkestermusik (Berlioz kalder det et ‘monodrame lyrique’), fantasierer hovedpersonen, Lélio, på et tidspunkt om et liv som simpel bandit. Fantasien følger direkte i hælene på en Shakespeare-lovprisning (‘O Shakespeare! Shakespeare!’) og en deraf afledt tirade imod de fordomsfulde akademiske teoretikere, der ikke forstår kunstens genier, men lever i rutinsens triste tempel. ‘Åh, for en kunstner er et sådant samfund værre end helvede!’¹³ udbryder Lélio, og det er denne bemærkning

11 Stendhal, *Racine et Shakespeare, No. II* (Paris, 1825), 26: “Une tragédie romantique est écrite en prose, la succession des événements qu’elle présente aux yeux des spectateurs dure plusieurs mois, et ils se passent en des lieux différents?”

12 Se Hector Berlioz, *Correspondance générale*, vol. 1 (Paris, 1972), 322.

13 Hector Berlioz, *Lélio ou Le retour à la vie*, Partition chant et piano (Kassel, 2000), 20: “Oh! Une pareille société, pour un artiste, est pire que l’enfer!”

der giver impulsen til fantasien om det frie og enkle banditliv i de italienske bjerg-egne. Klarere kan man næppe udtrykke associationen mellem på den ene side den romantiske kunstners frihedstrang i forhold til den akademiske regelpoetik og banditernes frihedstrang i forhold til de grænser som det moderne (storby)samfund sætter for individet. Her følger nu en musikalsk hallucination, ‘Chanson de brigands’, til hvilken talerollen Lélío, udklædt i italiensk banditudstyr (hat, sabel, pistoler m.m.), udfører en pantomime der “udtrykker den rolle som han forestiller sig at spille, i den scene som han tror at høre”.¹⁴ ‘Chanson de brigands’ præges af energiske harmoniske og rytmiske overraskelsesvirkninger og af den folkelige chansons ligefremme stil og enkle form med dens vekslen mellem forsangeren/solisten (kaptajnen) og mandskoret (flokket af menige røvere).

Røverlivet repræsenterer altså for den følsomme kunstner, Lélío, først og fremmest en drøm om at indgå i et livskraftigt og udadvendt fællesskab, der dog hurtigt afslører sig som groft, udannet og vulgært. Tilsvarende situationer optræder i mange andre af Berlioz’ værker – fx i de to chansons som Faust må lægge øre til da Mefistofeles tager ham med til det frivole og lidet gudsfrygtige selskab i Auerbachs kældere i Leipzig: ‘Chanson de Brander’ og ‘Chanson de Méphistophélès’ fra *Huit scènes de Faust* (1829).¹⁵ Og den samme modstilling mellem den følsomme protagonist og det rå banditfællesskab genfindes desuden endnu engang i fjerdesatsen af *Harold en Italie* (1834), ‘Orgie de brigands’, hvor den lyrisk-melankolske solobratch (Harold) konfronterer orkesterets banditmusik. Her udfoldes tematikken i en instrumental, symfonisk form, hvor et af temaerne nok har karakter af en livlig chanson i stil med de tidlige nævnte,¹⁶ men hvor de virkemidler der skal give banditernes ubændige og rebelske frihedstrang et musikalsk udtryk ellers overvejende består af rytmiske og metriske excentriciteter, udadvendte og energisk fremadstormende tuttpassager samt en instrumentationsteknik, der gennem hyppige og virtuost hurtige replikudvekslinger mellem forskellige instrumentgrupper skaber fornemmelsen af et tumultarisk og grotesk massesceneri.

Som Oliver Vogel har vist i et nyligt studie, pegede Berlioz’ litterære interesser allerede i 1820’erne ofte i en tilsvarende retning. Også selvom han på dette tidspunkt kun ledte efter et stof der kunne give anledning til ‘stor’ musik – dvs. et emne til en seriøs, evt. heroisk opera, ikke en komisk.¹⁷ I Berlioz’ tidlige forsøg med operagenren, den aldrig færdiggjorte *Les Francs-Juges* (ca. 1826-29), styrter tyranen Olmérik fx den retmæssige tronarving Lenor, som derefter må flygte og gå under jorden blandt sigøjnere.¹⁸ En konstruktion, altså, der udviser et vist strukturelt slægtskab med fx Schillers *Die Räuber*, idet dramaets konflikt udspringer af at helten nægtes

14 Ibid.: “exprime la part qu’il prend en imagination à la scène qu’il croit entendre”.

15 Ligesom den øvrige musik i *Huit scènes de Faust* indgår disse chansons også i det senere værk *La damnation de Faust* (1845-46).

16 Optræder første gang i takt 177 (2 takter efter ciffer 43).

17 Oliver Vogel, *Der romantische Weg im Frühwerk von Hector Berlioz* (Stuttgart, 2003), 171.

18 Ibid. 183. I kapitlet ‘Strategien zum Erfolg mit dramatischer Opernmusik’ gennemfører Vogel en udførlig undersøgelse af Berlioz’ forskellige operaideer i 1820’erne, jf. *ibid.* 156-95.

det han ellers burde have retmæssigt krav på i kraft af sin herkomst. Helten kan dermed i en og samme person forene et 'inden for samfundet' (som søn og arving, men også som forpligtet af samfundets love) og et 'uden for' (som udstødt, men også fri). Det er en dobbelthed der rummer et åbentlyst dramatisk konfliktstof og som samtidig netop åbner op for muligheden for en kombination af heroiske og komiske – eller af noble og kriminelle, sublime og groteske – kvaliteter i tegningen af heltens karakter.

DEN GENIALE BANDIT

Den samme dobbelthed skræver Benvenuto Cellini-figuren over, ikke fordi han er en aristokrat der er drevet i landflygtighed, men fordi han, med Berlioz' udtryk, er en "genial bandit" (bandit de génie),¹⁹ der i sin personlighed forener kunstnergeniets åndelige overlegenhed med bandittens temperament og amoralske adfærd. Operaen bygger på udvalgte elementer af den florentinske renæssancekunstner Benvenuto Cellinis selvbiografi fra 1560'erne – en selvbiografi hvis popularitet og aktualitet for romantikerne bl.a. hang sammen med at Goethe havde 'opdaget' og oversat den til tysk i 1798.²⁰ Det gælder ikke mindst, i frit omskrevet form, de dramatiske omstændigheder omkring selve støbningen af Cellinis mesterværk, Perseusstatuen. Billedet af Cellini som både ærekær kunstner og forbryder – endda morder – har også rod i selvbiografien, om end omstændighederne omkring mordet på Pompeo i karnevals-scenen stort set intet har tilfælles med Cellinis egen beretning.²¹

De væsentligste elementer af andet tableaux karnevalsscene er derimod hentet fra E.T.A. Hoffmanns novelle 'Signor Formica'.²² Hovedpersonen i denne novelle er maleren Salvator Rosa, som *muligvis* i en periode havde været med i en røverbande i de italienske bjergegne, og som *muligvis* tog del i den folkelige opstand i Napoli i 1647 under oprørslederen Masaniello.²³ Det sagde i hvert fald populære rygter, som Hoffmann ikke undlader at referere. Ligesom Cellini udgør Salvator Rosa det naturlige centrum for en kreds af kunstnervenner, hvis antiakademiske æstetik afspejles i et tilsvarende slagfærdigt og bohemeagtigt kunstnerliv. Handlingen i 'Signor Formica' foregår desuden, ligesom *Benvenuto Cellini*, i Rom, og der er dermed tale om en slags oversættelse af 'røverbande'-tematikken til en mere

19 François Piatier, *Benvenuto Cellini de Berlioz, ou le mythe de l'artiste* (Paris, 1979), 23.

20 Julia Conaway Bondella and Peter Bondella, 'Introduction', i Benvenuto Cellini, *My Life* (Oxford, 2002), ix.

21 Jf. Cellini, *My Life*, 122 ff.

22 E.T.A. Hoffmann, 'Signor Formica', i *Die Serapiensbrüder*, vol. 4 (1821), (E.T.A. Hoffmann, *Poetische Werke* (Berlin, 1957), viii. 12-97).

23 Igen er der tale om historiske personer. Salvator Rosa levede 1615-73 og Hoffmanns fortælling synes, selvom den har fiktionens form og tager sig kunstneriske friheder, i vidt omfang at lægge sig op ad historiske kendsgerninger om virkelige personer og begivenheder. Historien om Tomas Aniello, kaldet Masaniello (1620-47), var endnu en af de historier om oprørsledere og banditter der var populære i Paris på Berlioz' tid. Historien var kendt i mange forskellige versioner, bl.a. fra Aubers opera *La muette de Portici* (1829).

urban sammenhæng. Det er en signifikant geografisk forskydning. For hvor der potentielt kunne komme en kritik af det moderne storbyliv til udtryk igennem den type bandit der forskanser sig i bjergegnene, repræsenterer figurer som Rosa og Cellini snarere selv en slags subkulturel avantgardeposition inden for dette moderne storbyunivers.²⁴ Dermed ligger Berlioz' opera i klar forlængelse af en tendens som Anselm Gerhard kaster lys over i sin undersøgelse af *grand opéra*-genren i det nittende århundredes Paris, *Die Verstädterung der Oper*.²⁵ Gerhard peger her på at operaen i Paris på denne tid reflekterer sin samtid på en måde der ikke kan forklares tilfredsstillende udelukkende ud fra en socialhistorisk vinkel – altså fx som udtryk for en borgerliggørelse af genren. Der kræves ifølge Gerhard en bredere kulturhistorisk tilgang, der fokuserer på selve storbyen som et af modernitetens primære erfaringsrum. Og måske blandt andet fordi storbyen er et sted hvor det omgivende samfund dagligt kan erfares som et konkret nærvær af en stor mængde mennesker, er en af de muligheder som operaen har for at reflektere denne modernitet knyttet tæt sammen med spørgsmål om den musikalske artikulation af forskellige typer fællesskaber og fællesskabsfølelser.

EDSAFLÆGGELSE

Netop fællesskaber og fællesskabsfølelser egner sig af oplagte grunde godt til at blive fremstillet musikdramatisk, og variationsmulighederne er mange. Siden den franske revolution (og i nogle tilfælde også før) har man i mange operaer, specielt sådanne med handlinger af et vist heroisk tilsnit, fundet anvendelse for en særlig type dramatisk situation, der egner sig vældig godt til at udtrykke en særlig type fællesskabsfølelse i musik: Den situation, nemlig, hvor en gruppe mennesker, evt. et helt folk, i fællesskab aflægger en ed. Elizabeth Bartlet har vist hvordan denne musikdramatiske topos udnyttedes i en række operaer der blev opført på Pariseroperaen (med slet skjult propagandistisk sigte) under Robespierres terrorregime, og hun peger samtidig på hvordan den samme topos senere blev taget op i fx Spontinis *Fernand Cortez* (1809) og Rossinis *Guillaume Tell* (1829).²⁶ Det er Bartlets pointe at sådanne edsaflæggelsescener på forskellig vis afspejlede aspekter af revolutionens retorik, og at de (magt)relationer der dermed fremstilledes mellem fx en leder og et folk havde en aktuel politisk klangbund. Anselm Gerhard hæfter sig også ved edsaflæggelsescenen som musikdramatisk topos, der kan give koret en aktiv rolle at spille og give anledning til et potent musikdramatisk udtryk med aktuelle politiske overtoner, som fx i 4. akt af Meyerbeers *Les Huguenots*.²⁷

24 Se desuden Mary Gluck, 'Theorizing the Cultural Roots of the Bohemian Artist', i *Modernism/Modernity*, 7/3 (2000), 351-78.

25 Anselm Gerhard, *Die Verstädterung der Oper* (Stuttgart, 1992). Engelsk oversættelse v. Mary Whittall, *The Urbanization of Opera* (Chicago and London, 1998).

26 M. Elizabeth C. Bartlet, 'The new repertory at the Opéra during the Reign of Terror: Revolutionary rhetoric and operatic consequences', i Malcolm Boyd (ed.), *Music and the French Revolution* (Cambridge, 1992), 107-56.

27 Gerhard, *The Urbanization*, 87.

Når Cellini og hans venner aflægger en ed i scenen på tavernen i starten af andet tableau i *Benvenuto Cellini*, er det altså en type musikdramatisk situation som har været prøvet før. Situationen følger efter en scene hvor flokken af kunstner venner først har sunget en drikkevis, dernæst, på Cellinis opfordring, den før omtalte ‘Chant des ciseleurs’. Det foregår i en stil der er tydeligt beslægtet med de tidligere diskuterede eksempler på Berlioz’ ‘banditstil’. Da der herefter efterspørges mere vin, viser det sig at kreditten er sluppet op. Cellinis unge assistent, Ascanio (en bukserolle), dukker nu op med en pose penge, som er det sidste forskud på Pavens betaling for Perseusstatuen. Før han vil udlevere pengene må de imidlertid alle højtideligt love at statuen vil blive støbt allerede dagen efter – en ed som Ascanio formulerer (‘Cette somme t’est due’) og som Cellini og koret af ciselører dernæst gentager. Konstellationen er altså lidt usædvanlig. Der er ikke tale om at en helt står over for et folk, eller om at en flok individer sværger troskab mod en fælles fjende, for fædrelandet eller lignende. En flok kunstnere lover simpelthen et sendebud – en dreng – at færdiggøre et kunstværk (så de kan få noget mere vin at drikke). Men selvom situationen altså på overfladen tager sig mere komisk end heroisk ud, kommer man ikke uden om at fællesskabsfølelsen og kunstnerbandens følelse af faglig stolthed gives et musikalsk udtryk der også vil tages seriøst. I finalen af Berlioz’ næste store værk, den dramatiske symfoni *Roméo et Juliette* (1839), optræder igen en edsaflæggelse scene, ‘Serment de Réconciliation’. Her er det Fader Lawrence der formulerer eden, hvorefter de to kor (Capulet’erne og Montagu’erne) bekræfter den. Situationen er ubetinget seriøs og højtidelig. En del af de stilistiske virkemidler er de samme eller beslægtede: Tempoet er omtrent det samme (andante), tonearterne er hhv. E-dur (*Cellini*) og H-dur (*Roméo*), og taktarterne benytter i begge tilfælde en tredelt underdeling – hhv. 6/8 (*Cellini*) og 9/8 (*Roméo*). Solistens formulering af eden foregår uden fordobling af melodien og til et akkompagnement af akkordrepetitioner i et lavt register i ottendedele med en sparsomt tilføjet baslinie. Da koret overtager melodien foregår det i et højtideligt, messingblæserfordoblet unisono, idet instrumentationen breddes ud til et grandios og kunstfærdigt klangtæppe.

I *Benvenuto Cellini* forlades unisono’et dog på ordet ‘promesse’ i sætningen: ‘Cris en notre promesse’ (tro på vort løfte). Her fordeler stemmerne sig pludselig ud på en formindsket firklang, en bidominant til dominantens molvariant, h-mol. Melodistemmen bevæger sig op på den ‘dramatiske’ mol-udgave af hovedtoneartens tredje trin, *g*’, og falder derefter en formindsket septim ned til *ais* (se Eks. 1). Man kan opfatte sådanne mørke og ekspressive farvninger af det klanglige forløb som et narrativt virkemiddel – et forvarsel om at det ikke skal gå så nemt med at holde det løfte. I forhold til operaens større dramaturgiske grundproblematik er det imidlertid en væsentligere pointe at introduktionen af en ‘alvorstone’ i denne situation i det hele taget tjener det formål at skubbe balancen længere over mod det seriøse. Vi skal kunne tage situationernes højtidelighed alvorligt, samtidig med at vi kan se en vis afvæbnende komik i dem.

Eksempel 1. Hector Berlioz, *Benvenuto Cellini*, scene 10, t. 503-6.

Edsaflæggelsescenen i *Benvenuto Cellini* synes på den ene side at udtrykke et progressivt, elitært, subkulturelt avantgardefællesskab, et moderne storbyfænomen. En slags ‘en-for-alle-og-alle-for-en’-scene for 1830’ernes gryende bohémekultur. Men på den anden side er der også noget politisk uskyldigt, eller noget restaurationstidsagtigt tilbagetrukket og apolitisk – måske skulle man sige ‘apatriotisk’ – over situationen. (Cellini afspejler måske nok visse aspekter af 1820-30’ernes antiautoritære ‘unge Frankrig’ (*jeune France*), men han er ingen politisk revolutionær og det er ikke fædrelandskærlighed der driver ham.) Og det til trods for at netop edsaflæggelsen som musikdramatisk topos hos andre samtidige komponister ofte var forsynet med markante politiske, ofte (som fx i Rossinis *Guillaume Tell*) patriotiske, overtoner.

SCHUMANNS MEYERBEERKRITIK

I *Les Huguenots* anvendte Meyerbeer både edsaflæggelsessituationen specielt, og koret generelt, med betydeligt mere markante politiske konnotationer end Berlioz gjorde i *Benvenuto Cellini*. Som gennemgående musikalsk markør for huguenoternes religiøse fællesskab anvendte Meyerbeer Luther-koralen ‘Vor Gud han er så fast en borg’. Og som en effektiv sluteffekt bliver huguenotterne til sidst mejet brutalt ned af katolikernes geværvalver midt under afsyngelsen af denne koral, hvorefter de fanatiske katolikkers kampsang ‘Par le fer et par l’incendie, exterminons la race impie’²⁸

28 Omtrent: ‘Lad os med sværd og ild udrydde den uhellige race’.

på foruroligende vis får lov at klinge som det sidste man hører før tæppefald. I sin anmeldelse af operaen, skrevet mindre end et år efter uropførelsen, udtrykker Robert Schumann sin store væmmelse over den måde Meyerbeer således udnytter koralen til at fremtvinge krads og uhyrlige sceneeffekter:

Ich bin kein Moralist; aber einen guten Protestanten empört's sein teuerstes Lied auf den Brettern abgeschrien zu hören, empört es, das blutigste Drama seiner Religionsgeschichte zu einer Jahrmarktsfarce heruntergezogen zu sehen, Geld und Geschrei damit zu erheben, empört die Oper von der Ouvertüre an mit ihrer lächerlich-gemeinen Heiligkeit bis zum Schluß, nach dem wir ehestens lebendig verbrannt werden sollen.²⁹

For Schumann ligger der ikke andet end kold, tom og gemen spekulation i publikums lavere instinkter bag Meyerbeers kombination af 'svælgeri' (specielt scenen i anden akt med de badende kvinder), mord og bøn:

... vergebens würde man einen ausdauernd reinen Gedanken, eine wahrhaft christliche Empfindung darin suchen.³⁰

Hvor *Benvenuto Cellini* kombinerer det komiske med det heroiske, konfronterer *Les Huguenots* det groteske og uhyrlige med det uskyldige. Med Victor Hugos krav til det romantiske drama i bagehovedet, kan man altså tale om to beslægtede æstetiske og dramaturgiske problematikker. Men Schumann gik tilsyneladende slet ikke ind på den præmis at dette kunne udgøre det legitime udgangspunkt for Meyerbeers musikdramatiske konstruktion. For ham var det spørgsmål som *Les Huguenots* rejste snarere hvordan religiøse konflikter og følelser lod sig fremstille i musikdramatisk form uden at blive profaneret. Som positivt modeksempel til *Les Huguenots* fremhæver Schumann i sin anmeldelse Mendelssohns 'protestantiske koncertatorium', *Paulus* (også fra 1836). Hermed fremgår det altså i det mindste at hans kritik af Meyerbeers brug af 'Vor Gud han er så fast en borg' ikke nødvendigvis er udtryk for en principiel afstandtagen til inddragelsen af koral eller til anvendelsen af en religiøs tematik i ikke-kirkelige værker. Men han savnede en 'sand kristen følelse' og følte at viljen til at underholde og chokere gik ud over respekten for det emne der behandles. Det er altså både en æstetisk og en moralsk problematik, og andre steder i anmeldelsen fremgår det indirekte at denne problematik også har forbindelse til konkrete kompositionstekniske spørgsmål – fx i den negative bedømmelse af de håndværksmæssige kvaliteter ved Meyerbeers kontrapunkt (og, underforstået, ved den kirkestil der alluderes til i kraft af anvendelsen af kontrapunktiske teknikker), og af det 'grovsmedsagtige' ved Marcells evindelige 'Ein' feste Burg'-inds kud.³¹

29 Robert Schumann, 'Fragmente aus Leipzig' (1836/37), i *Schriften über Musik und Musiker* (Stuttgart, 1982), 129-30.

30 Ibid. 130.

31 Ibid. 131.

KORAL

Schumanns kritik af *Les Huguenots* udgør hans første, mest opsigtsvækkende og oftest diskuterede stykke operakritik,³² og selvom der går 10 år før han skriver den første musik til *Genoveva*,³³ forekommer de problematikker han beskæftigede sig med i denne anmeldelse ikke at have mistet deres aktualitet for Schumann i mellemtiden. Første akt af *Genoveva* åbner således netop med en koral, sunget af en menighed af riddere, adelsfolk og almindelige mennesker på grev Siegfrieds slotsborg. Siegfried og hans våbenføre undersåtter er på vej i krig imod maurerne, og koralen har således den funktion at give udtryk for et kulturelt og religiøst fællesskab, samtidig med at der for dette fællesskab formuleres en fælles sag, som alle tilslutter sig (“Wir sind bereit!”, svarer folket på biskoppens opfordring, omtrent som om de aflagde en ed). Der er tale om en næsten kantateagtig åbningsscene med tydelige stilistiske referencer til Bach, hvis protestantiske kirkemusik efter Mendelssohns historiske ‘genopdagelse’ af Matthæuspassionen i 1829 havde spillet en afgørende rolle som udgangspunkt for konstruktionen af en tysk national musikalsk identitet.³⁴ Men i øvrigt antyder de religiøse elementer i operaens handling snarere en (syd)tysk-katolsk kontekst. Det gælder specielt scenen i fjerde akt (Nr. 18) hvor Genoveva er blevet ført ud i en vild bjergegn. Hun får her øje på et kors og et Mariabillede som hun henvender sig til i bøn, og oplever dernæst en religiøs vision, idet et rødtligt skær udgår fra Mariabilledet, alt imens et usynligt kor bag scenen synger “Frieden sei mit dir!”. Her ligger Schumanns udfoldelse af Genoveva-stoffet i god tråd med visse af de tanker som Franz Brendel, Schumanns efterfølger som redaktør på *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik*, gjorde sig i sin artikel-trilogi, ‘Vergangenheit, Gegenwart und Zukunft der Oper’ fra 1845-46. I den midterste artikel, ‘Gegenwart’, betoner Brendel operagenrens særlige rolle som “Trägerin des Zeitbewußtseins” samt behovet for at operaen træder i forbindelse med sin samtid gennem en stræben “nach Erfassung deutscher Nationalität” – en bestræbelse som han jævnfører med fremkomsten af “einer nationalen, einer deutsch-katholischen Kirche”.³⁵

Hvor *Les Huguenots* udnytter konflikten mellem protestantisk og katolsk som dramatisk brændstof, synes *Genoveva* altså nærmere at opløse denne konflikt til fordel for konstruktionen af en nationalt funderet kristelighed, der både gives et kollektivt (‘protestantisk’) musikdramatisk udtryk gennem inddragelsen af menighedssangen i den sceniske handlingssang, og et individuelt (‘katolsk’) udtryk, som et inderligt, personligt gudsforhold, gennem arien.

32 Jf. Ewert, *Anspruch und Wirkung*, 82 ff.

33 Kompositionsarbejdet begyndte i april 1847 og startede, usædvanligt nok, med ouverturen; ibid. 107.

34 Se også Carl Dahlhaus, ‘Zur Entstehung der romantischen Bach-Deutung’, i *Bach Jahrbuch*, 64 (1978), 192-210.

35 Citeret og parafaseret efter Ewert, *Anspruch und Wirkung*, 38.

MONOLOG OG INDERLIGHED

Dette sidste udfoldes naturligt nok i monologens form, dvs. som en slags 'højtænkning', der måske nok er henvendt til Mariabilledet, men som samtidig er helt privat: Vi får indblik i en persons inderste tanker på en måde som ikke tilbyder sig i en dialogsituation. Netop denne form – monologen som vindue til personernes inderste – optræder usædvanligt hyppigt i *Genoveva*, første gang allerede i første akts anden scene, hvor Golo bliver alene tilbage med sine tanker efter at biskoppen og alle andre har forladt scenen. Her får vi præsenteret Golos indre konflikt: Han er splittet mellem sin loyalitet overfor Siegfried og sin ustyrlige forelskelse i dennes unge hustru, Genoveva. Det er denne Golos konflikt med sig selv der udgør det væsentligste dramatiske brændstof hele operaen igennem, også selvom hans indre kamp fører forskellige 'ydre' dramatiske begivenheder med sig der gør at det til sidst bliver afgørelsen af Genovevas skæbne og fremstillingen af hendes forklarede, engleagtige uskyld, der kommer til at stå i centrum. Men også andre af dramaets personer lærer vi at kende 'indefra', gennem monologer. Troldkvinden Margaretha, der tilbyder Golo sin assistance, møder vi første gang i starten af første akts finale, hvor hun gennem en lied, der ikke synes henvendt til nogen (Nr. 7, 'Sieh da, welch feiner Rittersmann!'), lader os høre hvad hun mener om Golo og hvilke skumle motiver hun har for at udnytte situationen (Siegfried har i sin tid jaget hende på porten). Og senere, i tredje akts finale, tilbydes vi endda en psykologisk indsigt i baggrunden for hendes karakter igennem endnu en monolog, der afslører for os hvordan hun kæmper for at fortrænge mindet om et barn som hun engang har druknet (Nr. 15, 'Ich sah ein Kind im Traum').

Carl Dahlhaus opfattede den dominerende monologform i *Genoveva* som et mildt sagt problematisk aspekt ved Schumanns opera og mente at det skyldes forlægget – eller rettere et af forlæggene, nemlig Friedrich Hebbels drama, *Genoveva* (1842):

Daraus, daß Schumann eine Dialogoper komponieren wollte, aber an eine Vorlage geriet, deren Substanz in Monologen besteht, erwachsen musikalisch-dramaturgische Schwierigkeiten, die unlösbar waren.³⁶

Spørgsmålet er imidlertid om det virkelig kan passe at Schumann dels overså at Hebbels drama ikke i sig selv var indrettet sådan at handlingens essentielle affekt-konflikter udfoldede sig i dialogform, dels så at sige glemte at gøre noget ved dette problem i den libretto han selv skabte, ikke kun på baggrund af Hebbels drama fra 1842, men også af Ludwig Tiecks *Leben und Tod der heiligen Genoveva* fra 1799. Det virker mere sandsynligt at Schumann netop søgte en dramaturgi, der mere konsekvent end sædvanligt arbejdede med personernes – og ikke kun hovedpersonernes – indre psykologiske liv gennem den direkte eksponering via monologen.

Tendensen mod en sådan fokusering på personernes indre drama fremfor handlingsafviklingens ydre viser sig nemlig også i andre scenetyper. Selv i dialogscenerne er der sjældent tale om en decideret udveksling af informationer eller meninger som har

36 Carl Dahlhaus: 'Einsamkeit und Innigkeit: Schumanns "Genoveva" scheitert an der Zeit', *Opernwelt* (dec. 1999), 22.

relevans for afviklingen af plottet, ligesom sådanne scener ofte tenderer i retning af 'kontemplative' situationer, hvor den egentlige samtale (med replikker der entydigt er henvendt til den anden på scenen) er suspenderet. Sommetider komponeres sådanne kvaliteter endda ud i situationer hvor librettoen ikke entydigt lægger op til det. I tredje akts finale forekommer et særligt tydeligt eksempel. Siegfried og Golo opsøger her Margaretha for i hendes magiske spejl at få 'sandheden' om Genovevas utroskab med Drago at se (en falsk mistanke som Golo og Margaretha har plantet tidligere). Margaretha og Golo har for længst sluttet ledtog med hinanden, men her hvor skruen strammes bliver Golos samvittighedskvaler større, og han tøver med at gå videre. I den situation henvender Margaretha sig til Golo, mens Siegfried ikke hører det, og siger: "Was bebst du, Feiger! Denke dran, wie dich die Gräfin höhnte! Dein muß sie werden noch!?" Allerede imens Margaretha synger denne replik til Golo, hører vi de tanker hendes ord vækker i ham: "Sie reit zu Sünd' und Schande mich fort, zu Sünd' und Schande!?" Denne samtidighed af Margarethas 'talte' replik og Golos 'tænkte' refleksion realiseres endda overvejende gennem parallelle tertser, altså med en vis musikalsk skyhed overfor det faktum at der på det ydre handlingsniveau synes at udfolde sig en konflikt mellem de to personer. Det bliver ikke bedre af at Siegfried øjeblikket efter også blander sig, først ligesom Margaretha med en replik til Golo (som Golo dog ikke synes at opfatte, eftersom han stadig er beskæftiget med selv at tænke højt): "Was bebst du, Golo! Denke dran, wie du mich räch'st!?" og straks derefter til sig selv: "Die Wahrheit will ich wissen, ob auch das Herz mir bricht!?" Kontrasten mellem på den ene side sådanne situationer, hvor personernes indre tanker hele tiden blander sig med de replikker der er henvendt til de andre personer i dramaet, og på den anden de 'realistiske' samtalsituationer i *Benvenuto Cellini* kunne dårligt være større.

MOTIVFORBINDELSER

Den dramaturgiske betoning af monologformen fører naturligt en tendens i retning af det liedagtige med sig – en tendens der viser sig adskillige steder, ikke mindst i de mere *Volkslied*-agtige numre, som fx Margarethas tidligere nævnte 'Sieh da, welch feiner Rittersmann!'. Men som bl.a. dette nummer viser, ligger der samtidig en anden bestræbelse bag Schumanns fremgangsmåde, nemlig en bestræbelse i retning af en overordnet quasi-symfonisk motivisk-tematisk integration af operaens materiale, specielt som det udfolder sig i orkesteret. De første fire toner i første frase i 'Sieh da, welch feiner Rittersmann!' er således såvel diastematisk som rytmisk nært beslægtede med de første fire toner i den første scenes koral – men karakteren er ændret, først og fremmest på grund af det højere tempo, akkompagnementets karakter, tonekønskiftet fra dur til mol og den anderledes videreføring af det afspaltede motiv (se Eks. 2a-b). Et tilsvarende åbenlyst motivisk slægtskab forbinder imidlertid også disse to tematiske forekomster med et motiv, som Hansjörg Ewert forbinder med Golo, og som for øvrigt spiller en prominent rolle i ouverturen (Eks. 2c).³⁷ Og desuden med

³⁷ Ewert, *Anspruch und Wirkung*, 110.

på scenen ikke er andet end “erschichtlich gewordene Thaten der Musik”.⁴³ Med Ewerts ord:

In der *Genoveva* kehrt sich das opernübliche Verhältnis von Bühne und Musik um: Die Oper spielt eigentlich im Orkestergraben, die Figuren agieren nur, vergleichbar den Mottos und Zitaten in Schumanns Instrumentalmusik, zur nicht vereindeutigenden Verdeutlichung des ‘symphonischen’ Dramas auf der Bühne.⁴⁴

Også Ewert antyder altså at de symfoniske kvaliteter ved *Genoveva* må forstås som symfoniske i en særlig schumannsk forstand. Det indebærer nu også ideen om at musikkens poetiske indhold – knyttet fx til et ‘karakteristisk’ musikalsk udsagn såsom et musikalsk motto – ikke lader sig bestemme entydigt, hverken gennem en oversættelse til et sproglig udsagn eller til en bestemt dramatisk handling. Deraf altså den noget paradoksale ide om det sceniske drama som en ikke-entydig tydeliggørelse af det symfoniske drama og i det hele taget forestillingen om et forhold mellem scene og orkestergrav der er præget af at der er tale om to distinkte ‘lag’ i dramaet.

De symfoniske kvaliteter som Ewert og Dahlhaus opfatter som henholdsvis et visionært træk og en musikdramatisk defekt ved *Genoveva* har under alle omstændigheder med en opprioritering af det der foregår i orkesteret at gøre – en tendens som mange af Schumanns samtidige kritikere også hæftede sig ved, som regel med en vis misbilligelse. Men dette sker, som de altså også begge bemærker, uden at det indebærer en konsekvent semantisering af orkesterets motiviske og tematiske materiale. Når man er blevet vænnet til at forbinde forestillingen om en ‘symfonisk’ musikdramatik med den wagnerske ledemotivteknik er dette jo i sig selv bemærkelsesværdigt.

Endnu mere bemærkelsesværdigt er det imidlertid at anvendelsen af symfoniske strategier ikke (som hos Wagner) skal tjene som middel til at nedbryde konventionen om ‘nummeret’ som en privilegeret musikdramatisk kategori. For Schumann synes nummeret nemlig stadig at byde på uundværlige musikdramatiske muligheder:⁴⁵ Det gælder først og fremmest muligheden for med jævne mellemrum at forlade det ydre dramas jævnt fremadskridende, ‘realistiske’ tid for i stedet at vende sig mod personernes indre drama, formuleret i et andet, mere ‘poetisk’ tidslag. På den måde giver det mening at se interessen for personernes indre dramaer, og dermed også for monologformen, som en særlig schumannsk motivation for at lade orkesteret spille en væsentligere rolle som medium for en ikke-verbal artikulation af disse

43 Richard Wagner, “Über die Benennung “Musikdrama””, *Musikalisches Wochenblatt*, 8. november 1872.

44 Ewert, *Anspruch und Wirkung*, 303.

45 Richard Wagners beretning i *Mein Leben* om Schumanns reaktion på en højtlesning af *Lohengrin*-teksten vidner tydeligt om at Schumann opfattede det på den måde, også selvom Wagners pointe med historien er at vise Schumanns manglende blik for *Lohengrin*-tekstens musikdramatiske potentialer: “Bereits im November las ich dieses Gedicht [*Lohengrin*] meinen Hausfreunden, bald auch dem Hillerschen Kränzchen vor. Es wurde gelobt und »effektvoll« gefunden, auch Schumann war ganz damit einverstanden; nur begriff er die musikalische Form nicht, in welcher ich es ausführen wollte, da er keinerlei Anhalt zu eigentlichen Musiknummern ersah. Ich machte mir den Spaß, ihm verschiedenes aus meinem Gedicht in der Form von Arien und Kavatinen vorzulesen, worüber er sich lächelnd befriedigt erklärte”; Richard Wagner, *Mein Leben* (München, 1963), 384.

dramaers psykologiske og emotionelle karakter. De ‘symfoniske’ strategier for orkesteret og den fastholdte interesse for nummerstrukturens dramaturgiske muligheder kommer dermed ikke til at stå som en art uløst selvmodsigtelse, men som logisk sammenhængende tendenser.

UDEN FOR HOVEDSPORENE

Benvenuto Cellini og *Genoveva* peger i to forskellige retninger og vidner om to forskellige visioner for en fornyelse af den romantiske musikdramatik. To visioner der relativt nemt lader sig stille op som modsætninger: *Benvenuto Cellini* benytter et historisk stof, som udfoldes i en overvejende ekstrovert, handlingsorienteret form, der blandt andet omfatter kvikke replikvekslinger i en ‘realistisk’ stil. *Genoveva* henter sit stof fra en (kristen) legende og udfolder i relativt stort omfang sin handlingskonfliktstof gennem introverte monologer. Ensemble- og massescenerne i *Benvenuto Cellini* synes at reflektere erfaringer forbundet med den moderne storby – oplevelsen af tumult, vigør og offentligt leben, af muligheden for at forsvinde i mængden, af eksistensen af subkulturer osv. – men uden at tilbyde en politisk farvet fremstilling af et nationalt fællesskab. *Genoveva* foregår i ‘poetisk tid’, på ingen måde i et moderne bysamfund, men lader til gengæld flere gange en nationalt (og religiøst) farvet fællesskabsforestilling komme til orde gennem brugen af koret.

I begge tilfælde holdes imidlertid grundlæggende fast i at strukturere det dramatiske forløb i numre, og dermed i de virkemidler der er forbundet med at kunne veksle mellem og spille på forskellige former, ‘tidslag’ og musikdramatiske topoi. Og ingen af de to viser synderlig interesse for at gøre udvidet brug af erindringsmotivteknikkens narrative potentialer. Hvis man i Schumanns tilfælde kan sætte det sidste i sammenhæng med et generelt ubehag ved en for bastant semantisering af musikken, så er det næppe et sådant æstetisk ubehag der har forhindret Berlioz i at udvikle erindringsmotivteknikken til et centralt musikdramaturgisk virkemiddel i *Benvenuto Cellini* (eller for så vidt i hans andre, senere operaer). Snarere afspejler det et behov for at afvikle handlingen i en udpræget nutids- og situationsbunden form igennem en model for det dramatiske der, ligesom den handlekraftige improvisator Cellini, ikke bliver hængende i fortidens synder, men som først og fremmest dyrker det dramatiske nærvær i situationerne. Selv spørgsmålet om operaens historiske aktualitet – dens bejlen til en status som moderne musikdramatik anno 1838 – synes at hænge sammen med forsøget på at formidle netop denne *følelse* af dramatisk tilstedeværelse i en nutidig virkelighed.

Hvis man holder de to operaer op mod operahistoriens hovedspor, vil man måske have en tendens til at opfatte de to netop nævnte træk – at der holdes fast i en mere eller mindre traditionel nummerstruktur og at erindringsmotivteknikken ikke udvikles i retning af en mere gennemgribende ledemotivteknik – som mangler, eller i hvert fald ikke som decideret progressive træk på dette tidspunkt i operahistorien. Men ligeså muligt er det at se dem som symptomer på at her er tale om måder at tænke musikdramatik på som netop falder uden for hovedsporet, eller hovedsporene, om man vil – som vidner om en historisk situation hvor det stadig var uafgjort og åbent,

om fx nedbrydningen af nummerstrukturen og narrativiseringen af orkesterstemmen nødvendigvis måtte betragtes som dramaturgiske fordele, for ikke at snakke om historiske nødvendigheder. En åbenhed som forhåbentlig stadig kan inspirere til en fordomsfri tilgang til sådanne grundlæggende musikdramaturgiske spørgsmål.

SUMMARY

Outside the central developments of operatic history
Berlioz' *Benvenuto Cellini* and Schumann's *Genoveva*

The names of Hector Berlioz and Robert Schumann do not figure centrally in the history of opera. Yet both composers made highly ambitious debuts in the genre, at points in time when each were already considered to be amongst the leading composers – and music critics – of their age. The two debut-operas, Berlioz' *Benvenuto Cellini* (1838) and Schumann's *Genoveva* (1850), may in hindsight be seen as relatively inconsequential aberrations from the main developments of the genre, but rather than being therefore historically uninteresting, this quality may, the article argues, instead be seen as a positive quality for the historian: an opportunity to study the openness of the historical situation. The two works are seen as representing original visions for a contemporary music drama – visions that differ significantly, not only from each other, but also from other visions (such as Wagner's) that eventually became the more influential.

Algoritmisk mønsteridentifikation

Nogle betragtninger omkring computeranvendelse i musikanalytisk øjemed

ANDERS BONDE

Algoritmisk identifikation af *mønstre* i musik indtager nu som før en fremtrædende position i forbindelse med computerstøttet musikanalyse.¹ Der er tale om et velintegreret videnskabsfelt indenfor datalogien, oprindeligt udviklet til tekstanalyse og siden også anvendt indenfor molekylærbiologien med henblik på data-sortering, men hvis applicering i forhold til musikvidenskaben er betydelig mindre påagtet og anerkendt med undtagelse af aktiviteterne ved nogle relativt få interdisciplinære forskningsmiljøer. Og dette til trods for at algoritmisk mønsteridentifikation med henblik på musikanalyse har fundet sted så tidligt som i 1949, hvor Bertrand H. Bronson redegør for en computergenereret klassifikation af folkemelodier på baggrund af et maskinelt læsbart kodesprog.²

At musikforskningen som helhed ikke har 'taget computeren til sig' som research-redskab, kan have flere årsager, der dog næppe vedrører metoden i sig selv, men som vel snarere samler sig omkring en, blandt humanistiske videnskaber, generel uvilje mod at overlade udredningen af komplicerede (menneskeskabte) sammenhænge til teknologien. Det er eksempelvis et velkendt og hyppigt fremført synspunkt, at en computer i virkeligheden ikke kan analysere musik, eftersom musikanalysen nødvendigvis må inddrage *fortolkningen* som sit væsentlige element. Og maskinen er som bekendt 'dum'; forstået på den måde, at den hverken er i stand til at tænke eller føle endsige tænke/føle *musikalsk* – et faktum, som 'de teknologiivrige' ofte implicit beskyldes for at se bort fra. Selvom forsvaret for den menneskelige intuition for så vidt er lige så relevant, som det er sympatisk, aner man næsten heri en irrationel angst for menneskets 'løsrivelse' fra musikken (og herunder musikanalysen), hvor de registrerings- og databearbejdningmæssige fordele, som computeren helt oplagt tilbyder, end ikke diskuteres. Vel kan computeren ikke analysere, men dette er langtfra ensbetydende med, at man ikke kan udføre en musikanalyse med hjælp fra en computer.³

- 1 En algoritme er en entydig og abstrakt beskrivelse af den procedure, som eksempelvis en computer gennemløber i løsningen af en nøjagtigt defineret opgave. Således er algoritmisk mønsteridentifikation den samlede fællesbetegnelse for automatisk eller maskinel aflæsning og sammenligning af data. Betegnelsen omfatter de mere gængse prædikater i den engelsksprogede litteratur, der fortrinsvis dækker området, såsom *pattern discovering*, *pattern recognition* og *pattern comparison*. Alternative betegnelser såsom *pattern matching*, *pattern extraction* eller *pattern induction* forekommer desuden og anvendes, ligesom de tre første, ofte i flæng, alt efter tradition. Dog synes der til en vis grad at have dannet sig almindelig konsensus omkring hovedsagelig to grundlæggende forskellige betydninger (jf. note 23).
- 2 Bertrand H. Bronson, 'Mechanical Help in the Study of Folk Song', *Journal of American Folklore*, 62/244 (1949), 81-86.
- 3 Således er den almindeligt valgte betegnelse, *computer-assisted music analysis* (frem for f.eks. *computer-based music analysis*), næppe helt tilfældig.

At selve analysen langt fra er bragt til ende, når computeren har gjort sit arbejde, er i virkeligheden en ganske banal kendsgerning, der næppe behøvede at blive nævnt, og som i hvert fald ikke i sig selv bør give anledning til at afvise computeren som et værdifuldt teknologisk hjælpemiddel.

Tilbage står imidlertid spørgsmålene: Hvad er det mere præcist, den computerstøttede analyse i almindelighed, og mønsteridentifikation i særdeleshed, kan bidrage med til gavn for musikvidenskaben? Og anfægter en sådan empirisk, nødvendigvis formalistisk og kvantitativ, tilgang ikke musikanalysens almindeligt anerkendte status som humanistisk videnskabsdisciplin med en derpå følgende negligering af musikken som et historisk, æstetisk, kognitivt, perceptionspsykologisk og kultursociologisk anliggende?

PRÆLIMINÆRE DEFINITIONER

Afkræftelsen af det andet af ovenstående to spørgsmål, hvilket for så vidt går forud for det første, er en væsentlig forudsætning for nærværende artikel, og det er mit ønske og min formodning, at de følgende afsnit vil kaste lys over konsekvenserne, explicit såvel som implicit. Indledningsvis kunne man betvivle det betimelige i musikanalysens faste forankring i humaniora og således overveje, om disciplinen i virkeligheden ikke i lige så høj grad hører hjemme indenfor naturvidenskaberne, hvilket musikvidenskaben i øvrigt har gjort indtil for ca. 500 år siden.⁴ Spørgsmålet angående computerens 'gavnlighed' er derimod noget mere kringlet, og det er netop med udgangspunkt heri, jeg efterfølgende skal forsøge at anskueliggøre en række centrale problemstillinger. Lad det være sagt med det samme; man kommer ikke uden om det faktum, at algoritmisk mønsteridentifikation vitterlig er forbundet med en række vanskeligheder, ikke blot af teknisk art, men også rent principielt – forstået på den måde, at mål og midler ikke altid synes at stå i rimeligt indbyrdes forhold (mere herom senere). Som udgangspunkt anlægges imidlertid en nøgtern beskrivende stil, der undertiden tillknyttes nogle personlige kommentarer.

Foreløbig kan sløret over det præsenterede mønsteridentifikationsbegreb lettes ved at fastslå, at der her menes *identifikation af genkomster*, hvilket i en musikvidenskabelig forståelsesramme svarer til opdagelsen og genkendelsen af enten *identiske* eller *beslægtede* strukturer i ét musikstykke eller flere (evt. en samling) musikstykker (i audio-, midi- eller øvrige maskinlæsbare formater).⁵ Dermed er der i princippet tale

- 4 Flere tendenser peger i hvert fald herpå, idet et nyere voksende forsknings- og undervisningsområde, under ét kaldet *musikinformatik*, endnu ikke rigtigt er slået an indenfor de musikvidenskabelige institutioners rammer (på nær få bemærkelsesværdige undtagelser, f.eks. Abteilung Musikinformatik, Musikwissenschaftliches Institut, Johannes-Gutenberg-Universität Mainz), men derimod studeres ved en række datalogiske og elektroakustiske institutter. I Danmark er musikinformatik eksempelvis repræsenteret ved Datalogisk Institut i København samt medialogiuddannelsen ved Aalborg Universitet Esbjerg.
- 5 Betegnelsen "genkomst" foretrækkes frem for "gentagelse", idet der i praktisk musikalsk sammenhæng ofte er tale om modificerede (beslægtede) gengivelser, snarere end eksakte repetitioner. Alternative betegnelser for samme fænomener forekommer iblandt; f.eks. opererer Fred Lerdahl og Ray Jackendoff i *A Generative Theory of Tonal Music* (Cambridge, 1983) med "parallelism", der inkluderer såvel identiske som beslægtede genkomster, mens Leonard B. Meyer opererer med "conformant relationships" i bogen *Explaining Music* (Chicago, 1973).

om en for musikanalysen helt central aktivitet – nemlig *sammenligningen*, sådan som det eksempelvis anføres i andenudgaven af *The New Grove Dictionary of Music and Musicians*:

Comparison is common to all kinds of musical analysis – feature analysis, formal analysis, functional analysis, Schenkerian analysis, pitch-class set analysis, style analysis and so on: comparison of unit with unit, whether within a single work, or between two works, or between the work and an abstract ‘model’ such as sonata form or arch form. The central act is thus the test for identity. And out of this arises the measurement of amount of difference, or degree of similarity. These two operations serve together to illuminate the three fundamental formbuilding processes: recurrence, contrast and variation.⁶

Det er meget karakteristisk, i hvor høj grad denne fokus på struktur og navnlig sammenligningsaspektets altovervejende betydning i musikanalyse umiddelbart korresponderer med to af computerens væsentligste styrker: registrering og databehandling. Selvom betegnelsen “computer-assisted music analysis” ikke figurerer i ovenstående citat, kan man alligevel ane en vis forbindelse; navnlig når man opholder sig ved bestemte formuleringer såsom “test for identity” og “measurement of amount of difference, or degree of similarity”. I denne forbindelse er det måske oplysende, at begge artiklens forfattere faktisk i større eller mindre omfang har haft computerstøttet musikvidenskab som interesseområde.⁷ Det må dog stadig pointeres, at de i *New Grove* skitserede sammenligningsprocedurer sagtens kan være baseret på en mindre formaliseret systematik, hvor analytikeren mere intuitivt i de enkelte konkrete tilfælde udvælger de musikalske kriterier, som skal ligge til grund for sammenligningen, hvorimod en automatisering af en tilsvarende proces nødvendigvis fordrer en ganske anden systematisk stringens.⁸

Spørgsmålet er imidlertid, hvad det er for elementer i musikken, der kan tænkes at konstituere mønstre; deres beskaffenhed (melodik, rytmik, harmonik, klangfarve, dynamik etc., måske en kombination af to eller flere heraf) eller deres størrelse (et motiv eller en figur, eventuelt blot en enkelt tone/akkord, eller måske en hel formdel såsom ekspositionsdelen i en sonatesatsform). Svaret er for så vidt ja til det hele; “mønsterbegrebet” er i sig selv rummeligt nok til at kunne omfatte *alle* former for genkomment materiale, stort som småt.

6 Ian D. Bent og Anthony Pople, ‘Analysis’, *The New Grove Dictionary of Music and Musicians* (2nd edn.; London, 2001), i. 526-89, her 528.

7 Herom vidner følgende publikationer: Ian D. Bent og John Morehen, ‘Computers in the Analysis of Music’, *Proceedings of the Royal Musical Association*, 104 (1977), 30-46; John Morehen og Ian D. Bent, ‘Computer Applications in Musicology’, *The Musical Times*, 120/1637 (1979), 563-66; samt Alan Marsden og Anthony Pople (eds.), *Computer Representations and Models in Music* (London, 1992).

8 Det er i sidstnævnte tilfælde nærliggende at komme ind på Ruwets og Nattiez’ analysemetoder, der næsten mere end nogen andre svarer til Bents definitioner, og som endvidere har dannet teoretisk grundlag for talrige applikationsprogrammer, udviklet med henblik på automatisk mønsteridentificering (jf. afsnittet ‘Musikanalyse og musikgenerering’).

In the broadest sense ‘patterns’ designate recurring structures that can involve any musical aspect at any level of abstraction. Typical musical aspects include pitch, time, dynamics and timbre dimensions of notes, chords and harmony, contours and motion, tension and so on.⁹

Listen over identificerbare musikalske fænomener er således ganske lang og de maskinlæsbare repræsentationsformer ganske mangfoldige, hvilket vil fremgå mere eksplicit i afsnittet ‘Repræsentationsformer’.

PERSPEKTIVERENDE BAGGRUND

Trods det, at Bronsons eksperimenter dateres så tidligt som 1949, var det egentlig først fra midten af 60’erne, at der rigtig kom gang i udforskningen af computerens anvendelsesmuligheder inden for musikvidenskaben. Herom vidner især tre publikationer fra denne periode med samlinger af artikler og konferencerapporter, der hver for sig beretter om computerapplikationer indenfor musikhistoriske, stil- og værkanalytiske, kompositoriske samt musiketnologiske emneområder.¹⁰ Karakteristisk for forskningen på området – såvel i denne tidlige periode som årtier senere – er, at den overvejende har fundet sted ved amerikanske universiteter, hvilket falder ganske godt i tråd med den empiriske, nypositivistiske og strukturelle analyses traditionelt stærke fodfæste i USA.¹¹ På det tidspunkt, hvor interessen for den computerstøttede musikanalyse endnu var i sin vorden, var det en almindelig antagelse, at man via computerkraft kunne praktisere eksisterende analysemetoder på en betydelig mere effektiv måde end hidtil muligt.

Centralt står især to forestillinger, der i en vis forstand stadig har gyldighed den dag i dag, men som på den anden side også påkalder sig nogle få supplerende og modificerende kommentarer. Et hyppigt fremført synspunkt er eksempelvis, at computeren arbejder *hurtigere*; at den meget effektivt kan håndtere store datamængder, hvilket fritager analytikeren for en række trivielle og tidskrævende, men absolut nødvendige, arbejdsrutiner. Således forekommer det logisk at Fortes toneklassemængdeteori¹² hurtigt blev det primære udgangspunkt for en række computerapplikationer

9 Pierre-Yves Rolland og Jean-Gabriel Ganascia, ‘Musical Pattern Extraction and Similarity Assessment’, i Eduardo Reck Miranda (ed.), *Readings in Music and Artificial Intelligence* (Amsterdam, 2000), 115.

10 Harald Heckmann (ed.), *Elektronische Datenverarbeitung in der Musikwissenschaft* (Regensburg, 1967); Barry S. Brook (ed.), *Musicology and the Computer. Musicology 1966-2000: A Practical Program. Three Symposia* (New York, 1970); Harry B. Lincoln (ed.), *The Computer and Music* (Ithaca, 1970).

11 Et af de fremmeste eksempler på en sådan formalisme er Allen Fortes *toneklassemængdeteori*, formuleret i *The Structure of Atonal Music* (New Haven, 1973), der – på baggrund af Milton Babbitts og George Perles kompositionsteoretiske arbejder inden for den dodekafone og serielle musik – anviser en generel metode til at analysere, i princippet, *al* musik (tonal eller atonal, kunstmusik eller populærmusik, musik fra den vestlige kulturkreds eller fra andre kulturer) ud fra ‘objektive’ kriterier. Toneklassemængdeteoriens ‘talformalisme’, kombineret med en ekstrem reduktionisme, er skræddersyet til maskinelle optællings- og sorteringsprocedurer, hvilke Forte da også selv allerede forinden havde implementeret og redegjort for i artiklen ‘The Structure of Atonal Music: Practical Aspects of a Computer-Oriented Research Project’, i Brook, *Musicology and the Computer*, 10-18.

12 Jf. note 11.

med henblik på analyse af atonal musik, da identifikationen af musikkens centrale toneklasseintervalliske konstellationer (mængdeklasser eller *set classes*) normalt fordrer en omstændelig *trial-and-error*-proces, som synes oplagt at automatisere.

Tidsbesparelse er ligeledes et hovedtema i Lewis Lockwoods stilistiske undersøgelse af Josquin Desprez' messer, hvor det bl.a. erklæres, at siden Knud Jeppesens velrenommerede og omfattende dokumentation af regelbundetheden i Palestrinas musik, "no one has attempted to match his labors in the detailed examination of the extant works of any other pre-tonal composer – yet there is no reason why a computer could not produce a parallel investigation of any works submitted to it, in a tiny fraction of the time and in a more flexible, more exhaustive, and more reliable manner".¹³ Modstillingen mellem henholdsvis et højt og lavt tidsforbrug før og efter teknologiens indtog i musikvidenskaben er imidlertid først og fremmest hypotetisk og kompliceres desuden af det faktum, at computeranvendelsen også har givet mulighed for at udvikle nye analyseteknikker samt påvirket valget af videnskabelige problemstillinger og metoder, hvorfor det i praksis kan være vanskeligt helt præcist at vurdere den tidsbesparende effekt. Maskinen kan med andre ord "besvare en masse spørgsmål man ellers må afstå fra at stille, da evigheden ikke ville være lang nok til at få dem besvaret med papir og blyant".¹⁴

En anden almindelig forestilling er, at computeren angiveligt skulle være særdeles velegnet til at sikre objektive rammer og metoder i analysearbejdet, bl.a. i kraft af statistik, – hvilket ikke mindst har appelleret til musiketnologer, der traditionelt bestræber sig på at undgå etnocentriske påvirkninger i analyser af fremmede kulturers musik.

Statistics have the advantage ... of objectivity; and since ethnomusicologists frequently deal with musical cultures as external observers rather than as native practitioners, objective techniques are welcome safeguards against unconscious superimposition of alien values, which seldom apply.¹⁵

I Nicholas Cooks introducerende gennemgang af forskellige analyseteknikker understøttes ovenstående udsagn for så vidt, idet forfatteren hævder, at især formale (strukturelle) tilgange til musikanalyse (herunder Fortes toneklasser-teori samt semiotisk-strukturelle analysetaksonomier á la Nicolas Ruwet og Jean-Jacques Nattiez) har haft størst succes i forbindelse med studier af bl.a. ikke-vestlige kulturers musik, hvor Heinrich Schenkers teorier samt andre psykologiske og fænomenologiske indfaldsvinkler med kulturetnocentriske slagside (repræsenteret ved eksempelvis Leonard B. Meyer og Rudolph Réti) modsat ikke rigtigt har vist sig brugbare.¹⁶ Ordvalget "objective" i ovenstående citat er imidlertid problematisk, for ét er, at en

13 Lewis Lockwood, 'A Stylistic Investigation of the Masses of Josquin Desprez with the Aid of the Computer: a Progress Report', i Brook, *Musicology and the Computer*, 24.

14 Karl Aage Rasmussen, 'Spejlet i spejlet – scener fra et computer-samliv', *Dansk Musik Tidsskrift* 65/4 (1990/91), 130.

15 Fredric Lieberman, 'Computer-Aided Analysis of Javanese Music', i Lincoln, *The Computer and Music*, 187.

16 Nicholas Cook, *A Guide to Musical Analysis* (2nd edn.; London, 1992), 123.

statistisk, kvantitativ metode nok i sig selv kan betegnes som objektiv; noget andet er selve valget af søgekriterier, som altid i en eller anden grad vil være hæmmet af subjektets (analytikerens) forforståelse.

Mere almengyldigt er det nok at hæfte sig ved den metodiske stringens, hvormed et givet applikationsprogram opererer; en stringens, der er højt skattet blandt de fleste, som er involveret i computerstøttet musikvidenskab i 60'erne og 70'erne. Det ekspliciteres hyppigt – hvilket er ganske betegnende for en tid, hvor computere og deres anvendelsesfunktion var forbeholdt specialister ved større institutioner og således ikke genstand for almindelig viden – at maskinen netop ikke kan tænke, at den ikke pludselig får nogle 'ideer' af sig selv, og at enhver form for subjektiv påvirkning fra analytikerens musikalske intuition undervejs i processen derfor helt kan udelukkes. Dermed opnås den, ifølge Lockwood, positive virkning, at analytikeren tvinges til fra begyndelsen at formulere sit formål meget præcist.

... the logical organization of computer investigation not only invites us but compels us to frame our small-scale questions in precisely defined terms, and thus to formulate our large-scale problems in ways more exact than seems likely to be the case if we were merely making tentative steps towards answers that in large measure appeared to be hopelessly beyond reach.¹⁷

At metodisk stringens umiddelbart er at betragte som en kvalitet i sig selv, kan skyldes bestræbelsen mod en højere grad af videnskabelig validitet samt videnskabsteoretisk forankring, hvilket i manges øjne generelt har manglet i musikforskningen. Begejstringen over computerens indtog har dog i begyndelsen været til at overse blandt majoriteten af musikforskere, konfronteret med 'bagsiden af medaljen', – nemlig det temmelig begrænsede anvendelsespotentiale, som kendetegner tidens applikationer.

At present the range of interesting and relevant musical problems that are directly accessible to computer investigation is still remarkably limited. We have theories of musical structure that far surpass in power and explanatory scope any that have yet been formulated computationally.¹⁸

Fra anden side er det blevet påpeget, at det vel ret beset kun var ganske få og nøje specificerede analytiske opgaver, hvor det reelt har kunnet betale sig at anvende computere, ikke mindst på grund af de økonomiske og tidsmæssige omkostninger, der ofte var forbundet med anskaffelsen og anvendelsen af udstyret.¹⁹ Men i takt med computerens (herunder pc'ens) eksplosionsagtige udbredelse i de seneste årtier – bl.a. som følge af stadig større maskinkraft, parret med stadig lavere anskaffelsespriser – synes nogle grundlæggende forudsætninger at have ændret sig til fordel for den maskinelle automatik. En tidlig målsætning, såsom at ekstrahere musikalsk in-

17 Lockwood, 'A Stylistic Investigation', 23.

18 John Rothgeb, 'Musical Research by Computer: Some Current Limitations', *Computers and the Humanities*, 5/3 (1971), 178-82.

19 Finn Egeland Hansen, 'Det gregorianske repertoire i Codex H 159 Montpellier', *Dansk aarboeg for musikforskning*, 5 (1966-67), 182.

formation i kraft af maskinel læsning af partiturer, kaldet *Music Information Retrieval* (MIR), har således siden slutningen af 90'erne udviklet sig til at være et væsentligt forskningsområde, der rækker betydeligt ud over den traditionelle musikvidenskabs sfære.²⁰ Dette har bl.a. udmøntet sig i en række nyligt oprettede institutionaliserede, interdisciplinære forskningsgrupper (der primært kombinerer musikvidenskab og datalogi)²¹ samt en årlig international konference (ISMIR) siden 2000.²²

DISTINKTIONER OG AFGRÆNSNINGER

Algoritmisk mønsteridentifikation, herunder maskinel repræsentation af musikalsk indhold samt bestemmelse af lighed og slægtskab på den ene side overfor kontrast på den anden, udgør ryggraden i MIR-forskningen og er samlingspunkt for en række forskellige interesseområder. Hvor mønstre som tidligere nævnt betragtes som strukturelle grundelementer i kompositioner og improvisationer indenfor en traditionel musikanalytisk kontekst, danner de tillige basis for 'koder' i forbindelse med indholdsbasert musikalsk indeksering, herunder som abstrakte (reduktive) repræsentanter for musikværker og i videre konsekvens heraf som indikatorer vedrørende stil og forfatterskab i rettighedsindehaverøjemed. Desuden har de fundet anvendelse som 'byggesten' i generering af musik, herunder algoritmisk komposition, improvisation og akkompagnement. Dette aftvinger uvilkårligt en nærmere afgrænsning af emneområdet i nærværende artikel, og således giver det mening at sondre mellem føl-

20 MIR er oprindeligt et programmeringssprog, udviklet ved Princeton University med det sigte at omdanne ethvert notationssymbol i et partitur (f.eks. noder, pauser, metriske anvisninger, nøgler etc.) samt alle tænkelige afledninger heraf (f.eks. rytme, melodik, harmonik etc.) til et maskinlæsbart kodesprog, på baggrund af hvilket man automatisk kan 'udtrække' information omkring selve musikens indhold; dvs. uafhængig af komponist og titel. I dag er MIR, navnlig på grund af udbredelsen af internettet, blevet et større interdisciplinært videnskabsområde, der overordnet beskæftiger sig med at uddrage indholdsbasert musikalsk information fra partiturer, midi-filer og senest også audio-filer. Centralt står spørgsmålet: "Hvad konstituerer musikalsk information?": Svaret herpå kan ikke gives enkelt og entydigt, eftersom én vil lægge vægt på musikens eventuelle lyrik (tekstindholdet), en anden på sammensætningen af toner og rytmer (f.eks. melodisk kontur), mens en tredje måske tillægger *timbre* (klangfarve) stor betydning, idet en sunget melodi eksempelvis kan lyde anderledes end spillet på et instrument. Endvidere spiller aspekter som tekstur (f.eks. homofoni contra polyfoni), genre og stil en vis rolle. De mest almindelige identificeringsmetoder kan sammenfattes i den rækkebaserede model (jf. afsnittet 'Repræsentationsformer'). Væsentlige delaspekter omfatter bl.a. indeksering, organisering og visualisering af digitaliserede musikalske arkiver, samt klassifikation af musikalske stilarter og generer.

21 F.eks. ved Gerhard Widmer (ÖFAI/Austrian Research Institute for Artificial Intelligence, Wien), ved Gérard Assayag (IRCAM, Centre Pompidou, Paris), ved Walter B. Hewlett (Center for Computer Research in Music and Acoustics, Stanford University), ved Kjell Lemström (Department of Computer Science, University of Helsinki) og ved Geraint Wiggins (Department of Computing, School of Informatics, City University, London).

22 ISMIR er forkortelsen for *International Conference on Music Information Retrieval*. Af andre tilbagevendende konferencer eller symposier med tilsvarende eller tilgrænsende fokus på musikinformatikområdet kan nævnes *International Computer Music Conference* (ICMC), *Journées d'Informatique Musicale* (JIM) og *Triennial Conference of the European Society for the Cognitive Sciences of Music* (ESCOM).

gende: 1) mønstergenkendelse og mønsteropdagelse, 2) musikanalyse og musikgenerering samt 3) produkt- og procesorienteret mønsteridentifikation.

Mønstergenkendelse og mønsteropdagelse

Under betegnelsen mønsteridentifikation sorterer almindeligvis to forskellige applikationstyper, nemlig mønstergenkendelse og mønsteropdagelse, hvis indbyrdes forskel skal søges i den grundlæggende procedure, der anlægges i et givet applikationsprogram.²³ Hvor mønstergenkendelse er beregnet på at finde samtlige forekomster af en prædefineret struktur, dvs. hvor det i kraft af brugerspecificerede inputs er givet, hvad algoritmen skal søge efter, går mønsteropdagelse et spadestik dybere, idet en række identiske eller beslægtede forekomster søges identificeret uafhængig af analytikerens eventuelle forhåndsviden om (eller blot instinktive fornemmelse for) bestemte genkomster.²⁴

Kongstanken i de fleste mønsteropdagelsesapplikationer er ydermere at frasortere alle de musikalsk *uinteressante* genkomster – dem, det hverken perceptuelt, kognitivt og derfor ej heller musikanalytisk giver mening at ofre nogen opmærksomhed. I Eksempel 1 ses tre uddrag af overstemmen i et klaverstykke af Debussy, hvor åbningsmotivet (en brudt molseptim-firklang) fremtræder. De tre systemer repræsenterer hver især matchende strukturer på hhv. 4, 5 og 6 toner, og som det signaleres i tegnsætningen til venstre for systemerne, må den sidste af de tre skitserede resultatmuligheder umiddelbart være at foretrække. Dette begrundes ud fra, at større melodiske mønstre rent musikalsk må betragtes som mere signifikante end mindre mønstre, hvorfor det i høj grad drejer sig om at identificere strukturelle kombinationer med flest mulige successive enheder (toner eller intervaller), som forekommer mindst

Eksempel 1. Uddrag fra Claude Debussy, 'La fille aux cheveux de lin', *Prélude pour piano*, nr. 8.

- 23 I nærværende artikel er mønstergenkendelse direkte oversat fra 'pattern *recognition*', mens mønsteropdagelse dækker over betegnelserne 'pattern *discovering*', 'pattern *detection*', 'pattern *matching*', 'pattern *extraction*' og 'pattern *induction*'. Denne specifikation af betydningsforskellen foretrækkes i de fleste oversigtsartikler omkring emnet, men skal ikke tages for givet.
- 24 Af denne grund defineres i en mønsteropdagelsesalgoritme almindeligvis en ramme (fra et minimum til et maksimum antal elementer), inden for hvilken identifikationsprocessen forløber.

to (men gerne endnu flere) gange. En sådan disposition synes navnlig logisk i nærværende eksempel, isoleret betragtet, hvor en specifik søgen efter fir- eller femtone-segmenter tydeligvis er utilstrækkelig. Imidlertid er det en kendsgerning, at jo mindre segmenter man opererer med, des større er chancen for mange genkomster af bestemte tone- eller intervalkombinationer. Derfor bliver mønsteridentifikation også et spørgsmål om den rette segmentering.

At udvælge de 'rigtige' mønstre kan eksempelvis ske på heuristisk (erfaringsmæssig) basis, hvor programmet så at sige 'lærer af sig selv' på baggrund af registrerede regelmæssigheder i musikken, eller ved simulation af perceptuelle og kognitive processer, hvor programmet opererer efter 'almindelige musikalske principper'; begge efterstræbte modeller inden for forskning i kunstig intelligens (computersimulationer af det biologiske neurale netværk og hjernens egenskaber). Sidstnævnte kræver imidlertid under alle omstændigheder nogle velovervejede præformaliserede beslutninger vedrørende 1) repræsentationsform, dvs. valg af beskrivelsesmodel indenfor parametrene, tonehøjde, varighed, dynamik m.fl.; 2) segmentering, dvs. maksimalt antal tilladte noder (*events*) eller intervaller (mellem noder/*events*) per mønster; 3) forskellen mellem identiske, beslægtede og kontrasterende elementer.

Musikanalyse og musikgenerering

Til trods for, at analyse af eksisterende musik og generering af ny musik i sagens natur repræsenterer to grundlæggende forskellige discipliner, er de ofte tæt sammenknyttede i praksis, da det sidste for så vidt ligger i forlængelse af det første. Hvor musikanalysen typisk identificerer mønstre med det formål at påvise bestemte sammenhænge og karakteristika i et givet musikstykke, kan selv samme mønstre benyttes som grundmateriale i en algoritmisk styret, kreativ proces (komposition, improvisation eller akkompagnement). Selvom sidstnævnte musikskreative aspekter i princippet falder uden for denne artikels interessefelt, er det ikke ensbetydende med, at alle musikgenereringssystemer *per se* også gør det, eftersom disse i princippet er forbundet med samme relevante problematikker vedrørende repræsentationsformer og sammenligningsprocedurer, som forefindes i de rent analytiske applikationer. Et oplagt eksempel herpå er David Copes EMI-system (*Experiments in Musical Intelligence*), der er designet til at analysere en præinkodet database med maskinlæsbare repræsentationer af værker af en bestemt komponist, herunder at identificere, hvad Cope kalder *signaturer*, dvs. motiver, som går igen i flere værker af samme komponist. På baggrund heraf opnås information omkring stil på et rent empirisk grundlag, hvilken efterfølgende kan danne basis for computersimulationer heraf.²⁵

25 David Cope redegør minutøst for EMI i publikationerne *Computers and Musical Style* (Oxford, 1991) og *Experiments in Musical Intelligence* (Madison, 1996). Ideen om algoritmisk baseret stil-simulation kan spores tilbage til Lejaren Hillers og Leonard Isaacsons eksperimentelle samarbejde i slutningen af 50'erne.

Copes interesse for algoritmisk mønsteridentifikation i stilanalytisk øjemed deles af mange andre, bl.a. af makkerparret Pierre-Yves Rolland og Jean-Gabriel Ganascia,²⁶ hvis oprindelige fokuspunkt dog ikke er kunstmusikken, men jazzimprovisationer, navnlig computerimplementering af Thomas Owens' undersøgelse af det melodiske materiale i 250 Charlie Parker-soli.²⁷ Lignende bestræbelser spores blandt en lang række forskere og forskergrupper, der tager udgangspunkt i den strukturalistisk orienterede semiotik med Nicolas Ruwet og Jean-Jacques Nattiez som de to fremmeste teoretikere. Der er her tale om en metode, der kort beskrevet går ud på at inddele et musikstykke i mindre komponenter, klassificere disse og derpå finde identiske eller beslægtede elementer, for på denne baggrund at kunne identificere en musikalsk syntaks.

Classification within a piece of music involves the splitting of the piece into segments and the categorization of these segments according to similarity-based criteria. In music analysis, this method is also known as *Paradigmatic Analysis* (PA) ... PA is a widely used method that provides an objective first step to most further formal musicological study, such as stylistic, comparative and motivic analysis.²⁸

Ideen bag Ruwets og Nattiez' 'paradigmatiske' analysemodeller er angiveligt at formulere et 'neutralt' beskrivelsesniveau, der i princippet kan overføres til et hvilket som helst musikalsk materiale (uafhængig af stil, genre, kulturel kontekst etc.), og som hverken baserer sig på komponistens/udøverens intention (*poiēsis*) eller tilhørers perception (*aesthēsis*).²⁹ Alligevel kommer man næppe udenom, at metoden uvægerligt implicerer et væsentligt element af menneskelig (subjektiv) intuition, idet analytikeren nødvendigvis må fortolke, når han skelner mellem beslægtede og kontrasterende segmenter; et forhold der ikke i sig selv bør give anledning til at miskreditere metoden i almindelighed,³⁰ men som uvilkårligt må vanskeliggøre en vellykket

26 Udover publikationen 'Musical Pattern Extraction and Similarity Assessment' (jf. note 9) beskriver Rolland og Ganascia deres resultater i 'Pattern Detection and Discovery: The Case of Music Data Mining', i David J. Hand, Niall M. Adams og Richard J. Bolton (eds.), *Pattern Detection and Discovery: Proceedings of the ESF Exploratory Workshop, London* (Berlin og Heidelberg, 2002), 190-98.

27 Thomas Owens, *Charlie Parker: Techniques of Improvisation* (Ph.D.-diss.; University of California, 1974).

28 Karin Höthker, Dominik Hörnel og Christina Anagnostopoulou, 'Investigating the Influence of Representations and Algorithms in Music Classification', *Computers and the Humanities*, 35/1 (2001), 65.

29 I sin bog, *Fondements d'une Sémiologie de la musique* (Paris, 1975), adopterer Nattiez bl.a. Ruwets semiotisk-analytiske taksonomier, men opererer med 'det neutrale niveau' i en anderledes empiristisk og positivistisk forstand, der skulle befri analysen fra enhver forforståelse. Således foreskriver Nattiez en strengt formaliseret metodeanvendelse uden hensyntagen til resultaterne.

30 En ofte fremført kritik af såvel Ruwets som Nattiez' analysemetoders inkonsistens – på grund af deres undvigelse af nøjagtigt specificerede sammenligningskriterier og heraf følgende afhængighed af individuel intuition – forekommer i nogen grad at ramme ved siden af, dersom man altså kan tilslutte sig det hermeneutisk funderede synspunkt, at musikanalyse altid indbefatter et større eller mindre element af fortolkning; at den netop er at betragte som et personligt bidrag til en mulig musikforståelse. Vanskeligere afviseligt er imidlertid det problematiske forhold, at Nattiez' ambitioner om en stærkere empirisk fundering, og heraf følgende 'mekanisk' videnskabeliggørelse af en analysepraksis (jf. note 29), i værste fald fører til en 'dissekering' af musikken, som er blottet for musikalsk mening.

computerimplementering. Der er forsket meget i løsningen på dette problem, navnlig siden begyndelsen af 90'erne, og således forefindes en række mere eller mindre vellykkede forsøg på at formalisere denne metode.³¹ Andre tager modsat ikke udgangspunkt i nogen bestemt eksisterende analysemetode, men holder sig blot til dette, at mønstre i form af genkomment materiale må betragtes som alment formdannende faktorer, i musik såvel som i andre kunstformer.³²

Produkt- og procesorienteret mønsteridentifikation

Sondringen mellem analytiske og generative applikationsprogrammer, der som nævnt bundet i selve mønsteridentifikationens formål, bringer yderligere et aspekt frem i lyset, som vedrører beskaffenheden af det materiale, hvorpå processen gennemføres. Således forekommer en ganske distinkt afgrænsning mellem de såkaldte *offline*- og *online*-systemer, dvs. hvor identifikationen pågår henholdsvis uden for og i realtid – eller sagt mere præcist: Der er forskel på, om en given algoritme er designet til at identificere mønstre i et musikstykke, der foreligger som et på forhånd fastlagt objekt (i form af nodebilledets konvertering til maskinlæsbare symboler) og således fuldt tilgængeligt i alle udvalgte detaljer, inden den algoritmiske identifikationsproces iværksættes – eller om den er beregnet på 'realtidsekstraktion'; dvs. hvor selv samme proces finder sted i takt med musikkens fortløbende udvikling.³³ Således kan der relativt let skelnes mellem, hvad man kunne kalde produktorienterede og procesorienterede applikationer, og hvor den første type primært (men ikke kun) kan adresseres til *analytiske* formål, benytter den anden blot mønsteridentifikationen som middel i musikantisk interaktivt øjemed, hvor mønstrene genbruges improvisatorisk (sammensættes på ny), eventuelt som realtidsakkompagnement til andre musikere.

Da nærværende artikel primært fokuserer på computeranvendelse i forbindelse med *værkanalyse*, forekommer det umiddelbart ganske rimeligt at koncentrere opmærksomheden om produktorienteret mønsteridentifikation. Dette begrundes med, at realtidsbaseret mønsterekstraktion på ethvert givet tidspunkt i processen alene må baseres på, hvad som allerede er passeret og dermed ikke det samlede materiale, og dette synes ikke særlig formålstjenligt i en værkanalytisk kontekst, hvor identifikatio-

31 Foruden Höthker, Hörnel og Anagnostopoulou, 'Investigating the Influence', se f.eks. Christina Anagnostopoulou og Gert Westermann, 'Classification in Music: A Computational Model for Paradigmatic Analysis', *ICMC Proceedings* (Thessaloniki, 1997); Emiliós Cambouropoulos, *Towards a General Computational Theory of Musical Structure* (Ph.D.-diss.; University of Edinburgh, 1998); Olivier Lartillot, 'Musical Analysis by Computer Following Cognitive Model of Induction of Analogies', *ICMC Proceedings* (Göteborg, 2002).

32 Foruden Rolland og Ganascia 'Musical Pattern Extraction and Similarity Assessment' samt 'Pattern Detection and Discovery', se f.eks. Herbert A. Simon og Richard K. Sumner, 'Pattern in Music', i Benjamin Kleinmuntz (ed.), *Formal Representation of Human Judgement* (New York, 1968), 219-50; Ilya Shmulevich et al., 'Perceptual Issues in Music Pattern Recognition: Complexity of Rhythm and Key Finding', *Computers and the Humanities* 35/1 (2001), 23-35.

33 Som et eksempel herpå kan nævnes *Cypher*, som er udviklet og beskrevet af Robert Rowe i bogen *Interactive Music Systems* (Cambridge, Mass., 1993).

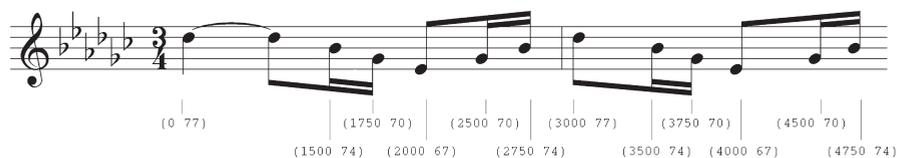
nen af musikkens væsentlige strukturelle elementer (mønstre) nødvendigvis afhænger af en helhedsbetragtning. Når Olivier Lartillot (i bl.a. 'Musical Analysis by Computer') i så høj grad betoner relevansen af en *heuristisk* (erfaringsbaseret) identifikationsalgoritme, hvilken angiveligt 'scanner' et computerrepræsenteret partitur kronologisk, svarende til en lytters musikoplevelse i realtid, forekommer det derfor ikke relevant i nærværende henseende. Ideen er angiveligt ellers at minimere antallet af 'musikalsk uinteressante' mønsteridentifikationer, men rent bortset fra det faktum, at en og samme 'musikalske arkitektur' kan opleves forskelligt (afhængig af kulturel baggrund, uddannelse eller blot situationen), forekommer det efter undertegnede synspunkt at være et tvivlsomt musikanalytisk anliggende at tage udgangspunkt i, hvilke sammenhænge en 'gennemsnitlig tilhører' sandsynligvis vil percipere. Det centrale må vel snarere være at afkode musikkens mere eller mindre latente kohærente strukturer, hvilke ideelt kan bidrage til en dybere forståelse og en heraf rigere musikalsk oplevelse. Ikke fordi sådanne kohærensstrukturer nødvendigvis opleves ved første lytning, men fordi de kan opleves, hvis man vel at mærke indstiller sin lytning herefter. Musikanalysen må og skal være et løsningsforslag (blandt mange andre mulige) på én (subjektiv, men argumenteret) tolkning.

CENTRALE PROBLEMSTILLINGER

Spørgsmålet om mønstres beskaffenhed – og den eventuelle favorisering af visse musikalske parametre frem for andre – relaterer til to overordnede problematikker, der er forbundet med den algoritmiske identifikationsproces; nemlig følgende: Med hvilken kodificering (beskrivelsesform og -symbolik) repræsenterer man musikken bedst, og hvorledes garderer man sig mod 'smuthuller', hvor visse musikalsk signifikante elementer får lov at passere ubemærket gennem processen? Mens førstnævnte helt afhænger af det analytiske formål (hvad man vil undersøge) og derfor nødvendigvis ikke kan besvares generelt, har sidstnævnte foreløbig vist sig temmelig vanskeligt til trods for en stadig nyudvikling af algoritmiske modeller. De to problematikker behandles begge i nedenstående afsnit vedrørende maskinlæsbare repræsentationsformer. Dertil kommer en række spørgsmål omkring de kriterier, der opstilles med henblik på sammenligningsproceduren. Udover de helt fundamentale vanskeligheder ved at definere nøjagtigt, hvad der gør to segmenter beslægtede og ikke kontrasterende, er det værd at hæfte sig ved de konkrete sammenligningsmetoder, vægtningen repræsentationsformerne imellem samt den referenceramme, inden for hvilken to eller flere segmenter sammenlignes. Alle disse spørgsmål adresseres til afsnittet vedrørende evalueringsprocedurer.

REPRÆSENTATIONSFORMER

En grundlæggende forudsætning for en identifikationsalgoritmes duelighed er naturligvis, at det musikalske materiale omdannes til en samling af data i form af tal eller anden maskinlæsbar symbolik. Et typisk eksempel herpå er, at en melodisk passage beskrives som en række af midi-tonenumre, evt. med information om ansatstidspunkt (se Eks. 2).



Eksempel 2. Meloditonerne i 'La fille aux cheveux de lin' (takt 1-2) med information om ansatstidspunkt og midi-tonenummer.

Af egnede repræsentations- eller beskrivelsesformer samt kombinationer heraf findes imidlertid, om end ikke et uendeligt antal, så i hvert fald betydeligt flere end i ovenstående eksempel, og egentlig er det først og fremmest musikanalytikerens iderigdom og forestillingsevne, der sætter grænsen.³⁴ Alligevel skulle en eller anden form for kategorisering nok være umagen værd, ikke mindst af hensyn til overskueligheden i nærværende artikel, og således differentieres foreløbig på to niveauer, nemlig 1) initiale og afledte repræsentationsformer samt 2) enkeltrækker og multidimensionale vektorer.

Initiale og afledte repræsentationsformer

Der eksisterer mange bud på, hvorledes musikstykker kan konverteres til data,³⁵ og de foreslåede repræsentationsformer varierer mellem *initiale* repræsentationsformer, såsom hver enkelt nodes ansatstidspunkt og tonehøjde (jf. Eks. 2), – til mere komplicerede (afledte) informationstyper som eksempelvis betoningsforhold samt konsonerings- og dissoneringsgrad.³⁶ At selve måden, hvorpå man beskriver en given musikalsk passage, spiller en afgørende rolle for resultatet i identifikationsprocessen, virker ganske logisk; to rytmisk identiske segmenter kan forekomme temmelig uens på grund af melodisk og kontekstuel differens (se Eks. 3a), mens to segmenter med samme følge af melodiske intervaller omvendt kan variere betydeligt, alt efter rytmiske og betoningsmæssige forhold (se Eks. 3b).

34 'Music representation' og 'music description' er blot to blandt flere betegnelser, som anvendes i forbindelse med automatisk mønsteridentificering. Af andre kan nævnes *features* (f.eks. Anagnostopoulou og Westermann, 'Classification in Music', 125-28), *viewpoints* (f.eks. Darrel Conklin og Ian H. Witten, 'Multiple viewpoint systems for music prediction', *Journal of New Music Research*, 24/1 (1995), 51-73) eller *dimensions* (f.eks. David Meredith, Kjell Lemström og Geraint A. Wiggins, 'Algorithms for discovering repeated patterns in multidimensional representations of polyphonic music', *Journal of New Music Research*, 31/4 (2002), 321-45).

35 Se f.eks. David Lewin, *Generalized Musical Intervals and Transformations* (New Haven, 1987); Peter Howell, Robert West og Ian Cross (eds.), *Representing Musical Structure* (San Diego, 1991) samt Marsden og Pople (eds.), *Computer Representations*.

36 Distinktionen mellem *initiale* og *afledte* repræsentationsformer er et velbeskrevet anliggende. Eksempler herpå er Rollands og Ganascias dikotomi: *data representation* og *knowledge representation* ('Pattern Detection and Discovery', 193) eller Selfridge-Fields tredelte kategorisering: *representational components*, f.eks. tonehøjde og varighed; *derivable components*, f.eks. tonehøjdeintervaller og accentuering; samt *non-derivable components*, f.eks. fraseringsmæssige og dynamiske anvisninger (jf. Eleanor Selfridge-Field, 'Conceptual and Representational Issues in Melodic Comparison', i Walter B. Hewlett og Eleanor Selfridge-Field (eds.), *Melodic Similarity. Concepts, Procedures, and Applications. Computing in Musicology II* (Stanford University, 1998), 15).

(a) Musical notation showing two staves of music in 3/4 time, key signature of three flats. The top staff has a melodic line, and the bottom staff has a bass line. A bracket connects the two staves, indicating identical rhythm.

(b) Musical notation showing two staves of music in 3/4 time, key signature of three flats. The top staff has a melodic line with intervallic annotations (-1 -2 -2) above it. The bottom staff has a bass line with intervallic annotations (-1 -2 -2) below it. A bracket connects the two staves, indicating identical melody.

Eksempel 3. (a): Identisk rytme (jf. figuren i midten); (b): Identisk melodi (jf. intervalcifrene).

Det er derfor væsentligt først og fremmest at tilrettelægge den maskinelle repræsentation efter, hvad det er for en type mønstre, man agter at finde; hvilke musikalske parametre, man vil tillægge størst betydning. Men når dette er gjort, rejser sig en række nye spørgsmål og problemstillinger, som relaterer til selve det antal af repræsentationsformer, der skønnes nødvendige for et tilfredsstillende resultat. Her kan en begrænsning til kun få af slagsen (f.eks. intervaller mellem to tonehøjder og/eller to ansatstidspunkter³⁷) i nogle sammenhænge være en fordel og i andre en ulempe, alt efter hvor bredt eller snævert mønsteridentifikationen tilsigtes. En såkaldt *multiple viewpoint approach* er blevet foreslået, hvilken angiveligt skulle sikre en mere nøjagtig information vedrørende de nærmere omstændigheder, hvormed to (eller flere) segmenter er sammenlignelige (se Eks. 4).³⁸

Fremgangsmåden er at lade en melodi – eller i tilfælde af flerstemmig musik, hver eneste stemme – beskrive på mindst 2-3 (gerne endnu flere) forskellige måder som individuelle informationsstrømme, repræsenteret ved talrækker. Andetsteds fra påpeges det endvidere, at beskrivelsesmodellerne ikke kun bør adresseres til musikkens ‘overflade’.

The representations used in the usual encodings of melodies, viz. musical score notation and MIDI, are only an extremely restricted version of descriptions. In addition to – or instead of – the initial representation of the melodies’ notes (absolute pitch and relative duration, typically), structural information should be taken into account at various abstraction levels, based on the psychology of music (perception, cognition) and on music theory.³⁹

Den initiale beskrivelse må med andre ord ‘beriges’ med en række repræsentationer, som afledes heraf, for netop at kvalificere den algoritmiske identifikationsproces mest muligt, herunder frasortere uinteressante mønstre (jf. Eks. 1). Dette er bl.a. et kardinalpunkt i den såkaldte FExPat-algoritme,⁴⁰ hvor sådanne afledninger (på forhånd indbygget i systemet eller brugerspecificerede) implementeres automatisk, alene ud fra en initial

37 Et interval mellem to ansatstidspunkter benævnes herefter io-intervallet (*inter-onset interval*).

38 Foruden Conklin og Witten, ‘Multiple viewpoint systems’, se Darrell Conklin og Christina Anagnostopoulou, ‘Representation and discovery of multiple viewpoint patterns’, *ICMC Proceedings* (Havana, 2001), 479-85.

39 Pierre-Yves Rolland, ‘Discovering Patterns in Musical Sequences’, *Journal of New Music Research* 28/4 (1999), 336.

40 FExPat (*Flexible Extraction of Patterns*) er implementeret i software-systemet *Imprology* og beskrevet af Pierre-Yves Rolland og Jean-Gabriel Ganascia i konferencerapporten ‘Automated Motive-Oriented Analysis of Musical Corpuses: a Jazz Case Study’, *ICMC Proceedings* (Hongkong, 1996), 240-43.

Figur 1.

Herunder gives en række eksempler på såvel initiale som afledte repræsentationsformer, hvoraf sidstnævnte yderligere opdeles i tre grupper. Listen er selektiv, idet langt flere i princippet kunne tilføjes. Det væsentlige her er imidlertid at kategorisere de enkelte former inden for tre overordnede parametre (ansatstidspunkt, tonehøjde og varighed) for på denne måde at skabe en vis klarhed over forskelle i beskrivelsesniveauer.

1. INITIALE (ABSOLUTTE) REPRÆSENTATIONSFORMER

Ansatsstidspunkt (*onset time*), målt i

- antal millisekunder fra begyndelsen (o).
- antal mindste rytmiske fællesnævner, fortløbende fra 1-slaget i første takt.

Tonehøjde (*pitch*), angivet som

- nummer efter midi-standarden; f.eks. midi-tone nr. 60 svarer til c' ('nøglehuls-c'et').

Varighed (*duration*), målt i

- antal millisekunder fra ansatsstidspunktet.
- antal mindste rytmiske fællesnævner, f.eks. x ottendedele, x sekstendedelstrioler etc.*

2. AFLEDTE REPRÆSENTATIONSFORMER

a) Klassificerende beskrivelser

Ansatsstidspunkt, målt i

- antal mindste rytmiske fællesnævner, beregnet fra 1-slaget i den pågældende takt.

Tonehøjde, angivet som

- nummer, dvs. 'tonehøjdeklasse' (*pitch class*); f.eks. $c=0$, $cis=1$, $d=2\dots$, $b=11$.
- placering i forhold til førstetrinsakkordens grundtone; f.eks. $a=2$, hvis tonika er G.
- navn (*name class*), f.eks. c , d , e etc.
- 'høj', 'lav' og 'middel'.

Varighed

- 'kort', 'lang' og 'middel'.

b) Distancebaserede beskrivelser

Difference i forhold til forrige ansatsstidspunkt (også kaldet io-interval, *inter-onset interval*),** målt i

- antal millisekunder.
- antal mindste rytmiske enheder.

Interval (evt. også retning) i forhold til forrige eller første tonehøjde i passagen, angivet som

- antal halvtonetrin (eventuelt med retningsangivelse foran, + eller -).

Forholdet mellem to successive varigheder eller bedre: to successive io-intervaller (ioi-ratio), beregnet som

- andet io-interval over første io-interval (ioi_2/ioi_1).

c) Distancebaserede og klassificerende beskrivelser

Interval (evt. også retning) i forhold til forrige tonehøjdeklasse i passagen, angivet som

- den retningsbestemte difference mellem to toneklasser i et *modulus 12*-system; f.eks. er afstanden fra b til g otte halvtoner, mens afstanden fra g og b er fire halvtoner.***
- den ikke-retningsbestemte difference mellem to toneklasser i et *modulus 12*-system, hvor differencen mellem b og g altid er 4.***

- nummer (fra 1 til 6), dvs. 'intervalklasse' (*interval class*); f.eks. stor septim og lille sekund = 1, kvart og kvint = 5 etc.
- retning i forhold til forrige tone (melodisk kontur), f.eks. 'op', 'ned' og 'lige'.
- samme med differentieret afstand, f.eks. 'trin' (+/-), 'spring' (+/-) og 'gentag'.

Overordnet distinktion mellem to successive io-intervaller, angivet som

- 'kortere', 'længere' og 'lige lange' (rytmisk kontur).

* Dvs. hver enkelt tones varighed beskrives som multiplikationer af den rytmiske enhed, som udgør nærmeste fællesnævner i det musikstykke, som analyseres, således at eksempelvis passagen |  | svarer til (6 6 2 2 2 3 3 4 4 4 3 9), hvor 1 ($\frac{1}{3}$) er fælles rytmisk enhed.

** Begrebet *inter-onset interval* (ioi) adskiller sig fra *duration*, idet eventuelle pauser i eksempelvis en melodi henføres til den forudgående tones samlede varighed (f.eks.  ~ 3 1 2 2 og  ~ 3 1 2 2). Eftersom de to figurer er rytmisk identiske (til trods for første nodes ændrede varighed), står det klart, at ioi-representationen i mange tilfælde er den mest hensigtsmæssige at operere med.

*** Forskellen mellem retningsbestemte og ikke-retningsbestemte toneklassedifferencer svarer til sondringen mellem *ordered pitch-class interval* og *unordered pitch-class interval*, sådan som den bl.a. fremstår i Allen Fortes *The Structure of Atonal Music* (New Haven, 1973).

Principielt er det umuligt at afgøre i hvilken af de fire basiskategorier, man finder de mest anvendelige repræsentationsformer, og det må i hvert eneste konkrete tilfælde bero på et skøn, alt afhængig af det analytiske formål. Såfremt man ønsker at identificere flest mulige *melodiske* repetitioner inden for en given musikalsk passage, forekommer de distancebaserede repræsentationsformer (kategori 2b og 2c) umiddelbart som de mest brugbare, for hermed opfanges automatisk alle eventuelle transpositioner samt rytmiske augmentationer og diminutioner, hvilke i bund og grund må betragtes som melodisk identiske til trods for de individuelle noders forskellighed. Helt så enkelt forholder det sig imidlertid ikke, når man ønsker at identificere – hvilket i musikanalyse er helt afgørende – melodiske genkomster, der ikke er nøjagtig ens, men varierer lokalt i kraft af udskiftede, alternativt indskudte eller udeladte toner. Såfremt to melodiske passager med lige mange toner repræsenteres ved talrækker, bestående af midi-tonenumre (se Eks. 5a-b), kan konsekvensen af et alternativt nummer hist og her kontrolleres i kraft af distancebaserede sammenligningsmodeller (se endvidere afsnittet 'Evalueringsprocedurer').

Hvis de samme to passager derimod repræsenteres af tonehøjdeintervaller, vil variationen talrækkerne imellem fremstå som dobbelt så stor, eftersom hver enkelt toneændring nødvendigvis forårsager dobbelt så mange alternative intervaller. Her er det ikke det forøgede antal varierede numre, der vanskeliggør genkendelsesprocessen, men simpelthen det forhold, at to alternative successive intervalnumre midt i rækken lige så vel kan forvandle passagen til uigenkendelighed (sammenlign Eks. 5c med Eks. 5a), som de kan udligne hinanden (sammenlign Eks. 5b med Eks. 5a). Meget afhænger for så vidt af de pågældende alternative intervalnumres sammenlægning; dvs. om summen af to intervalnumre er ændret i forhold til den modsvarende intervalsum i sammenligningsgrundlaget eller ej, og hvor meget denne

Eksempel 5. Tre beslægtede melodiske passager med angivelse af midi-tone-numre (nederst) og halvtoneintervaller (øverst). De indrammede cifre i (b) og (c) repræsenterer tone- og intervalændringerne i forhold til (a).

Eksempel 6. Samme tre melodiske passager med angivelse af to alternative intervalsumationer (hhv. øverst og nederst), svarende til intervallerne mellem hver anden tone. De indrammede cifre afslører ligheden mellem (a) og (b).

sum i givet fald er ændret. Således bemærkes det, at summen af den intervalliske ændring i Eks. 5b ($3 + (-7) = -4$) er identisk med den modsvarende intervalsum i Eks. 5a ($-2 + (-2) = -4$). Samme forhold gør sig ikke gældende mellem Eks. 5c ($-5 + (-2) = -7$) og Eks. 5a ($-2 + 2 = 0$). Ovenstående kunne muligvis anspore til også at lade melodiske passager beskrive ved summen af to (eller evt. flere) successive intervaller. Dette vil i givet fald fordrer et tilsvarende antal alternative repræsentationer (fra to og opfeft). Således genererer de tre melodiske passager hver især to forskellige rækker med sammentalte intervalcifre, eftersom hvert interval kan pares med såvel forløberen som efterfølgeren (se Eks. 6). Det er imidlertid kun den ene af disse rækker, der kan afsløre Eks. 6a og Eks. 6b som eksakt matchende (jf. de indrammede cifre).

Den overordnede ide med en sådan repræsentationsmodel er netop at generalisere (til forskel fra at klassificere); dvs. reducere beskrivelsen i en sådan grad, at detailmæssige variationer udjævnes og beslægtede segmenter automatisk opfattes som identiske i den maskinelle aflæsning, og således tegnes her konturerne af endnu et afledningsniveau, som rækker ud over kategoriseringen i Figur 1. Det er imidlertid en ulempe, at en sådan type generalisering risikerer at medføre alt for mange resultater, der i bedste fald er irrelevante og i værste fald direkte misvisende, dvs. musikalsk meningsløse. Ét specifikt løsningsforslag fra makkerparret Emilios Cambourpoulos og Gerhard Widmer er derfor, som supplement til en beskrivelse af den egentlige melodiske overfladestruktur, at operere med op til flere rytmiske reduktioner af denne, hvor også eksempelvis metrisk centrale toner (og navnlig de melodiske og

rytmiske intervaller herimellem) indgår i beskrivelsen.⁴³ Med denne ‘både-og-tilgang’ fremlægger de dermed i virkeligheden en metodisk tilgang, som også kendetegner den tidligere nævnte *multiple viewpoint approach*,⁴⁴ hvor en algoritmisk identifikationsproces appliceres i forhold til en vifte af datamængder, svarende til enhver tænkelig beskrivelsesform. Her er problemet imidlertid dels, at hver eneste alternative beskrivelsesform i praksis ofte kræver større eller mindre justeringer i den algoritmiske identifikationsproces; dels at det er besværligt at operere med mange separate datamængder.

Enkeltrækker eller multidimensionale datamængder

De fleste identifikationsalgoritmer er møntet på ‘enkeltrækker’ (*strings*), eftersom det umiddelbart er det mest simple; altså en slags ‘monofon database’,⁴⁵ hvor selve rækkefølgen symbolerne imellem spiller en afgørende rolle. Således opfattes *a b c d* som forskellig fra *c a b d* og *b d a c* til trods for, at samme fire karakterer optræder i alle tre rækker. I praksis er sådanne rækkebaserede modellers applicering i forhold til musikanalytiske formål dog forbundet med visse uhensigtsmæssige begrænsninger, hvilket bl.a. udspringer af det faktum, at de sammenligningsmetoder, som algoritmerne betjener sig af, oprindeligt er møntet på tekstdata og ikke musikalske data, og sidstnævnte er per natur mere komplicerede. Dette skyldes ifølge Anna Pienimäki især tre forhold: 1) *polyfoni* (flere sideløbende individuelle informationsstrømme); 2) *mangedimensionering* (mange forskellige beskrivelsesmodeller per informationsstrøm, *multiple viewpoints*); samt 3) *transpositionsinvarians* (overordnet melodisk/rytmisk lighed trods individuelle forskelle i tonehøjde eller varighed).⁴⁶ Mens sidstnævnte forhold synes relativt let overkommeligt via distancebaserede repræsentationsformer (såsom tonehøjdeintervaller og ioi-ratio), forekommer de to første punkter noget mere problematiske.

To find all the interesting repetitions in a musical passage using a string based approach, one has to run various algorithms on a multitude of different representations of the passage. Moreover, when the music to be analysed is polyphonic, there are certain types of repetition that cannot be discovered if the music is represented using strings.⁴⁷

Dersom den rækkebaserede tilgang fordrer forskellige algoritmer, afhængig af den valgte beskrivelsesmodel, besværliggøres identifikationsprocessen; ikke mindst når

43 Emiliós Cambouropoulos og Gerhard Widmer, ‘Automated Motivic Analysis via Melodic Clustering’, *Journal of New Music Research*, 29/4 (2000), 304-6. Metoden afprøves efterfølgende på melodiske segmenter fra Schumanns klaverstykke ‘Träumerei’ (*Kinderszenen*, op. 15, nr. 7), og Debussys *Syrinx*, på hvilken baggrund tidligere publicerede studier af henholdsvis Bruno Repp og Jean-Jacques Nattiez diskuteres.

44 Jf. note 38.

45 David Meredith, Geraint A. Wiggins og Kjell Lemström, ‘Pattern induction and matching in polyphonic music and other multidimensional datasets’, i N. Callaos et al. (eds.), *Proceedings of the 5th World Multiconference on Systemics, Cybernetics and Informatics* (Orlando, Fla., 2001), 62.

46 Anna Pienimäki, ‘Indexing Music Databases Using Automatic Extraction of Frequent Phrases’, *ISMIR Proceedings* (2002), 25.

47 Meredith, Lemström og Wiggins, ‘Algorithms for discovering repeated patterns’, 328.

man opererer med mange forskellige dimensioner og er nødt til at ændre eller i det mindste tilpasse proceduren hver gang.

Som løsning herpå foreslås i stedet en *vektormodel*, hvor samtlige stemmer i et musikstykke transformeres til multidimensionale datamængder i form af 'events', indeholdende et givet antal parametre, som kendetegner hver node. Denne model er som sådan ikke ny, men har fortilfælde i *EMI*, hvor Cope opererer med følgende fem vektordimensioner (se Eks. 7): *onset time* eller ansatstidspunkt, målt i millisekunder; *pitch* eller absolut tonehøjde efter midi-standarden; *duration* eller varighed, ligeledes målt i millisekunder, *channel number*, dvs. stemmeinformati on angivet som midi-kanal (1-16), samt *dynamic* eller lydstyrke, angivet på en skala fra 0 til 127.⁴⁸

The image shows two musical staves, Alto and Tenor, with notes and rests. To the right of each staff is a list of numerical data representing the 'events' for each note. The Alto staff has three notes and one rest. The Tenor staff has six notes. The numerical data is as follows:

Staff	Event 1	Event 2	Event 3	Event 4	Event 5	Event 6	Event 7	Event 8	Event 9	Event 10
Alto	4250	66	250	1	64	4500	66	250	1	64
Tenor	4000	63	125	2	64	4125	64	125	2	64
Tenor	4250	66	125	2	64	4375	64	125	2	64
Tenor	4500	63	125	2	64					

Eksempel 7. 'Cope-events', appliceret på midtersatsen i J.S. Bachs 'Jesu, meine Freude' (udsnit af t. 3).

Fordelen ved en sådan model skulle angiveligt være, at den som en *flerdimensional initialrepræsentation* rummer alle de væsentlige data, hvorfra alle øvrige klassificerede og distancebaserede data kan beregnes maskinelt, og at man herefter kan nøjes med at gennemføre identifikationsprocessen én gang. Det 'polyfone problem' er dog for så vidt stadig uløst, så længe to (eller flere) polyfone stemmer repræsenteres som individuelle informationsstrømme, for dermed ses der helt bort fra eventuelle relationer og sammenhænge, herunder mønsterforekomster, på tværs af stemmerne; dvs. fænomener som gennembrudt tematisk arbejde, der bl.a. kendes fra wienerklassikken foruden middelalderens *hoquetus*-teknik, samt musikalske 'fikserbilleder', latente i den kontrapunktiske struktur (se Eks. 8).

48 Cope, *Experiments in Musical Intelligence*, 57-59 (jf. note 25). Selve antallet af dimensioner er i princippet ubegrænset, og de fem nævnte dimensioner er ikke uomgængelige. I stedet for *dynamic*, som hos Cope, opererer Meredith, Wiggins og Lemström således med begrebet *morphic pitch* ('Algorithms for discovering repeated patterns', 328-29), hvormed menes den position på nodelinjen, hvor nodehovedet er placeret. Således indgår samtlige nodelinjer og mellemrum i et nummereringssystem, hvor eksempelvis *c'* har nummer 23. Herefter følger *d'* og *e'* med henholdsvis 24 og 25 og så fremdeles. Desuden introduceres en *grafisk tilgang*, idet to vilkårlige vektordimensioner (f.eks. *onset time* og *pitch*) afbildes i et koordinatsystem, hvorigennem mønstrene kan aflæses og sammenlignes. En lignende model præsenteres i en konferencerapport af Esko Ukkonen, Kjell Lemström og Veli Mäkinen, 'Geometric Algorithms for Transposition Invariant Content-Based Music Retrieval', *ISMIR Proceedings* (2003), 194.

Eksempel 8. Første- og andenviolinstemmen i åbningen af Tchaikovskys 6. symfoni (*Pathétique*), 4. sats.

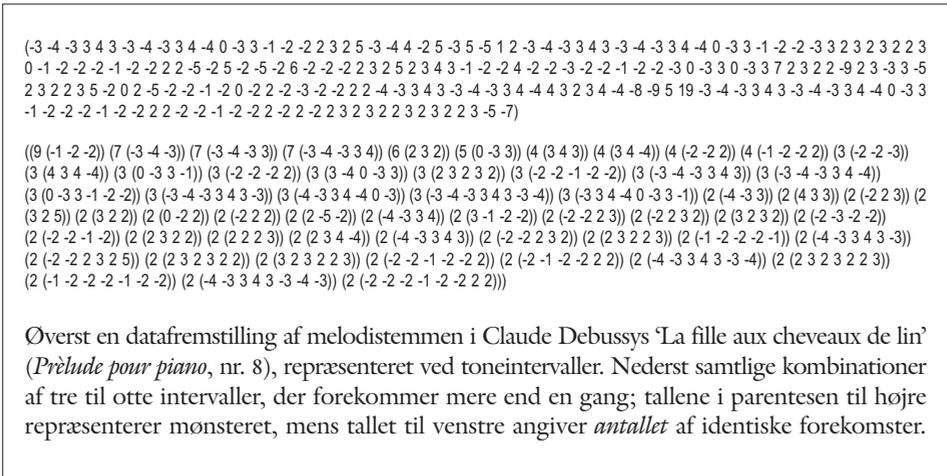
EVALUERINGSPROCEDURER

Som det ekspliciteres af Ian Bent, er sammenligning at betragte som en helt grundlæggende procedure i en hvilken som helst form for musikanalyse;⁴⁹ således også computerstøttet musikanalyse og algoritmisk mønsteridentifikation, hvor kunststykket som bekendt er at få maskinen til at fremkomme med musikalsk meningsfulde resultater gennem en formaliseret proces. Herunder samler sig nogle forhold, der hver for sig kræver en stillingtagen. For det første må selve referencerammen fastlægges, dvs. det grundlag, hvorpå sammenligningen ønskes baseret: Hvad sammenlignes med hvad? Spørgsmålet korresponderer i høj grad med sondringen mellem de forskellige applikationstyper, mønstergenkendelse og mønsteropdagelse. Således er referencerammen ved mønstergenkendelse givet på forhånd i kraft af den brugerdefinerede indlæsning (X), på baggrund af hvilken alle eventuelle identiske og beslægtede mønstre identificeres ($X, X', X'' \text{ etc.} \cong X$). Ved mønsteropdagelse, hvor brugeren (analytikerens) formodentlig indledningsvis er uvidende om analysematerialeets samtlige mønstre (disses struktur, antal og nøjagtige længde), anskues den samlede datamængde under et, og alle successive talkombinationer (inden for en valgt afgrænsning; f.eks. tre til otte tonehøjdeintervaller, angivet med rækker af positive og negative cifre) sammenlignes med alle, uanset hvor i musikstykket disse refererer til (se Fig. 2).⁵⁰

⁴⁹ Bent og Pople, 'Analysis', 528.

⁵⁰ En forskergruppe, under ledelse af Tim Crawford (King's College, London), har arbejdet på at løse en række særlige problemer i form af *gradvis* materialeforvandling, 'the evolutionary chain problem' (jf. Tim Crawford et al., 'Approximate Musical Evolution', *Computers and the Humanities*, 35/1 (1998), 55-64). Således præsenteres algoritmer, der angiveligt skal være i stand til at identificere en sekvens af mønstre (adskilt i tid), der hver især først og fremmest er at betragte som variationer af det foregående mønster og *ikke af hinanden*; f.eks. $X \rightarrow (X)' \rightarrow ((X)')' \rightarrow (((X)')')'$). Ideen er angiveligt at gøre maskinen i stand til at identificere en fortløbende udvikling (f.eks. *metamorfose*), hvor det oprindelige materiale ellers forvandles til uigenkendelighed.

Figur 2.



Selve vurderingsspørgsmålet vedrørende forskellen mellem lighed, slægtskab eller kontrast er derimod det samme uanset applikationstype, og i den henseende er der brug for en slags 'sammenligningsbarometer'; dvs. et måleredskab, der i forlængelse af to mønstres identifikation beregner, i hvor høj grad de pågældende passager ligner hinanden – eller omvendt: hvorvidt de varierer indbyrdes. Dette er især nødvendigt, eftersom grænsen mellem beslægtede og kontrasterende elementer er vanskelig at trække; ikke mindst ordvalget 'musikalsk beslægtet' er i sig selv temmelig unøjagtigt. Således udgør formaliseringen af evalueringsproceduren en væsentlig problemstilling, hvori selve bevidstgørelsen omkring de forhold, vi som musikalsk intelligente lyttere lægger til grund for vor opfattelse af to mønstre som beslægtede, indgår som en ganske værdifuld øvelse.

Kvantitative og kvalitative sammenligningsmodeller

At det er så kompliceret algoritmisk at sammenligne beslægtede musikalske passager (til forskel fra identiske), skyldes naturligvis, at mulighederne, hvormed én passage kan tænkes at variere i forhold til en anden – uden vel at mærke at forandres til uigenkendelighed, – er temmelig alsidige. Selv om det bestemt er muligt indledningsvis i identifikationsprocessen at indføje variable, som er 'tolerante' overfor visse differencetyper (f.eks. forskellen mellem en lille og stor sekund), er der som nævnt behov for efterfølgende at evaluere resultaterne. Her kan det muligvis hjælpe på overskueligheden, hvis man grundlæggende skelner mellem to niveauer, hvormed to passager kan adskille sig fra hinanden og stadig være gensidigt beslægtede; på den ene side et 'globalt' niveau, hvor den samlede passage ændres, mens de interne relationer imellem de enkelte elementer bibeholdes i en eller anden forstand, – og på den anden

side et 'lokalt' niveau, hvor variationen specifikt kan henvises til en eller flere afgrænsede dele indenfor den samlede passage, uden at dennes overordnede struktur dog hermed ændres væsentligt.⁵¹ Mens det globale differenceniveau i alt væsentligt inkluderer transformationerne, *inversion*, *retrograd*, *retrograd inversion* samt disse spejlformers transpositioner,⁵² omfatter det lokale differenceniveau mange forskellige variationstyper i form af ornamenteringer og rytmiske ændringer for blot at nævne nogle få.

Især sidstnævnte repræsenterer en vanskelig, men samtidig helt uomgængelig algoritmisk udfordring. Det kan næppe overraske, at musikalsk variation ofte netop drejer sig om at ændre blot enkelte elementer ud af et samlet hele; en kendsgerning, der umiddelbart har stor betydning for de sammenlignede passagers struktur, når de repræsenteres som eksempelvis talrækker. Tænk blot på, hvorledes få melodiske ornamenteringer (forsiringer mm.) kan afstedkomme et forøget antal data og dermed besværliggøre identifikationsprocessen (se Eks. 9).

The image shows two staves of musical notation. The first staff is labeled 'Takt 71' and the second 'Takt 87'. Both are in G major (one sharp) and 4/4 time. The notation includes various ornaments such as grace notes, slurs, and trills, which are used to illustrate how small changes in melody can affect identification.

(0 81) (960 80) (1020 81) (1440 80) (1500 81) (1920 86) (2280 83) (2400 79) (3360 78) (4200 75) (4320 76) (4680 78) (4800 79) (5160 81) (5280 82) (5640 83) (5760 74) (6480 78) (6600 76) (6720 76) (6960 78) (7200 79) (7440 80)

(0 81) (960 80) (1020 81) (1440 80) (1500 81) (1920 86) (2040 85) (2160 83) (2280 81) (2400 79) (3360 78) (3840 76) (4200 78) (4240 76) (4280 76) (4320 76) (4560 78) (4800 79) (5040 79) (5280 81) (5520 83) (5760 78) (6480 79) (6600 78) (6720 76) (6960 78) (7200 79) (7440 80)

Eksempel 9. Sidetemaet i Mozarts symfoni nr. 40, g-mol (K. 550), 4. sats.

I den forbindelse er det værd at overveje en række forskellige sammenligningsmetoder, der hver for sig benyttes til at fastsætte graden af lighed, men som adskiller sig fra hinanden på væsentlige punkter. Den ene metode er rent *kvantitativ*, idet lighedsgraden mellem to passager måles procentuelt uden nogen information omkring, hvori denne lighed består. Hvis vi som i Eksempel 10 eksempelvis opererer med ansatstidspunkt og tonehøjde som dobbeltrepræsentation for hver node i de fire melodiske passager, viser regnestykket, at b, c og d alle er 75% identiske med a, idet der er sammenfald ved seks events ud af i alt otte mulige. Imidlertid vil det være klart for de fleste musikalske mennesker, at b lægger sig tættere op ad a end de øvrige to passager gør det, netop fordi det så at sige er de 'rigtige' toner, der korresponderer med hinanden. Dette fører frem til spørgsmålet vedrørende, hvordan to passager ligner hinanden; der tilstræbes med andre ord en mere *kvalitativ* indfaldsvinkel til mønstersammenligningen.

51 Rolland og Ganascia, 'Musical Pattern Extraction and Similarity Assessment', 130f.

52 I modsætning til Rolland og Ganascia, 'Musical Pattern Extraction and Similarity Assessment', finder nærværende forfatter ingen grund til at indlemme eksakte melodiske transpositioner i gruppen af 'globale differencer', eftersom anvendelsen af tonehøjdeintervaller som repræsentative data medfører, at sådanne automatisk identificeres som melodisk identiske, hvilket de i realiteten også er.

Figur 3.

Forskelle mellem distancemodeller	
<i>Hamming-distancen</i>	<i>Levenstein-distancen</i>
2143896	2143896
2145389	2145389
= 4 (fire sidste cifre udskiftes)	= 2 ("5" indføres og "6" udelades)
2143896	2143896
21453897	21453897
error	= 2 ("5" indføres og "6" udskiftes med "7")

mange musikalske 'krumspring', før dataligheden sløres betydeligt (jf. Eks. 9). For at komme dette problem til livs foreslås fra flere hold en udvidelse af distancemodellen i form af en række yderligere differencetyper, der navnlig modsvarer musikanalytiske behov (jf. Figur 4).⁵⁴

Figur 4.

Lokal variation	Udvidet redigering
Standardoperationer (Levenstein)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indføjeelse: $A B C D \rightarrow A B [X] C D$ • Udeladelse: $A B [X] D \rightarrow A B D$ • Udskiftning: $A B [X] D \rightarrow A B [Y] D$ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rækkefølgeændring: $A B C D \rightarrow A B D C$ • Konsolidering: $A [BBB] C D \rightarrow A B C D$ • Fragmentering: $A B C D \rightarrow A [BBB] C D$ • Masseindføjeelse: $A B C D \rightarrow A B [XXX] C D$ • Masseudeladelse: $A [XYZ] B C \rightarrow A B C$ • Masseudskiftning: $A B [XYZ] C D \rightarrow A B [UVW] C D$

Den store gevinst heri består i, at det f.eks. nu blot tæller én redigeringsoperation at matche to melodifragmenter, der har et ornament (i form af et variabelt antal toner) til forskel – i modsætning til Levenstein-distancens *fastlagte* standardoperationer, hvor hver eneste tilføjelse, udeladelse eller udskiftning tæller individuelt (se Eks. 11a-b). De nye typer har imidlertid også en væsentlig begrænsning, idet deres anvendelses-potentiale nødvendigvis afhænger af, at algoritmen på forhånd er udstyret med en

⁵⁴ De to typer, konsolidering og fragmentering, defineres første gang af Marcel Mongeau og David Sankoff i artiklen 'Comparison of Musical Sequences', *Computers and the Humanities*, 24/3 (1990), 165, og adopteres siden af Rolland ('Discovering Patterns in Musical Sequences', 340 f.), der desuden supplerer med de øvrige på listen i Figur 4. Se også Rolland og Ganascia, 'Musical Pattern Extraction and Similarity Assessment', 134-36, og 'Pattern Detection and Discovery', 195-96.

(a) *Standardoperationer (Levenstein).*

①-⑥: indføjelser • ⑦: udeladelse • ⑧-⑩: udskiftninger

(b) *Udvidet redigering.*

①-②: masseindføjelser • ③: konsolidering • ④: udeladelse • ⑤: masseudskiftning

Eksempel II. Mozart: Symfoni nr. 40, g-mol (K. 550), 4. sats. To sidetemauddrag, hvor det sidste holdes op mod det første, hhv. med og uden udvidelserne i forhold til Levenstein-distancemodellens redigeringsoperationer. Bemærk, at (+) står for *toneindføjelse*, (÷) for *toneudeladelse* og at den vertikale kombination af disse står for *toneudskiftning*.

række formaliserede stilmnormer, som den i givet fald vil genkende, således at ornamenter aflæses som sådanne og ikke som et antal selvstændige toner.

AFRUNDENDE BEMÆRKNINGER

Uanset hvor spidsfindige repræsentations- og sammenligningsmodeller, man formår at opstille, og uanset hvor effektive de måtte forekomme, er man formentlig altid nødt til at kontrollere resultaterne manuelt. Dette giver anledning til at stille det helt overordnede spørgsmål vedrørende computerens funktion; om den tænkes anvendt som *imitator* eller *katalysator*. Drejer det sig om at efterligne perceptionspsykologiske og kognitive processer, dvs. gøre applikationsprogrammer i stand til automatisk at identificere de samme fænomener, som man formodentlig ville have fundet ved manuelt arbejde – eller bør succeskriteriet i virkeligheden ikke være et andet, nemlig at maskinens ‘manglende musikalitet’, dens uafhængighed af forudindtagede forestillinger, (musik)kulturelle normer etc., netop sikrer et output, der sommetider nok må forkastes, men som frem for alt kan overraske og dermed åbne nye vinkler i forbindelse med en musikanalytisk tolkning? For undertegnede er der ingen tvivl om, at det er sidstnævnte, hvori det egentlige perspektiv i computer-

anvendelsen rettelig ligger. Karl Aage Rasmussen anskueliggør dette synspunkt meget præcist, skønt hans udgangspunkt er komposition og ikke analyse. Han får hermed det sidste ord:

Computerens omstyrtende potens ligger i den måde omgangen med den, feed-back'et fra den, ændrer vores måder at tænke på, musikalsk og i det hele taget. Den skaber nye tankemodeller, ikke ved at vise dem frem, ikke via mikroprocessorer, men som en katalysator. ... Maskinen får simpelthen en masse telefonråde til at gløde i vores egne hoveder, forbindelser mellem abstraktionsformer og tankebaner, der ellers aldrig var blevet strømførende. Prisen er tvivl og forvirring, i hvert fald i mit private tilfælde. Især tvivl. Men tvivl flytter bjerge.⁵⁵

SUMMARY

Algorithmic Identification of Patterns

Thoughts on computer-assisted music analysis

In the field of computer-assisted music analysis, similarity studies are widely recognized as the main areas of investigation comprising a number of computational tasks such as extraction, recognition, and comparison of musical patterns. A 'musical pattern' refers to any kind of recurring material (melodic, rhythmic, harmonic etc.), which is measurable through symbolic modelling. In this article, several issues associated with automated (algorithmic) procedures of musical analysis are introduced and discussed. First, preliminary historical and epistemological conditions of computational musicology are presented, followed by a few basic distinctions between different methods of application. Second, two central problems are evaluated: 1) the difficult choice of the form of symbolic representation, and 2) the challenge of finding musically adequate methods of comparison.

55 Rasmussen, 'Spejlet i spejlet', 130-31.

Reports

Research Projects

MUSIC TEACHER EDUCATION IN DENMARK

The pedagogical element of music teacher education has been much debated over the past decade. Attention has been drawn to the need for strengthening the pedagogical modules and developing the overall structure of the study programmes.

Both of the Ph.D. projects presented here are part of a major current research project under the main project title *Music Teacher Education in Denmark: Core of Educational Content and Professionalization* which is situated at the Danish University of Education headed by professor Frede V. Nielsen. Included are several projects aiming to describe, analyse, problematize, and develop possibilities concerning music teacher education in Denmark related to four different institutions that educate music teachers. All the projects share three core issues of particular interest, which are a) educational content, b) the structure of music education institutions in Denmark, and c) the professionalization (the relationship between music education and its professional application).

The projects of the two authors, performed in the time scope 2004-7, focus mainly on the problem of educational content and are concerned with how the conservatories prioritize theoretical (*scientia*) and practical (*ars*) pedagogical content in their study programs. Currently students receive more practical (pedagogical) teacher training than they do theories of education. This priority is based on the specific way the conservatories understand competence/qualification, learning, identity, and general education. In relation to this focus, our main theoretical perspective is didactic in the sense, where ‘didactic analysis will ... target study content, its rational, criteria for its selection, and its potentials of application from a vocational view point’, as Frede V. Nielsen put it in a paper given at the NNMPF Conference in Stockholm 2005.

The project of Kristina Mariager Anderson, *The potential development of teaching practice at The Royal Danish Academy of Music: A discourse analytical investigation of the teachers’ concepts of learning and educational content*, explores the institutional and educational culture of The Royal Danish Academy of Music. It has a particular focus on individual teachers, their reflections on their practice and profession, and their practical teaching, and seeks to acquire knowledge about how the academy teachers imagine the ideal music teacher and how their understandings are connected to their own identity and ways of conceptualizing their profession.

The project aspires to help improve what we can call the pedagogical dimension of the music teacher study programmes. There are two aspects of the pedagogical dimension. The first concerns the history and tradition of the academy, i.e. when and how, in the academy’s 130 years, did the tradition of music pedagogics start? The second concerns the current status of the pedagogical dimension in the study programmes – and especially its *validity* as a subject in the eyes of the academy as an institution. The second aspect is studied through analysis of documents such as laws and executive orders, study programmes, teaching plans, etc., and of current teachers’ understandings and/or adaptations of the academy’s pedagogical teaching practice. In addition to the above mentioned didactical perspective, the project draws on theories of learning, discourse theory, sociological and anthropological theories.

A central aspect of the project is to develop knowledge about pedagogical practice of the academy and produce alternative perspectives on the content and structure of the study programmes. The project is faced with a variety of challenges about how to pose suitably critical questions to teachers of an established and acknowledged institution regarding a) the general nature of their teaching practice, b) its content and goal and c) how it potentially could be improved – all in both a pedagogical and a subject oriented perspective. Here a Foucault inspired discourse analysis is proving to be useful for exploring how representations of teachers' practice are being constructed in ways that seek to maintain and legitimize social practice, as it makes it possible to see how discourses make room for the communication of some perceptions of the world, while others are excluded. Central topics relates to professional identity, teaching practice, relations between teacher and institutional culture, and the role of pedagogics.

The projekt of Anders Chami, *Participation and learning: An investigation of the social practice of music teacher education at a conservatory of contemporary music (RMC)*, is an explorative study of the Rhythmic Music Conservatory, another academy for higher music teacher education in Copenhagen. The current teaching situation at the conservatory incorporates and has to deal with on the one hand a tradition for informal apprenticeship and on the other the more formal structures, rules and examinations that are general traits of higher education. This dualism forms the basis of the structuring of the conservatory as well as it plays a major role in the local environment affecting both local agents and the culture as a whole. In order to accommodate both dimensions, the project has two main foci, 1) an empirical and analytical focus on the local institution and its culture, and 2) a theoretical didactic focus.

The basic assumption of the project is that both local agents and educational practices simultaneously influence and are influenced by the current teaching situation, and the agenda is to discover ways of improving and integrating the practical and theoretical pedagogical modules of the music teacher study programs, specifically focusing on educational content. Attempting to connect and bring forth the characteristics and potential of a previously largely unexplored conservatory culture, both the experiences of local agents as well as concrete and intended educational practices make up the empirical data.

Theoretically drawing on phenomenology and the theory of situated learning the project focuses primarily on the everyday experiences of the local agents as they are experienced by the participating researcher and in interviews. With a strong student perspective the experiences of students are at the empirical forefront, but empirical data is also produced analysing local documents and by teaching conservatory students. The cultural analysis focuses on issues such as the development of identity as a musician or music teacher, how students learn the local codes and expressions, and the role of bodily experience when learning contemporary music.

Didactically a key concept is 'intention', and generally the concepts of intended educational content and unintended learning consequences are of key importance. The intended educational content that is of key concern to didactic theory is crucial when attempting to understand how to develop and improve the way the conservatory educates future music teachers, but less important in the exploration of the conservatory culture. In other words, developing educational content through didactic analysis has to be based on an analysis of the unintentional learning consequences of a conservatory culture. Intentions and potentials of local agents determine the actual possibilities for development of educational content. Only by understanding these it becomes possible to determine whether actual education content is appropriate, and how it might be improved to better qualify music teachers for future teaching situations.

Kristina Mariager Anderson & Anders Chami

SINFONIA UND CONCERTO UM 1700

Das PhD-Studium mit dem Arbeitstitel *Sinfonia und Concerto um 1700* findet am Musikwissenschaftlichen Institut der Universität Kopenhagen statt, finanziert durch ein Stipendium der Humanistischen Fakultät, und läuft von 2005 bis 2008. Es konzentriert sich hauptsächlich auf die italienische Opernsinfonie in den Jahren um etwa 1680 bis 1710, bestrebt sich aber auch Verbindungen zur Konzertmusik zu untersuchen.

Das Begriffspaar *Sinfonia* und *Concerto* bezeichnet um 1700 nicht nur gleichartige, sondern mitunter dieselben Musikstücke, je nach Kontext so oder so benannt. Konkrete Beispiele solcher Umbenennungen finden sich u.a. bei Tomaso Albinoni und Giovanni Bononcini. Formal und satztechnisch lassen sich *Sinfonia* und *Concerto* deshalb nicht unterscheiden, wohl aber ist die Terminologie keineswegs zufällig. *Sinfonia* ist eindeutig mit der Funktion des Beginnens (z.b. einer Oper oder eines Oratoriums) verknüpft, und es stellt sich deshalb die Frage, ob sich durch die funktionale Bindung der Begriffe trotz deren prinzipielle Austauschbarkeit eine bestimmte Relation zwischen *Sinfonia* und gewissen, ebenfalls funktional geprägten musikalischen Strukturen feststellen lässt.

Die Opernsinfonie um 1700 ist aus mehrerer Sicht interessant: Sie stellt den Übergang zwischen der venezianischen und der neapolitanischen Tradition dar, wobei die venezianische Opernsinfonie mit einem langsamen Teil beginnt, meistens gefolgt von einem oder mehreren Teilen wechselnden Tempos, die spätere neapolitanische dagegen dem zur Norm erhärtendem Schema schnell-langsam-schnell folgt. Gleichzeitig scheinen sich instrumentale Einleitungs- und Konzertmusik konzeptuell zu vereinen, bevor sie sich in der ersten Hälfte des 18. Jahrhunderts zu getrennten Gattungen (Symphonie und Solokonzert) entwickeln.

Begründet wird dadurch jedoch nicht nur das formale Grundmuster konzertanter und symphonischer Orchestermusik der folgenden zwei Jahrhunderte. Auch orchestrale Satzstrukturen und damit Ansätze orchestrale Denkens lassen sich erkennen, wenn auch das Instrumentalensemble der Oper noch nicht als eigentliches Orchester eingestuft werden kann. Diese orchestrale Effekte wachsen teilweise aus der funktionalen Bestimmung der Opernsinfonie hervor, der des Einleitens. Durch die Umkehrung der Tempofolge – hauptsächlich durch Alessandro Scarlatti – verlagern sich zwangsläufig ursprünglich extern gerichtete Effekte ins Satzinnere und umgekehrt, oder aber werden solche Effekte aus den langsamen, akkordischen Satzteilen in die eher konzertanten, schnellen übernommen. Das Studium soll diese mit der Tempoumkehrung verbundenen satzstrukturellen Veränderungen untersuchen und versuchsweise dem konzertanten Komponieren ein symphonisches gegenüberstellen.

Die Arbeit stützt sich weitgehend auf Quellenstudien und sieht in einem Notenanhang eine umfangreiche Edition italienischer Opernsinfonien aus dem genannten Zeitraum vor.

Axel Teich Geertinger

MUSIC IN THE TELEVISION COMMERCIAL

Music in the television commercial is the working title of my Ph.D. project at University of Aalborg (Faculty of Humanities, Institute of Communication). The project runs from 2004 until 2009 and is supported financially by the university. The overall aim of the project is to present and discuss the uses and functions of music in TV commercials, and the main question is: how is music able to attract attention and produce meaning in TV commercials? The project is inspired by several circumstances, but especially the apparent lack of ongoing and thorough research

interest, and, more specifically, recent developments within the subject area (i.e. a growing emphasis on aesthetics in market communication). The project has two broad purposes:

First: a discussion on relevant research within the area of music in TV commercials and closely related areas such as 'music in commercials' and 'music in TV and film'. This approach is needed partly because not much research has been presented in Danish on TV commercials broadcasted in Denmark and partly because the research in general – mostly of foreign origin – offers an impression of a somewhat fragmented field of research. Several research strategies and perspectives can be identified which, taken together, represent major differences in profiling the research subject (ideological implications and research methods, for instance) and integrating endeavours are very few. In the present study research from three overall branches of scholarship are integrated, namely: popular music studies (e.g. Middleton, Cook, Björnberg), film and media studies (e.g. Leeuwen, Chion) and consumer behaviour and advertisement studies (e.g. Bruner, Bode).

Second: an empirical investigation. Methods include an analysis and categorization of samples of television commercials shown on national, Danish television (TV2). Samples are chosen so as to make both diachronic and synchronic analyses possible, and in all more than 1,000 commercials are subjected to analysis and categorization. Guiding questions include the presence of the music (when and how is music present?), the characteristics of the music (which musical forms and styles are represented?), the relationship between music and other sign systems involved (in what way is music connected with pictures, texts, and other sounds such as noise and speech?) and the possible typical design of the music and its relationship to certain types of products and certain commercial formats. Out of the total sample a smaller number of distinctive and illustrative commercials will be subjected for a closer inspection. A smaller number of qualitative interviews are conducted to supplement this analysis.

For further information and for references to project-related research dissemination, see homepage www.kommunikation.aau.dk/ansatte/nicolaig/index.html.

Nicolai Jørgensgaard Graakjær

KNUD JEPPESEN – RENOWNED MUSICOLOGIST AND OVERLOOKED COMPOSER

The project *Knud Jeppesen – renowned musicologist and overlooked composer* is funded by a three-year research grant (2004-6) from the Lundbeck Foundation in Denmark, and is situated at the Department of Musicology, Institute of Aesthetic Studies at the University of Aarhus. The aim of the project is to conduct an overall investigation on Jeppesen's achievements as a musicologist as well as a composer and to plan the publication of a biography on Jeppesen.

For several decades during the twentieth century Knud Jeppesen (1892-1974) was one of the central figures of modern musicology, and his publications – among others his path breaking dissertation *Palestrinastil med særligt Henblik paa Dissonansbehandlingen* (1923), and a great many important articles and scholarly editions – did achieve a lasting, international recognition. In addition, for the greater part of his life Jeppesen was a productive composer whose works won several prizes. Nevertheless, the published bibliographies of his works, writings and editions are by no means complete, and the studies on his compositions are very few in number. When it comes to general surveys of Jeppesen's life and influences nearly nothing has been written beyond the compulsory paragraphs in dictionaries; hence, it is indicative that still the most extensive texts are a couple of obituaries written in Danish. In addition, the many documents pertaining to Jeppesen – e.g. manuscripts, compositions and correspondence – that are preserved primarily in Danish libraries and collections remain largely unknown, due to the fact that important parts of these materials still await detailed registration and cataloguing.

In general, Jeppesen's surviving collections and his private library are divided between three Danish libraries: the Royal Library in Copenhagen (the manuscripts of Jeppesen's own compositions), the State and University Library in Århus (musicological notes and manuscripts, and Jeppesen's large collection of microfilms), and the University Library of Southern Denmark (Jeppesen's collection of books and printed music). In addition, many documents pertaining to Jeppesen are scattered around several other locations in Denmark, for instance in the archives of The Royal Danish Academy of Music, the Danish Broadcasting Corporation, the Museum of Musical Instruments in Copenhagen, and in the Department of Musicology at the University of Aarhus.

An important part of the project is the study of Jeppesen's private and musicological correspondences. For instance, the two main public holdings of Jeppesen-correspondence in Denmark – the State and University Library in Århus and the Royal Library in Copenhagen – contain several hundreds letters and postcards. In addition, a hitherto unknown private collection of family correspondence belonging to Jeppesen's son, Kristian Jeppesen, former professor of archaeology at the University of Aarhus, has most kindly been at my disposal. This collection contains, among many other items, Jeppesen's correspondence with his wife, Alice, who occasionally accompanied Jeppesen on his many trips to libraries throughout Europe. On most of these occasions, though, they were apart, but staying in contact through an extensive correspondence, of which more than 1,000 postcards and letters are preserved. With very few exceptions none of the Jeppesen-related correspondences – neither public nor private, neither Danish nor international – are catalogued in any detail. Creating such a catalogue in the form of a database is just one of the necessary and relevant tasks involved in the project.

Thomas Holme Hansen

Conferences

THE LOCAL, THE REGIONAL AND THE GLOBAL, COPENHAGEN 2005

In October 2005 the conference *The Local, the Regional and the Global – in the Emergence of Popular Music Cultures* took place at the University of Copenhagen. The conference must in many ways be said to have been a success. Not only was it a possibility for scholars from the Nordic countries to get together, but there were several attendants from outside of the Nordic countries too. And, one dimension that is usually important at such conferences, it also had several key-note speakers from various countries (David Hesmondhalgh, Georgina Born, Lutgard Mutsaers, Motti Regev, Martin Stokes, and Morten Michelsen), meaning that the possibility of hearing ‘cutting-edge’ popular music researchers was there as well.

The initiative for the conference came out of the *Danish Rock Culture from the 1950s to the 1980s* project, headed by Morten Michelsen, and that initiative showed itself in several presentations. However, given that project’s focus on the local – but with a necessary correlative in the global – different questions related to these interactions were given, and it was possible to hear papers on music from more or less all around the world. Not least, in my experience, was it possible to hear presentations on rap and hip-hop from several very different cultural backgrounds, thus making – or almost demanding – the audience to start thinking about possible comparisons, and, not least, what the relations between an international or global music culture and the local incarnations of that culture might be. In other words, how the global music scene is transformed and altered when it changes locality.

These questions – that is, the relationship between the global, which by necessity includes the ways music gets distributed and mediated, and different local appropriations and transformations – must be said to be of general importance in the study of contemporary musical life. Perhaps this has always been so, and one of the historical dimensions underlined in several papers, was related to how music travels across borders. And in this travel, the music too changes, as when rap comes to Berlin or tango to Finland, to mention two of the examples I myself got to hear about. Here, the hybrid dimension of cultural change comes to the fore, as when a global music interacts with local traditions, resulting in different kinds of mixture. These questions obviously also relate to the discussion of identity, a discussion perhaps more within the mainstream of research some years ago, but still of importance, and within the framework of this conference, perhaps from a somewhat different angle. When appropriating a global music and transforming it into a local context, musicians also make a statement. This is perhaps nowhere as clear as in the different global transformations of rap and hip-hop culture; the ‘original’ context of Bronx is one of the references in this mix. However, this reference gets altered, although it seems never totally to disappear. Thus the local culture gets inflected by some global flavour, where the cultural constructions of identities get pluralized. In this, the use of music becomes important as well, not simply for the musician, but also for the community. The different rap-cultures presented at the conference at least gave me food for thought about these issues, where place, ethnicity, language, and religion (among other topics) interact in the complexity of identity-constructions. Perhaps rap here simply highlights dimensions being present in other music-cultures as well, and thus can show researchers in other musical genres too some ways to raise the questions.

Many presentations were interdisciplinary in scope, and that is, in my view, necessary when addressing the topics of the conference. There is much to learn from this meeting between different interdisciplinary approaches, and popular music studies need to address questions of media, society, culture, etc. And here approaches are by necessity taken from several academic

disciplines. One strange thing, however, at least from my perspective, was the near absence, within this interdisciplinary field, of references to musicology (that is, musicology in the more 'traditional' sense). What was presented as 'musicology' when speakers addressed the topic at all, seemed to me almost to be a caricature, and represents a 'musicology' of a bygone age. It seemed as if the 'new musicology' – now more or less a thing of the past – had never happened, whereas this discourse could be a field where interesting perspectives could be lifted from and applied with equal success within popular music studies. As Robert Fink argued, almost ten years ago, 'New Musicology is what you get when musicologists themselves become aware of the musicological problem' (Robert Fink, 'Elvis Everywhere: Musicology and Popular Music at the Twilight of the Canon', *American Music*, 16/2 (1998), 137 f.), and where 'the musicological problem' is a reference to Richard Middleton (*Studying Popular Music* (Milton Keynes, 1990), 103 ff.), and his (in Fink's view) more old-fashioned view of musicology. (It should be added that everything points to Middleton and several other scholars having caught up with more contemporary movements within 'musicology' now). Perhaps in a not too distant future it will be more common that scholars cross these institutional – and genre – boundaries, and where 'music studies' in a more general sense can benefit from each other's perspective.

I think the Danish Rock project should be pleased and satisfied with the conference. It brought together many scholars to three intense days of scholarly debate. However, there are perhaps still things to learn. One thing I noticed is that keynote presentations, no matter how good they were, tend to be only marginally related to the topic of the conference. Perhaps this is just part of what it takes to get the keynote speakers one wants. But it is a challenge worth pursuing to get the keynote speakers to address what the organizers want, and not simply whatever they would like to talk about. This, of course, does not mean that the keynote presentations were not interesting and/or challenging, but is more a question of how a conference works *tout court*.

Erik Steinskog

NORDIC MUSIC EDITIONS SYMPOSIUM, KOPENHAGEN 2005

Unter dem Titel *Nordic Music Editions Symposium* tagten am 1.-2. September 2005 Musikeditionen aus dem nordeuropäischen Raum in der Königlichen Bibliothek in Kopenhagen. Die etwa 30 Teilnehmer vertraten ein gutes Dutzend Editionen aus Dänemark, Deutschland, Estland, Norwegen und Schweden.

Das von der Carl Nielsen-Ausgabe und der Niels W. Gade-Ausgabe veranstaltete Symposium setzte seine Schwerpunkte gleichermaßen auf generelle Fragestellungen der musikalischen Edition wie auf die Präsentation der einzelnen Ausgaben.

Professor James Grier, University of Western Ontario, stellte unter dem Thema 'Authority of the Composer, Authority of the Editor' die Rolle der musikalischen Edition zur Debatte. Anhand der Beispiele Wagner und Strawinsky, die jeder auf seine Art versuchten die musikalische Interpretation ihrer Werke unter Kontrolle zu halten, argumentierte Grier für die Unumgänglichkeit editorischen Eingreifens bei der Ausgabe musikalischer Texte. Weiter setzte Grier sich für die Abkehr von der Vorstellung ein, eine Edition solle auf die Rekonstruktion ('Gedankenlesen') der Intentionen eines Komponisten abzielen. Vielmehr sei die Edition als ein historisches, nicht psychologisches Unterfangen zu verstehen. David Fanning eröffnete als Opponent die darauffolgende Diskussion.

Christopher Hogwood sprach als zweiter Hauptredner unter Einbeziehung der Erfahrungen seiner eigenen musikeditorischen Tätigkeit über die musikalische Edition aus der Sicht des

Musikers und Dirigenten. In der Frage über den oft diskutierten Gegensatz zwischen 'praktischer' und 'wissenschaftlicher' Ausgabe vertrat Hogwood die Meinung, dass nicht alle editorischen Eingriffe für den praktischen Gebrauch von gleicher Wichtigkeit sind, weshalb die umfangreichen kritischen Berichte moderner Ausgaben wichtige Informationen dem Interpreten oftmals eher verdecken als eröffnen. Das Hervorheben der die Interpretation direkt betreffenden Emendationen und Konjekturen bedeute keineswegs eine Abwertung der wissenschaftlichen Grundlage einer Edition, sondern mache im Gegenteil diese dem Benutzer gegenwärtig.

Die Standpunkte der vertretenen Ausgaben in Grundfragen der musikalischen Edition wie auch spezifische Probleme wurden durch eine Reihe von Fallstudien und Präsentationen erörtert. Berührt wurden unter anderem Themen wie die Definition und Identifikation von Parallelstellen, das Streben nach editorischer Einheitlichkeit auch in Gesamtausgaben sowie Kriterien für die Werkauswahl. Dadurch zeigte sich nicht nur die teilweise aus unterschiedlichen Umständen (Quellenlage, Zweck der Ausgabe etc.) gegebene Vielfalt der theoretischen Ansätze und editorischen Verfahren, sondern auch die Ergiebigkeit und Notwendigkeit einer ständigen Auseinandersetzung mit den Grundlagen der Edition und deren Umsatz in die Praxis.

Axel Teich Geertinger

LUTOSŁAWSKI-SYMPOSIUM I KØBENHAVN, NOVEMBER 2005

Takket være et vellykket samarbejde mellem flere danske og polske institutioner (Den polske Ambassade, Polsk Lutoslawski-Selskab, Det danske Kulturinstitut, Musikvidenskabeligt Institut ved Københavns Universitet samt Det Fynske Musikkonservatorium i Odense), kunne man i november 2005 opleve et todages symposium med fokus på den polske komponist Witold Lutosławskis (1913-1994) musik. Symposiet fandt sted den 18. og 19. november i henholdsvis København (Musikvidenskabeligt Institut) og Odense (Odense Bys Musikbibliotek). I tilknytning til symposiet havde Musikvidenskabeligt Institut et semesterkursus om 'Lutosławski og den polske modernisme' ved Michael Fjeldsøe og undertegnede.

Symposiets første dag var helliget papers fra studerende på Københavns Universitet, der blev fremlagt på engelsk og diskuteret med de indbudte forskere, Danuta Gwizdalanka, medforfatter til den nyeste store polske monografi om Lutosławski, Martina Homma, en meget flittig Lutosławski-forsker med en lang liste af bøger og publikationer om emnet, samt formanden for Lutosławski-selskabet i Warszawa, komponisten og pianisten Zygmunt Krauze, der er en mangeårig ven af komponisten.

Den næste dag, lørdag den 19. november, flyttedes begivenhederne til Odense, hvor de indbudte gæster samt komponisten Sven Erik Werner præsenterede deres indlæg. Mellem oplæggene opførtes to af Lutosławskis værker: *Dansepreludier* for klarinet og klaver og *Grave* for cello og klaver. Symposiet afsluttedes med en koncert med Zygmunt Krauze. Det var et spændende møde med værker, der er mindre kendt i Danmark, af Szymanowski, Lutosławski, Dobrowolski, Sikorski og Krauze. Specielt var det interessant, at Krauze spillede både Szymanowskis og Lutosławskis værker i sin egen version med indlagte improvisationer.

Både Krauzes og Hommas indlæg koncentrerede sig om Lutosławskis produktion i udkanten af den 'store, seriøse' musik, værker der ofte omtales som skrevet med 'venstre hånd'. Krauze præsenterede os for komponistens produktion for børn (*Bukoliki* for klaver og børnesange) samt enkelte popsange og massesange. Han konkluderede, at hos Lutosławski fandtes ingen 'sekundære værker', selv hans popsange og massesange repræsenterede et meget højt niveau. Homma tog sig af sådanne musikalske miniaturer som lejlighedsfanfarer og -hymner

og påviste, at disse 'øvelser' spillede en vigtig rolle i komponistens 'seriøse' værker, hvor de ofte medvirker til en tydeliggørelse af formen.

Gwizdalanka tog sig af det biografiske stof og præsenterede de forskellige faser af komponistens produktion. Sven Erik Werner talte om receptionen af Lutosławskis musik i Skandinavien. Han understregede bl.a. en betydelig modstand mod den såkaldte 'tredje vej' mellem Darmstadt-skolens serialisme og amerikansk minimalisme, som Lutosławskis musik var udtryk for, og tegnede en skitse over den snørklede vej, ad hvilken komponistens musik alligevel fandt indpas i de nordiske lande. For Werner personligt betød mødet med Lutosławskis musik en åbning mod en mere 'publikumsvenlig' måde at komponere på.

Symposiets diskussioner viste, at der er interesse for at beskæftige sig med Lutosławskis musik, og danske studerende kan sagtens være deres niveau bekendt, også når det foregår på engelsk og i et internationalt videnskabeligt forum.

Eva Maria Jensen

Danish Musicological Society, 2005

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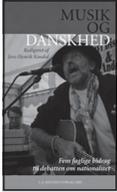
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In 2005, the main event of the Society was the one-day symposium, *Themes of musical analysis in Danish musicology*, held at the Department of Musicology, University of Aarhus, on 16 April. The programme comprised six sessions with a total of 17 papers addressing the main topic from very different angles and inspiring lively discussions. More than 60 participants joined this second symposium of the Society which also offered a concert by guitarist Erling Møldrup playing works by Danish composers. The majority of the papers was subsequently published on the Society's web-site (www.hum.au.dk/musik/dsfm/dsfm_m/dsfm1.html). The symposium was preceded by the Society's general assembly, which took place on 16 March. At this meeting the Society decided to include the subscription of *Danish Yearbook of Musicology* in the membership fee. Following the assembly, associate professor Michael Fjeldsøe gave a lecture on 'Secret CIA-money in Danish musical life? Cold war stories from the cultural frontier'. For the first time in many years a membership directory was dispatched along with the usual September letter to the members of the Society. The initial symposiums of 2004 and 2005 will be followed by a third in April 2006, this time on the issue of *Historiographic challenges to Danish musicology?* (General information on the society can be found on p. 153).

Thomas Holme Hansen

Book Reviews



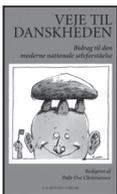
Jens Henrik Koudal (ed.), *Musik og danskhed. Fem faglige bidrag til debatten om nationalitet*

Folkemindesamlingens kulturstudier, 6; Copenhagen: C.A. Reitzel, 2005

129 pp., illus., music exx.

ISBN 87-7876-399-1

DKK 225



Palle Ove Christiansen (ed.), *Veje til danskheden. Bidrag til den moderne nationale selvforståelse*

Folkemindesamlingens kulturstudier, 8; Copenhagen: C.A. Reitzel, 2005

164 pp., illus., music exx.

ISBN 87-7876-448-3

DKK 200

Spørgsmålet om hvordan en national ideologi påvirker opfattelsen og fremstillingen af bl.a. historie, kunst og musik trænger sig på i en tid, hvor danskhed og danske værdier er aktuelle emner i den nutidige kulturdebat. Dansk Folkemindesamling går i to antologier tæt på begrebet danskhed og dannelse af national identitet gennem en række interessante bidrag, der strækker sig over flere videnskabelige discipliner.

Udgivelsen *Musik og danskhed*, der udspringer af en temadag i Dansk Folkemindesamlings regi i november 2003, retter søgelyset mod danskhedsbegrebet i relation til det, man kalder dansk musik. Antologien byder på fem spændende og grundige bidrag, der tematiserer forskellige ideer om musikalsk danskhed fra folkemusikken til 90'ere rock. I slutningen findes en udvalgt bibliografi om musik og nationalitet.

Jens Henrik Koudals bidrag 'Folkemelodiernes særegne tonefald' tager fat omkring 1800-tallets romantiske opfattelse af nationalkulturen som en uforanderlig størrelse, og han belyser, hvordan folkeviser og folkelig instrumentalmusik spiller en central rolle for skabelsen af en dansk nationalmusik. Tilgangen er klar; den tidlige danske nationalmusik er en konstruktion, der bygger på folkemusikken, men samtidig indeholder den "uforligelige modsætninger" (s. 12). Det understreges, at man ikke kan se bort fra den personlige identifikation med nationale værdier og at de elementer, der indgår i konstruktioner af nationalmusik, ikke er tilfældige. Koudal viser, hvordan A.P. Bergsgreens indsamlinger af folkeviser kom til at danne baggrund for konstruktioner af dansk national musik, mens Bergsgreens teori om en ægte national folkemusik svært lader sig bekræfte. Ifølge Koudal er det først og fremmest særpræg i folkemusikkens tekst og melodi, der genfindes som national.

Heinrich W. Schwab påpeger i teksten 'Guldalderens musik og danskhed' nogle interessante pointer omkring tidlige konstruktioner af dansk nationalmusik, der blev båret frem af komponister fra Tyskland som bekendte sig til en "kosmopolitisk nationalitet" (s. 62). Senere blev komponistens nationale fødested afgørende for forestillingen om, hvem der kunne komponere 'ægte national musik'. Opfattelsen skinner igennem i B.S. Ingemanns brev til Niels W. Gade i Leipzig, hvor Ingemann beder Gade om at komme tilbage til landet, således at Kuhlau og Weyse kunne erstattes af "virkelige danske Tonekunstnere" (s. 62). Man bliver nogle gange i tvivl om, hvordan forfatteren står i forhold til det spørgsmål, han stiller centralt: Kan musik

være national? På den ene side fastslås det, at det er receptionen af musikken og den 'folkelige' identifikation af den som national, der er udslagsgivende for opfattelsen af musikken. På den anden side defineres "nordisk farvetone" som "eksistensen af enkelte træk" og "fine melodiske, rytmiske og harmoniske karakteristika ... i den nordiske folkemusik" (s. 65). Disse er dog, som det påpeges, kendt som universelle musikalske træk. Til sidst slås det imidlertid fast, at musik *kan* være national og at "den nationale tone i musikken" er alt andet end en fiktion" (s. 72).

Bidraget 'Det driver af danskhed' af Annemette Kirkegaard tager fra en musiketnologisk indgangsvinkel afsæt i populærmusikkens selvforståelse i relation til begrebet danskhed. Hvordan populærmusikere forhandler og skaber en musikalsk national identitet i deres kompositioner er analysens fokus. Den omhandler bl.a. sanger og komponist Nanna Lüders' nykomponering af 'Der er et yndigt land', hvor der "veksles ... mellem lag i musikken, som klart og tydeligt påkalder sig en dansk identitet" og lag, der "refererer til det fremmede" (s. 92), bl.a. i form af rock- og countrykendetegn i nummeret. I teksten skelnes der klart mellem definitioner af national identitet som en menneskeskabt størrelse og opfattelsen af national identitet som en kerne i musikken. En vigtig pointe er, "ikke at forveksle definitioner af forskellighed og diversitet med essenstænkning" (s. 81), hvor national identitet forstås som noget "iboende og konkret i det musikalske materiale" (s. 82). Et eksempel på bredden i definitioner af musikalsk danskhed viser Kirkegaard med såkaldt unge danskeres identifikation af popgruppen Outlandish som "'vores' musik" (s. 95).

Bogen byder på yderligere to indlæg, Martin Zerlangs 'Folketoner ...', der behandler forestillinger om en national musik, som de kommer til udtryk i B.S. Ingemanns roman *Landsbybørnene*, og Kirsten Sass Baks bidrag 'Fællessang og danskhed'. Kirsten Sass Bak belyser, hvordan sammenkoblinger af fællessang og danskhed finder sted i 1800-tallet og ser det som det sted, hvor nationalismen "træder ud af en ensidig rolle som magthavernes ideologi" og "bliver mere 'folkelig'" (s. 101).

Hvordan den moderne nationale selvforståelse opstod er et centralt spørgsmål i udgivelsen *Veje til danskheden*. I et – i forhold til *Musik og danskhed* – bredere syn på nationaliseringsprocessers virkning bringer bogen bidrag om nationalismens indflydelse på oldtidsforskning, historievidenskaben og formningen af et universitært kunsthistoriefag. Desuden behandles nationalismens indvirkning på konstruktioner af musikalsk danskhed i starten af 1800-tallet og opdagelsen af en 'national' folkekultur.

Bidragene afdækker bl.a. hvordan en national ideologi har haft virkning på en lang række felter, og på hvordan ideologiske historiekonstruktioner har dannet baggrund for opfattelsen af nationen som et urgammelt fænomen. Her omtaler jeg blot et udvalg af bidragene. Bl.a. afdækker Jørgen Jensen i sit bidrag 'Arkæologien. Da oldtidsforskningen blev national', hvordan en ny generation af oldtidsforskere i 1840'erne under påvirkning af en national ideologi gjorde Danmark "*dansk* helt tilbage til den ældste oldtid" (s. 19). Et litterært hovedværk af oldtidsforskeren J.J.A. Worsaae fra 1843 er således "gennemsyret af et ubevidst ønske om at tilbageføre 1800-tallets nationalitetsideal på oldtiden" (s. 19). Hans Wammens artikel tematiserer nogle vigtige aspekter i forholdet mellem statsmagt, ideologi og (historie)videnskab og belyser, hvordan en bestemt national udlægning af historien benyttes til at legitimere en dominerende politisk magt. Jens Henrik Koudal har undersøgt definitioner af danskhed og dens ideologiske forudsætninger med vægt på perioden 1760-1860. Han påviser bl.a. hvordan A.P. Berggreen tilskriver folkeviserne danskhed på baggrund af et ideologisk folkevisebegreb og viser, hvordan opfattelsen af, at man i de middelalderlige folkevisemelodier fandt et musikalsk-nationalt særpræg blev grundlaget for ideen om dansk-national kunstmusik, bl.a. i form af Niels W. Gades *Efterklange af Ossian* fra 1840 og *1. symfoni* fra 1842. Palle Ove Christiansen bringer et indlæg om den ændrede betydning, folkekulturen blev tillagt ved skabelsen af en nationalkultur i den tidlige moderne nationsdannelsesproces.

Begge antologier kommer med bidrag, der klargør, hvordan nationalismen har virket på måden at tænke, forstå og fremstille historie, musik, kultur og fortid på. Danskheden og det nationale er hverken en ren konstruktion eller et ældgammelt fænomen, erklærer forfatterne. Det nationale bygger på et i forvejen eksisterende kulturelt og historisk materiale, der tillægges nationale karaktertræk. Dermed lægger antologierne sig overordnet set i forlængelse af de nyeste nationalismeteoridannelser, der med den engelske nationalismeforsker Anthony D. Smith i front har korrigeret det såkaldt moderne nationalismeparadigmets opfattelse af nationen som en ren konstruktion. Inden for det etno-symbolistiske paradigme, som Smith betegner sin egen tilgang, lægges der vægt på, hvordan et kulturelt materiale, der er i dialog med det man kalder en europæisk tradition, approprieres i en nationalkulturel selvforståelse. Bidragene er vigtige for sondringen mellem begrebet danskhed som en del af den oplevede virkelighed og de forhold, der historisk set lader sig afdække. Desuden lægges der i flere af bidragene eksplicit vægt på, at danskheden og national identitet skal anerkendes som gyldige fænomener, der både manifesterer sig gennem menneskers identifikation med det nationale og gennem følelser af nationalt tilhørsforhold.

Antologierne belyser fra flere vinkler hvordan musik, historie og kultur er blevet anvendt inden for en national ideologi. Begge udfordrer de i kraft af de saglige og indsigtsfulde bidrag snævre opfattelser af komplekse begreber som danskhed og national identitet og kan indgå som velfunderede med- og modspil i en nutidig kulturdebat. Samtidig er de vigtige kilder til forståelse af, hvordan den moderne nationalisme har haft en afgørende betydning for forhold og opfattelser, der i dag kan forekomme selvfølgelige.

Fie Skovsbog Thaning



Mogens Friis, *Brikker til musikkens historie i Århus indtil ca. 1800*

Århus: MUSA-print, 2005

224 pp., illus., music exx.

ISBN 87-984344-1-1

DKK 230

Mogens Friis' *Brikker til musikkens historie i Århus indtil ca. 1800* føjer sig til den stigende mængde af lokale, regionale, tematiske eller andre typer af afgrænsede musikhistorier, som dels i sig selv har en umiddelbar berettigelse, dels udgør forskellige indspil i forhold til de overvejelser, som kunne gøres – og i stigende omfang bliver gjort? – vedrørende en eventuel ny, samlet dansk musikhistorie. Og som sådan skal den hilses velkommen. Med bogens fremkomst er det nu sådan, at hvis man på Google indtaster søgeordene “Århus” og “musikhistorie”, så er det – selvfølgelig – Mogens Friis' bog, som toner frem som noget af det første. Desuden er de fleste omtaler i presse og fagblade generelt anerkendende og ikke mindst anbefalende. Mange vil derfor sikkert købe bogen eller låne den med hjem fra et bibliotek. Den er blevet ‘budet’ på sagen. Der er imidlertid tale om en meget modsætningsfyldt og bestemt ikke uproblematisk fremstilling, som giver anledning til overvejelser af såvel generel som mere specifik art, også selvom der ifølge bogens forfatter ikke er tale om en videnskabelig udgivelse.

I korte træk: Mogens Friis har valgt overordnet at opdele bogen i nogle hovedtematikker, nærmere bestemt kirkerne, katedralskolen, stadsmusikanter, noder og instrumenter, som hver især behandles diakront, dvs. fra det tidligste tidspunkt, hvorfra skriftlige vidnesbyrd er overleveret, og indtil omkring 1800. Hertil kommer en række mindre afsnit, som belyser andre aspekter såsom “Byens trommeslagere” og “Musik ved kongebesøg”. Ud over selve fremstillin-

gen indeholder bogen et fyldigt bilagsmateriale, forskellige oversigter, personregister og litteraturliste, som tilsammen optager en tredjedel af sideomfanget. Bogen fremstår pæn og indbydende med adskillige figurer og illustrationer, heraf flere i flot farvegengivelse – lidt i stil med de senere års række af musik(historie)bøger fra forlaget Systeme.

Det mest imponerende ved fremstillingen er kildematerialets karakter, variation og omfang. Udover en stor og varieret mængde trykte kilder henvises der til og citeres flittigt fra forskelligt håndskriftligt materiale såsom kæmnerregnskaber, justits-, borgerskabs-, skifte- og politiprotokoller, auktionskataloger, kirkebøger, forskellige registre, kirke- og skoleregnskaber, inventarielister, Kancelliets brevøger, folketællinger, dagbøger, osv. – alt sammen hentet fra utallige biblioteker, arkiver og samlinger, offentlige såvel som private –, altså materiale som altid kræver megen tid og meget knofedt at finde frem til, arbejde sig ind på og få resultater ud af. Hvis den store pålangsgående historie om musiklivet i Århus skal skrives på den helt omfattende, alle-sten-vendende måde, så har Mogens Friis tilsyneladende foretaget langt de fleste indledende manøvrer. Hatten af for den indsats.

Udover bilagsmaterialet, som for størstepartens vedkommende er afskrifter af håndskriftlige kilder (fx auktionsprotokoller og musik(er)relaterede retsager fra Århus bys tingbøger), får læseren til stadighed de skiftende tiders sprogbrug serveret i kraft af hyppige citater, som væver sig ind i teksten. Selvom der bestemt kan være vanskeligheder med at forstå det gammel-danske skriftsprog – som kun alt for sjældent ‘oversættes’ til moderne dansk – så medfører disse citater, at fremstillingen bliver både nærværende og ‘autentisk’, og sine steder også ret barsk og underholdende, som fx i tilfældet med orgelbyggeren Benjamin Wulff, som i 1747 påbegyndte en reparation af domkirkeorglet, men som ifølge kirkebogen “d. 2. Dec blev af Torden ihjelslagen paa Orgelverket i Domkirken, ... hvor de 2. som vare hos hannem fik og nogen Skade, den ene paa foden, hvor Støvlen blev afbrændt, den anden blev gandske döv et par dage” (s. 30). I det hele taget fortæller Mogens Friis meget interessant og – må man formode – meget hidtil relativt ukendt om musiklivet i Århus, og til bogens positive sider må tillige regnes en del udmærkede og oplysende oversigter, fx over byens organister (s. 37) og stadsmusikanter (s. 53ff.), over Ræhs og Smidt slægten (s. 147), og over kantorerne ved Århus Domkirke (s. 205ff.). Samtidig lægger Friis på det redeligste kortene på bordet, når kildematerialet (alligevel) ikke giver et fuldstændigt billede men derimod fordrer yderligere forskning. Dette er fx tilfældet i afsnittet om stadsmusikanten Morten Ræhs (s. 69-82) – et af bogens bedste og mest informative – hvor Friis ikke har kunnet finde tilstrækkelig information om Ræhs’ ophold i England 1732 (s. 72), samt i redegørelsen for Grev Danneskiold-Samsøes nodesamling, hvor bl.a. en mere udførlig identifikation af samlingens komponister og værker mangler (s. 127), og mht. skifterne efter århuskøbmændene, hvor “en systematisk gennemgang ... måske [kunne] give et billede af deres udbud af musikinstrumenter” (s. 133).

Og så til det mere modsætningsfyldte og problematiske. I forbindelse med læsningen vendte jeg flere gange tilbage til bogens forord, især for at få svar på ét spørgsmål: Hvem er bogen skrevet til? Publikationens imødekommende ‘design’ og forordets udmelding: “Bogen er ikke tænkt som en egentligt videnskabelig udgivelse” (s. 7) står i et grelt modsætningsforhold til et fodnoteapparat, som i hvert fald antalmæssigt ligger i disputatsklassen: knap 600 stk. på knap 150 sider, og som må forekomme møllestenstungt på alle andre end netop videnskabsfolk. Det samme gør sig gældende med bilagsmaterialet, som er tungt og uformidlet. I betragtning af, at læseren igen og igen føres igennem Århus på gadeniveau, og på tilsvarende måde får at vide, hvad alting kostede og hvad folk fik i løn, hvorfor indeholder bogen så ikke et kort over Århus samt en forklaring af tidens møntfødder, osv. (de sporadiske tiltag i så henseende, fx note 195, forvirrer mere end de forklarer). Hvis Mogens Friis havde afmonteret hele dette akademiske apparat, lagt sig lidt mere i selen mht. at

strukturere og formidle stoffet, samt kælet lidt mere for bogens populærvidenskabelige 'appeal', så ville der formodentlig kunne være kommet en rigtig læsevenlig og -værdig 'Århus-historie' ud af det, som mange ville kunne have stor fornøjelse af. Selvom bogen selvfølgelig ikke skal dømmes på et grundlag, som den selv fraskriver sig, er det svært ikke også at vurdere dette apparat, al den stund at Friis gør brug af det igennem hele fremstillingen. Om forfatteren omvendt kunne have forvandlet den foreliggende publikation til en gennemført videnskabelig afhandling, er dog nok tvivlsomt.

På det formelle, organisatoriske, 'akademiske' niveau indeholder bogen nemlig så mange unndladelssynder og fejl, at det ville være en smal sag at skyde den helt i sænk. De følgende eksempler er blot nogle få udvalgte. På det overordnede niveau bærer fremstillingen præg af, at forfatteren har haft store problemer med at strukturere og fordele stoffet. Dette giver sig bl.a. udslag i, at sekvenser i fremstillingen gentages slavisk, og at den samme historie fortælles flere steder, tilsyneladende 'med skyklapper på'. Om kongens besøg i Århus hedder det således, at "i selve Århus boede han på Århus Gård hos bispen" (s. 11), "i Århus ... logerede han indtil reformationen hos den katolske biskop" (s. 40), samt "når kongen besøgte Århus, boede han i bispegården" (s. 44). I fodnote 466 oplyses man om, at "Statsbiblioteket i Århus har et eksemplar af Skonnings tryk af Gradualet [Jesperssøns]", en information som genfindes næsten ordret et par sider senere (s. 114). Gotfred Bøhm er hovedperson i redegørelsen for organisterne ved Vor Frue Kirke s. 19-24, hvorefter historien om samme person påbegyndes igen s. 116 ff. med adskillige gentagelser (både fig. 8 og fig. 34 bringer facsimiler fra skifteprotokollen), men uden interne henvisninger.

Lige så megen ros, som kildematerialet har fået, lige så stor kritik skal lyde af Friis' håndtering af samme. Antallet af 'besværlige' (håndskriftlige) kilder taget i betragtning ville det have været yderst relevant med en form for kilderedegørelser, altså beskrivelser af de forskellige kildetypers omfang, 'eksistensperiode', overlevering, osv., samt i hvilket omfang, forfatteren har gennemgået kilden. Og under alle omstændigheder må en omhyggelig liste over materialet være et minimumskrav. Der er ingen meldinger i så henseende fra Mogens Friis' side, og fra start til slut er man i tvivl om, hvor mange protokoller, kirkebøger og registre fra hvilke perioder, han reelt har gennemgået. Hertil kommer at listen over litteratur og utrykte kilder (s. 221-24) er mangelfuld og i betænkelig grad savner nødvendige bibliografiske oplysninger. Eksemplerne er legio, men fx mangler Bengt Johnssons *Den danske skolemusiks historie indtil 1739*, som Friis refererer til adskillige gange (fx note 35), og adskillige titler mangler årstal. At den franske musikteoretiker Mersenne i forbindelse med sin *L'Harmonie universelle* (1636) udstyres med fornavnet Peter, kan man så trække på smilebåndet af. Listen afsluttes med en besynderlig rodebunke bl.a. indeholdende "Danmarks Riges Breve", "Die Musik in Geschichte und Gegenwart" samt "Marselisborg Bircheting" uden anden information end de blotte titler. Alt dette bevirker, at selvom fremstillingen jo i mere end høj grad underbygges af kildereferencer i fodnoterne, så er man hele tiden lidt i tvivl om 'ægtheden', repræsentativiteten, præcisionen og korrektheden.

Den samme kritik gælder Friis' anvendelse af hjemmelavede bibliografiske forkortelser. Fodnoterne er spækket med dem, de indeholder ingen umiddelbar information (dvs. at man hele tiden skal konsultere forkortelseslisten s. 6) og kunne lige så godt være erstattet af et par 'signalnættede' ord. Hertil kommer de forkortelser, som ikke findes forklaret nogetsteds. Musikkyndige kan sikkert dechifrere "MGG" (fx s. 116 f.), "RISM" (fx s. 180 ff.) og måske også "MMCCS" (fx note 568), men hvad med alle de andre læsere? Personligt regner jeg med, at "LAV" betyder Landsarkivet i Viborg, og at "FT" betyder folketælling – men helt sikker kan jeg jo ikke være. Og hvad med "EA" (note 75): Erhvervsarkivet i Århus?

Relevansen af, at en af bogens vægtigste fodnoter (361) drejer sig om vikingernes belejring af Paris i 885-86, er svær at få øje på, og det samme gælder mange andre aspekter af bogen.

Der savnes interne henvisninger mellem relaterede tekstafsnit og mellem de mange bilag/oversigter og teksten. Der er alt for mange 'uprovokerede' fejl, fx "MGG"/"MMG" (s. 117), "DK ÅÅ"/"DK ÅM" (s. 131), "Engum"/"Engom" (s. 137). Der mangler kildehenvisninger ved adskillige citater og figurer. Alt i alt: bogen fremstår desværre ikke som et helt færdigarbejdet produkt – og stadigvæk reterer spørgsmålet: hvem er målgruppen?

Jeg er helt enig med Mogens Friis i, at der – som titlen siger – er tale om *brikker* til musikkens historie i Århus – og for en stor dels vedkommende meget væsentlige brikker –, men som helhed betragtet må publikationen betegnes som en hybrid, idet den springer i det nok så ofte nævnte tomrum mellem to stole, mellem en letlæst populærvidenskabelig fremstilling med bred appeal og en stringent videnskabelig dokumentationshistorie. Desværre. Begge dele ville være yderst velkomne, både for Århus' vedkommende og i flere andre lokale og nationale henseender. Men et kendskab til det relevante kildemateriale på niveau med Mogens Friis' tager år at oparbejde, og hvem går igang med den opgave, når der nu allerede foreligger et bud på sagen? På forespørgslen om en bog om Århus' musikliv må bibliotekarer og boghandlere i hvert fald en tid fremover lange Mogens Friis' bog over disken, og det er lidt synd – både for historien om musiklivet i Århus og for læserne.

Thomas Holme Hansen



Inger Sørensen, *H.C. Andersen og komponisterne*

København: Gyldendal, 2005

160 pp.

ISBN 87-02-03480-8

DKK 169



Mogens Wenzel Andreasen, *H.C. Andersen & musikken*

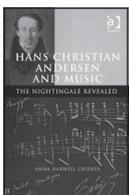
København: Bazar, 2005

128 pp., illus.

ISBN 87-7604-037-2

incl. 1 CD, *H.C. Andersen & musikken*, Tokomo Nakatashi, pno., Classcd 619

DKK 199



Anna Harwell Celenza,

Hans Christian Andersen and Music: The Nightingale Revealed

Aldershot: Ashgate, 2005

269 pp.

ISBN 0-7546-0140-4

£ 45

200-året for H.C. Andersens fødsel har klart nok givet anledning til en omfattende forsknings- og udgivelsesaktivitet med digteren i centrum. Derfor er det også glædeligt, at der er udkommet flere bøger om hans forhold til musik, som netop var så vigtig en del af hans tilværelse. Ikke mindre end tre er det blevet til, og de er næsten lige så forskellige som de udgivelser, der i forvejen fandtes på området.

Helt tilbage i 1930 gjorde musikskribenten og anmelderen Gustav Hetsch et stort arbejde med at samle vidnesbyrd om Andersens forhold til musikken og dens kunstnere med mange citater fra dagbøger, erindringer, arkivalier og breve. Det blev til bogen *H.C. Andersen og*

Musiken, hvor han til slut opregner en lang række komponisters behandling af Andersens tekster, dog næsten i listeform.

Senere er der kommet mange specialstudier, ikke mindst om musikken til de dramatiske værker. I 1996 skrev Andersen-forskeren, dr.phil. Johan de Mylius artiklen 'Hans Christian Andersen and the Music World', en fin engelsksproget indføring i musikken til Andersens værker, hans egen musiksmag og hans forhold til tidens komponister. Således var der mulighed også for udlændinge til at danne sig et overblik over emnet. Artiklen blev bragt i Sven Hakon Rossel (ed.), *Hans Christian Andersen. Danish writer and citizen of the world* (Amsterdam, 1996).

Endelig udgav musikforskeren, dr.phil. Tove Barfoed Møller i 1995 sin disputats med titlen *Teaterdigteren H.C. Andersen og "Meer end Perler og Guld". En dramaturgisk-musikalsk undersøgelse*. Som man kan se af undertitlen, er forfatteren her gået i dybden med samspillet mellem det dramatiske og det musikalske, og selv om bogen vidner om et omfattende kendskab til H.C. Andersens forhold til musik generelt, så holder den sig klart nok til sit angivne fokus.

Det er på denne baggrund, at de tre nyudgivelser skal ses, og man må sige, at de er nye, supplerende brikker i det samlede mønster til beskrivelse af digterens forhold til denne anden kunstart. Og der er meget at sige, for Andersen var næsten dagligt i kontakt med musikken, og den greb ind i mange andre forhold i hans liv. Samtidig er hans interesse utrolig vel-dokumenteret i arkivalier, som efterhånden er tilgængelige i trykte udgaver og på nettet. Opgaven er at vælge blandt de mange mulige citater.

Inger Sørensens *H.C. Andersen og komponisterne* er en rigtig lækkerbissen. Dens overordnede baggrundsidé må være H.C. Andersens store stambog (som han kaldte *Album*), hvor alle de personligheder han mødte bidrog med et digt, en tegning, et nodeblad eller et foto med personlig tilegnelse. Sørensens bog er rigt og relevant illustreret med billeder af digteren, komponisterne og de omtalte værker og steder, krydret med Andersens papirklip. Alle i smukke farvegengivelser og nogle indsat på skrå som i en scrapbog. Den omfattende billedliste vidner om stor research på området. Hver af de seks beskrevne komponister er trykt på sin egen papirfarve, som sammen med det mindre kvadratiske format gør bogen uhyre indbydende.

Heldigvis svarer indholdet til layoutet. I en meget kort indledning gøres der rede for Andersens forhold til en lang række musikpersonligheder. Baggrunden for udvælgelsen af de seks komponister, som bogen omhandler, er digterens personlige venskab med dem. Samtidig er der tale om kendte navne for et dansk publikum: C.E.F. Weyse, J.P.E. Hartmann, Niels W. Gade, Clara og Robert Schumann, Felix Mendelssohn Bartholdy og Franz Liszt, alle undtagen Weyse fra Andersens egen generation. Vi bevæger os således hele tiden i et romantisk univers, som forfatteren også via sine mange andre udgivelser er godt hjemme i. Det kan blive lidt rigeligt detaljeret som i beskrivelsen af Hartmanns mange undskyldninger for de manglende svarbreve, og der kan også være måske lidt for hurtige konstateringer som i omtalen af Andersens besøg hos sin tyske oversætter A. Chamisso: "Fra det øjeblik, hvor han ringede på Chamissos gadedør i Berlin, og denne selv åbnede, forstod de to hinanden" (s. 109).

Men ellers er teksten solidt grundet i et kendskab til komponisterne, og der er tale om fin og interessant formidling. Derudover kan man læse nogle nyheder, så som at der ikke bare var en men to opførelser af operaen *Liden Kirsten* i Weimar i 1856 (s. 154). Sørensen bringer også enkelte steder nye teser til torvs som muligheden af, at Mozarts søn var tilstede hos Siboni den aften i 1819, da Andersen henvendte sig her, og derfor kan have mødt digteren.

Bogen kan således anbefales til enhver, der vil have et velfunderet kendskab til Andersens forhold til samtidens kendteste komponister med et udblik, så man også får et lidt mere generelt indtryk af digterens forhold til tidens musikliv.

Titlen på Mogens Wenzel Andreasens bog *H.C. Andersen og musikken* er den samme som hos Hetsch, og sigtet med de to udgivelser er da også på mange måder ens. I forordet skriver Andreasen, at bogen “er ikke udtømmende eller alt omfattende, men er blot ment som en vejviser ind på et område, som indtil nu ikke har været særlig flittigt belyst”. Den falder i to dele, den ene om Andersens tidligste musikalske udfoldelser samt hans danske og udenlandske musikvenner, den anden om komponisternes musik til hans tekster.

Ligesom Sørensen centrerer Mogens Wenzel Andreasen sin beskrivelse omkring forholdet til tidens komponister, men også omkring Andersens beundring for virtuoser som sangerinderne Maria Malibran og Jenny Lind samt violinisten Ole Bull og pianisten Sigismond Thalberg. På den måde får man et bredt billede af Andersens musikalske relationer.

Forfatteren vil ofte gerne give både en generel indføring i de nævnte kunstners liv og værk og en beskrivelse af deres forhold til Andersen. Det er der ikke altid plads til, og det fører nogle steder til lidt for generelle udsagn. Når man om familien Schumann kan læse, at “Ægteskabet blev lykkeligt, Clara Schumann fødte otte børn, men gennemførte alligevel sin karriere, der gjorde hende europæisk berømt” (s. 57), så kan det vel nuanceres lidt mere. Andre steder omtales faktorer, som måske kunne være udeladt, hvis pladsen var knap. Således får Gustav Helsted en kort introduktion, men hans forhold til Andersen nævnes til eksempel ikke (s. 35).

Der er dog mange fine oplysninger i bogen, og især anden halvdel kan man med fordel bruge som opslagsværk. Her beskrives værkerne efter genre, men da der også flere steder inkluderes komponistbiografier, er der til tider nogen overlappning. Nogle af værkomtalerne beskriver stykkerne handlingsmæssigt eller musikalsk, mens andre blot nævner titlerne. Men antallet af nævnte værker er stort, mange er nye og supplerer på udmærket måde Hetsch med bl.a. de ting, der er skrevet efter 1930, ikke mindst det afsluttende kapitel om en række planlagte værker i 2005.

Med alle de informationer kan det ikke undgås, at der kommer nogle fejl rundt omkring. J.P.E. Hartmanns første hustru hed ikke Sophie, men Emma (s. 27), Weyse var ikke ansat i Garnisonskirken, men i den Reformerte Kirke før Vor Frue Kirke (s. 20), og Weyse hørte *Don Giovanni* på det Kongelige Teater i 1807, ikke 1809 (s. 20). Robert Schumann var ikke med sin hustru Clara i København i 1842, men rejste hjem forinden (s. 56).

Nogle steder kunne man endvidere ønske sig yderligere oplysninger, selv om det er klart – som der også angives i bogen – at listen over kompositioner ikke kan være udtømmende. Under omtalen af Edvard Griegs sange (s. 100) kunne man ønske en omtale af hans op. 18, der dog indeholder seks sange med Andersen-tekster, og danske Sebastian fortjener bl.a. at få musikken til musicalen *Hans Christian Andersen* (Gladsaxe Teater, 1996) nævnt. Ligeledes savner man på litteraturlisten de tre udgivelser, som er nævnt i indledningen til denne anmeldelse.

Der er vedlagt en cd til bogen, hvor den japansk fødte, men i Danmark boende pianist Tomoko Nakatashi har samlet en række danske klaverstykker, som man ellers ikke hører så ofte, og som derfor er interessante som eksempler på den musikalske H.C. Andersen-overlevering uden tekst.

Bogen kunne med fordel have fået en afsluttende gennemlæsning, så overlappninger etc. kunne være undgået, men alt i alt giver den et udmærket indblik i en lang række af H.C. Andersens berøringsflader med musik, og den bidrager som en udmærket opslagsbog med informationer om musikken til mange af digterens værker.

Anna Harwell Celenzas biografi *Hans Christian Andersen and Music. The Nightingale Revealed* har derimod helt klart et forskningsmæssigt sigte. Hun har fra tidligere udgivelser et indgående kendskab til tidens danske musik og litteratur, og hendes ærinde er at opnå en forståelse for 1800-talles musikkultur og modtagelsen af den gennem Andersen som publikum, musikkender, kritikere og æstet. Man kan klart se, at hun har medtaget den væsentligste litteratur og frekventeret de relevante arkivsamlinger for at vælge mellem det enorme materiale. Teksten er da også underbygget med et stort antal citater fra Andersen og andre, fra fiktive og ikke-fiktive værker.

Bogen er næsten helt igennem på engelsk. Det betyder, at også citaterne er oversat (enkelte digte dog også med gengivelse af den danske tekst). Det giver en meget velkommen mulighed for udlændinge til at orientere sig i dette stof. Nogle af teksterne har forfatteren selv oversat, andre er taget næsten direkte fra kendte oversættelser. Forfatteren berører selv spørgsmålet om oversættelserne, og hvor ordrette de er. For det meste er der dog tale om præcise gengivelser på engelsk, men enkelte steder støder man dog på upræcise oversættelser f.eks. s. 31 “et Helt” (dvs. en helhed) bliver til “a hero” og s. 45 “Ære” oversættes ved “Air”. Det hører dog til undtagelserne.

Mellem de seks hovedkapitler er indsat oversatte dele af eller hele Andersen-tekster, der relaterer sig til kapitlerne. Her bringes en række mindre kendte værker, som medvirker til at give et førstehåndsindtryk af en anden person en eventyrdigteren. Fin ide.

Hvert kapitel har en overskrift med en funktion, der relaterer til Andersen: Improvisatoren, Virtuosen, Patrioten eller Tonedigteren. Og hermed er nogle af temaerne slået an. Gennem sine værker – såvel eventyr og digte som rejseskildringer og æstetiske kritikker – virker Andersen som mediator dels for generelle strømninger og meninger om tidens musikliv, dels for iscenesættelsen af sin egen livshistorie. Hele kapitlet om digterens forhold til Weimar, dens fyrstefamilie og dens kulturfyrste Franz Liszt er spændende læsning om Andersens indlemelse i et udenlandsk kulturprojekt og alligevel opbremsning over for udviklingen af det. Digteren anvender ofte selvbiografiske træk i sine værker, og det giver ham også mulighed for at sammenligne sig med en anden type skabende kunstnere, nemlig musikere og at udtrykke sine ideer gennem musikalske scener i teksterne. Flere af de større værker som *Kun en Spillemand* ses i dette lys. Også hele komplekset omkring Andersens patriotiske kontra hans kosmopolitiske orientering koblet sammen med komedier til Casino og deres musikvalg er meget interessant læsning sammen med hele hans forhold til Richard Wagner.

Der er ingen tvivl om, at forfatterens hjerte også brænder for litteraturhistorie. Derfor er der mange afsnit, som sætter teksterne ind i en bredere sammenhæng, hvor man dog til slut ser disse afsnit som baggrund for en musikalsk pointe. For mig er det spændende, således at få sat musikken ind i et større kulturelt perspektiv, for andre kan det virke som lidt lange digressioner. Et interessant træk er f.eks. sammenligningen mellem Andersens og Heinrich Heines anmeldelser og perspektivet omkring 1800-tallets virtuose koncertkadence og den fablerende afslutning på disse kritikker.

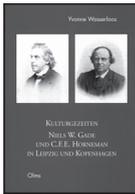
Bogen er tænkt som et grundigt indlæg i Andersen-forskningen med sine små typer og ikke så mange billeder, men til gengæld omfattende noter. Men den vil også kunne læses af andre interesserede, både i enkeltkapitler som et aspekt af digterens musikalske relationer og som fortløbende tekst, der alligevel udgør en kronologi og udvikling i hans liv og musiksyn. Til gengæld er det ikke alle musikalske værker, der får en grundig gennemgang. Der er klart nok tale om en selektion, som understøtter de temaer, forfatteren har valgt, og som selvfølgelig kan diskuteres. Således omtales operaen *Liden Kirsten* næsten kun i forbindelse med opsætningen i Weimar, hvorimod dens rolle i dansk tradition stort set ikke berøres.

Ganske få skønhedspletter har sneget sig ind, som enkelte trykfejl i de danske titler samt f.eks. at Andersen så Johan Bartholdys opera *Dyveke* i 1820-21. Den blev først skrevet i 1890'erne,

men der er i stedet tale om Ole Johan Samsøes skuespil af samme navn fra 1795. Men det kan på ingen måde forstyrre billedet af en meget interessant og perspektivrig bog, som hilses velkommen ved yderligere at muliggøre kendskab til dette særlige aspekt ved Andersen også for udlændinge.

Andersens forhold til musik er således belyst fra flere sider i de tre udgivelser, som alle kan læses med udbytte af såvel musikfaglige som andre kulturinteresserede personer. De to første er klart tænkt som formidling af stoffet til en bredere kreds, mens Celenzas bog også fører forskningen et stort skridt videre på området.

Anne Ørbæk Jensen



Yvonne Wasserloos, *Kulturzeiten. Niels W. Gade und C.F.E. Horneman in Leipzig und Kopenhagen*

Studien und Materialien zur Musikwissenschaft, 36;

Hildesheim, Zürich and New York: Georg Olms, 2004

630 pp., music exx. ISBN 3-487-12599-4

EUR 84

Denne bog er, selv om det ikke fremgår tydeligt, Yvonne Wasserloos' afhandling (dissertation) fra 2002, som er udkommet i Georg Olms Verlags musikvidenskabelige serie. Det står derfor heller ikke klart i hvor høj grad bogen er en redigeret udgave af afhandlingen. Bogen er et bidrag til en aktuel interesse for den musikalske forbindelse mellem Danmark og Tyskland igennem tiderne. Selvom der er kommet flere danske bidrag fra de senere år på det musikvidenskabelige område, må det nok erkendes, at initiativet og interessen er størst fra tysk side. Bogen bærer da også præg af, at den er skrevet i en tysk akademisk tradition kendetegnet ved grundighed og en beundringsværdig evne til at systematisere stoffet, som i dette tilfælde er omfattende.

Med udgangspunkt i musikulturen i Leipzig i det 19. århundrede handler bogen om den dansk-tyske forbindelse mellem København og Leipzig personificeret gennem komponisterne Niels W. Gade og C.F.E. Horneman. Wasserloos har valgt en fremgangsmåde, hvor hun begynder med at redegøre for de samfundsmæssige forhold i tiden samt Leipzigs og Københavns musikhistorie (afsnit II), hvorefter læseren via et afsnit om konservatoriet i Leipzig (afsnit III) ledes frem til afhandlingens egentlige studieobjekt, nemlig henholdsvis Gades og Hornemans liv og levned i Leipzig og København (afsnit IV og V). Men derudover er det vanskeligt at gennemskue Wasserloos' metodiske tilgang. Hun kommer ikke nærmere ind på den bortset fra en beskrivelse af hvordan hun har benyttet kilderne (s. 29f.). Bogen fremstår derfor som en blanding af socialhistorie, institutionshistorie, personhistorie og stilhistorie krydret med lidt receptionsanalyse.

Alene bogens fysiske omfang (630 sider) indikerer stor grundighed i fremstillingen, og på dette punkt skuffes læseren ikke. Indledningens gennemgang af forskningen på området frem til afhandlingens tilblivelse er god og giver en nyttig oversigt, som også er værd at gennemse i forbindelse med andre studier i dansk og tysk musik fra perioden. Bag i bogen er der en informativ sammenlignende oversigt over komponisternes liv, en fortegnelse over repertoireet i koncertforeningen Euterpe og en fortegnelse over Hornemans værker. Men hvad de følgende historiske fremstillinger angår, er spørgsmålet alligevel, om bogen ikke er *for* grundig. Det indledende historiske afsnit om byerne Leipzig og København (afsnit II) er en sammenfatning af byernes musikhistorie ud fra hidtidige historiske fremstillinger. Selvom det selvfølgelig er væsentligt at få en introduktion til byernes musikliv for at kunne sætte konservatorierne og komponisterne ind i en historisk sammenhæng, tillader jeg mig alligevel at spørge, om det virkelig

er nødvendigt for bogens pointe at begynde med gå tilbage til Leipzigs ældste orkester fra det 15. århundrede eller musikken ved Christian IV's hof for Københavns vedkommende. Hun kommer også vidt omkring i danmarkshistorien med bl.a. omtale af Struensens, Grundtvigs og højskolebevægelsens betydning for udviklingen af en dansk nationalisme. Det er isoleret set meget god information at få, men det kan man jo læse om så mange andre steder – også på tysk, hvilket hendes mange henvisninger vidner om. I afsnittet om Gade er der også en tendens til at ville begynde helt forfra med det biografiske og dermed ikke tage det hidtil skrevne alvorligt nok. Til gengæld kommer der supplerende informationer frem omkring omstændighederne og forløbet omkring Gades ophold i Leipzig. Hvad Horneman angår, er det prisværdigt med en ny større skildring af en hidtil ofte overset dansk komponist. I forhold til tidligere biografiske fremstillinger kommer der da også nye aspekter frem – især fra Hornemans ophold i Leipzig.

Men omfangsproblemet kommer selvfølgelig an på hvad forfatteren vil. I indledningen beklager hun den sporadiske og i visse tilfælde forældede forskning i området fra dansk side samt den hidtidige, ensidigt ideologiske forskning fra DDR-tiden omkring musiklivet i Leipzig (s. 20 f.). Hvis dette er en indikation af, at hun dybest set mener det nødvendigt at starte forfra, ville det kunne forklare, hvorfor bogen er blevet så omfangsrig. Hvis Wasserloos' hensigt har været at skabe en sammenhængende introduktion til hele området med bogen, tvivler jeg på projektet. Det er synd, for der ligger bestemt en kæmpe arbejdsindsats bag, og der er spændende information at hente. Men det er nu engang sådan, at en bogs vellykkethed ikke kun afhænger af at få det hele med.

I indledningen påpeger Wasserloos nationalitetsdannelse som en vigtig faktor for undersøgelsen, hvilket må siges at være et emne af tiden. I bogen kommer denne nationalitetsdannelse til at fremstå på to planer: i de københavnske musikinstitutioner og i komponisternes hoveder. Selvom det er forfatterens pointe at skabe sammenhæng mellem disse niveauer, halter projektet, fordi komponisterne får en så dominerende plads i fremstillingen. Hun forsøger at finde komponisternes nationale bevidsthed ud fra deres efterladte kildemateriale (hvilket faktisk er svært!), og i forbindelse med Gade tvinges hun til at supplere med receptionen af ham og hans værker for at få projektet til at lykkes. Hun tyer også til den fortærskede metode at påpege den såkaldte nordiske tone i Gades værker ('På Sjolunds fagre sletter' og alt det der) uden dog at tilføje noget egentligt nyt. Hvad Horneman angår, kommer hans eksotisme-dyrkende opera *Aladdin* til at fremstå som det værk, hvorved komponisten i højeste grad forsøger at skabe en selvhævende dansk musik!

Det er mig en stor gåde, at Wasserloos helt vælger at ignorere den store mængde af teoretiske overvejelser omkring nationalitetsdannelse og musik, som er kommet frem i de sidste efterhånden mange år inspireret af samfundsforskere som Benedict Anderson, Anthony D. Smith m.fl. Netop i denne undersøgelses tilfælde, hvor *musikkulturen* ikke er til at komme uden om, havde det været oplagt, og det kunne hjælpe til at opnå et klarere perspektiv i fremstillingen. Da hun vælger at undlade dette, kommer det til at se ud som om, at kilderne i al deres kaotiske mangfoldighed afgør perspektiverne på spørgsmålet. Det er en del af årsagen til at bogens resultater kommer til at fremstå rodet.

Der er ingen tvivl om at Wasserloos i sit arbejde finder nye aspekter frem i den interessante udveksling mellem dansk og tysk musikliv i det 19. århundrede. Det er tydeligt at forfatteren er på hjemmebane i sin fremstilling af især konservatoriets historie. Hun demonstrerer at hun har overblik over det empiriske stof i den forbindelse. At det har været et kerneområde i hendes studier, fremgår også af, at der i samme serie – også i 2004 – er udkommet endnu en bog fra hendes hånd *Das Leipziger Konservatorium der Musik im 19. Jahrhundert. Anziehungs- und Ausstrahlungskraft eines musikpädagogischen Modells auf das internationale Musikleben*, hvor hun behandler den beslægtede problemstilling om Leipzigerkonservatoriets rolle som model

for en række andre europæiske konservatorier, blandt andet det i København. Hvorvidt denne bog også udspringer af hendes dissertation, fremgår ikke.

Wasserloos har med sin sammenligning af musiklivet i København og Leipzig uden tvivl fat i en spændende problemstilling. Samtidig har hun fat i væsentligt nyt stof i den biografiske del, især hvad angår Horneman. Alligevel er det synd, at hun lader spørgsmålet om dannelse af musikkulturel identitet i begge byer totalt underordne sig de to biografiske fremstillinger af komponisterne. Muligvis ville en anden redigering af stoffet i de to bøger kunne give et klarere billede. Bogen om konservatoriet kunne være udvidet, da der er sammenfald med afsnittet om konservatoriet i Leipzig i den anden bog. Man kunne så have redigeret nærværende bog sådan at en sammenlignende analyse af musikkulturene i Leipzig og København stod stærkest. Hvis forfatteren som en del af dette inddrog kilder om forholdet mellem national identitet og musik i de to byer og så dem i et større perspektiv, kunne der uden tvivl – også set i lyset af dagens nationale strømninger – været kommet en mere spændende og måske også mere nytænkende bog ud af det.

Peter E. Nissen



Ole Nørlyng (ed.), *Dansen er en kunst. Bourmonville – den levende tradition* (Dance is an Art: August Bournonville – the living tradition) Århus: Det Schönbergske Forlag, 2005, 380 pp., illus., ISBN 87-570-1673-9, incl. 9 CD's, *Musikken til Bournonvilles balletter / Music to the Bournonville Ballets*, Aalborg Symphony Orchestra, cond. Peter Ernst Lassen, Danacord 631-639. DKK 499. All text in English and Danish.

Perhaps it was unrealistic to hope that everything performed, presented and published during 2005 for the bicentenaries of H.C. Andersen, J.P.E. Hartmann and August Bournonville would be wonderful. As it turned out, we had a good lesson in human nature last year: the bicentenarians with the most loyal supporters, those for whom commercial success was not the primary goal, achieved great things, and poor H.C. Andersen was exploited and spoiled to death. Most disappointing of all, a tremendous opportunity to promote Danish culture in general to the world beyond these shores was largely wasted: only those who knew where to look, and what to look for, found gold.

Some of the disappointments were worthy attempts, not the result of unmitigated hubris: a great deal of material was published about Bournonville, some of it decent and some compromised by poor standards (like the dreadful inaccuracies and poor editing of the English translation of Ditlev Tamm's biography of the choreographer, not his fault but his publisher's).

Three grand publications stand out from the rest as the great achievements of 2005: the beautiful score of *Liden Kirsten*, J.P.E. Hartmann's and H.C. Andersen's opera (The Hartmann Edition IV, 1, ed. Inger Sørensen and Niels Krabbe, Copenhagen: The Royal Library, 2005); the 2 books and 2 DVDs *The Bournonville School* based on Kirsten Ralov's 1979 publication but now superbly realised as a resource for dancers and students of Bournonville (ed. Anne Marie Vessel Schlüter, Copenhagen: The Royal Theatre, 2005); and the book under consideration here, *Dansen er en kunst*, edited by Ole Nørlyng.

More than any other contribution to critical study this year, this book aspires to support the better understanding of its subject by careful, thorough probing of the context and content of its subject, and its aspirations are almost fully achieved.

To the qualifications first: perhaps the kindest thing to do is to draw a polite veil over the recordings which accompany the book. Although the project began, I think, in Jesper Buhl's

admirable ambition to record all the scores used by Bournonville (in fact those actually presented here are those which survive in modern performing tradition at The Royal Danish Theatre), the recording quality is disappointing even though the performances directed by Peter Ernst Lassen are lively and securely founded in his long experience of theatrical performing practice. Unfortunately, even when played at a higher volume than your neighbours might wish, the recordings sound as though the orchestra is playing in next door's living room, not your own. Balletomanes will, perhaps, enjoy the comfortable and familiar untidiness of some moments as authentic reminders of happy times in the theatre, but these recordings do not compete with others already available. We must hope that the missing scores, notably J.P.E. Hartmann's *The Lay of Thrym* (*Thrymskviden*), have better luck when they are, as they surely must be soon, recorded.

It is a shame, too, that the graphic designers responsible for the book's presentation did not have the courage of the publishers and editor in advertising the presence of full English translations more openly on the book's cover and title page. Too many English-speakers who might otherwise buy this book may not realize from its appearance that they are very well provided for, with idiomatic and impeccably proof-read translations of every single word of the text, including the captions to the illustrations.

But this book's standing will depend on the value of its content, and it will, on that account, stand very high: indeed, no library, whether private or public, should be without a copy.

First the illustrations. As anyone aware of Ole Nørlyng's multifaceted life as art historian and teacher at the Royal Ballet School as well as musicologist will hope, the illustrations are drawn from a very wide range of sources, theatrical performance, fine art, documentary: all quite literally illuminating. That they are extremely well printed and informatively captioned, as well as carefully chosen to illustrate the adjacent text, adds to their value here.

But Ole Nørlyng's success in selection applies to his choice of contributing authors, too. His own essays include a biographical sketch which is all the better for being compact and equipped with a well-selected chronology of Bournonville's life and works; 'Music drives the Dance', one of the best accounts any choreographer has been privileged to inspire of his music and musicality, which covers the whole range of Bournonville's work including opera and light music as well as each of the surviving ballets in some detail, and ends with a brilliant exposition of the 'musicality of the style' of the dance itself; an excellent, helpful for being so directly personal, interview with the conductor of the CDs, Peter Ernst Lassen; and a predictably but constructively provocative envoi addressing Bournonville's future, co-authored with the redoubtable Anne Middelboe Christensen. Throughout Nørlyng's writing, one recognizes the hand of a skilled and experienced communicator, concerned to stimulate and engage as well as to inform. What he says of Bournonville is as true of his own writing: 'This is the heart of the matter: to transform what is difficult into what appears to be effortless' (p. 253). This is learning worn lightly, and all the better for it.

Monna Dithmer's article here, 'The shadows behind the sunny poet – or how to keep a woman under control?', is a classic production: it contains enough wisps of insight and truth to be genuinely worthwhile, thoroughly stimulating and refreshingly serious in its address to our perception of gender issues in the art of the mid-nineteenth century. These may not be the most important things to find in Bournonville's ballets, but not knowing that they are there, or that they contribute significantly to the ballets' meanings, really does detract from a full understanding of the choreographer's work, so 'bravo, Monna', for saying something that needed to be said, and encouraging a spirit and tone of disputatious glee that raises the quality of debate about dance towards a level it deserves.

Charlotte Christensen's 'Wide Horizons' surveys Bournonville's world beyond ballet, showing him both as traveller and as journalist, bringing the best and most interesting of his

experiences back to Copenhagen to entertain an audience avid for anything new and intriguing, that sits well near Katja Jepsen's useful study of 'Bournonville and Danish national identity in the nineteenth century'.

Between them lies Birthe Johansen's 'Dance and Politics, Bournonville and *Far from Denmark* in the 1850s—a time of national tension'. This provides a helpful insight into Bournonville as a politically alert and active citizen, but rises beyond the ordinary to a brilliantly valuable account of the economic side of his role as ballet master and the place of the ballet in the Danish state. She uses material from Bournonville's *My Theatre Life* (which surely cannot remain out of print?) in the context of a discussion, otherwise unavailable in English, of the emerging cultural politics of Denmark after 1848 and makes an indispensable contribution to Bournonville studies in so doing. At last, here is a critical account of an aesthetic treasure that doesn't treat it as though it emerged from a 'Kingdom of [Cultural] Sweets' (a reference to Tchaikovsky's *Nutcracker*), but from a society that was just as conscious of the cost, as well as the value, of things as our own.

Anne Middelboe Christensen's contribution, 'Dance with tears – die with a smile', comes close to capturing the excitement and sheer glory that was the Bournonville Symposium's at Takkelloftet in the Opera, Copenhagen in August 2005, even though it must have been written months before. Not every detail of choreographic expression that was shared there, or in the daily classes at 'Størekassen' before the Festival performances, can be found here, but something of the thrill of discovery and the connoisseur's excitement in finding 'truth' is, because Christensen hears what dancers say and helps them to speak to us about what they're doing, and what it means. There can be no higher praise, and I hope that readers will rush off to find her book *Hvor danser den kongelige ballet hen?* (Copenhagen, Det Schønbergske Forlag, 2002) if they have not discovered it already.

Karen Vedel addresses 'The Surviving Tradition, the Bournonville ballet heritage in the early 20th century' with a grasp of the tradition's relation to other forces in the world of ballet that raises her article well beyond the sentimental hagiography that this subject often prompts. Perhaps a little more about the (Danish) roots of Fokine's expressive aspirations (he was a pupil of a pupil of Bournonville) might have helped to shed a subtler light on the struggle between old and new, but how good it is to have this kind of argument so well supported by documentary evidence and careful research.

In conclusion, and shameless repetition of what has already been said above: this book is one of just three great publishing achievements of 2005; it is a huge success and a great contribution to scholarship, of the dance and its music in particular, and to the better understanding of Denmark's cultural achievement in general.

Colin Roth



Carl Nielsen Brevudgaven, ed. John Fellow, i: 1886-1897

Copenhagen: Multivers, 2005

571 pp., illus.

ISBN 87-7917-143-5

DKK 398

Når man får dette første bind af *Carl Nielsen Brevudgaven* i hånden, er det et længe savnet værk, der nu omsider bliver realiseret. Enhver, der seriøst har arbejdet med Carl Niensens liv og musik, ved, at al hidtidig Carl Nielsen-forskning har været på usikker grund. Ud over en pålidelig nodeudgave og de af samme udgiver publicerede tekster (*Carl Nielsen til sin samtid*,

København, 1999) er Nielsens breve og dagbøger det væsentligste primære kildemateriale i undersøgelsen af omstændigheder omkring værkernes tilblivelse og komponistens overvejelser og tankeverden. Indtil nu har al Carl Nielsen-litteratur lidt under, at der kun har foreligget en forholdsvis lille udgave af 268 udvalgte breve fra 1954 (*Carl Nielsen Breve*, udg. af Torben Meyer), enkeltstående udgivelser af mindre brevvekslinger med fx Emil B. Sachs, Julius Lehmann og Ferruccio Busoni samt siden 1983 Torben Schousboes udgave af dagbøger og breve til hustruen Anne Marie Carl-Nielsen. For udenlandske læsere har udvalget været fortvivlende lille, med oversættelsen af en række breve til engelsk i Mina Millers *The Nielsen Companion* (London, 1994) som det væsentligste. Det vil være en afgørende opgave for det danske kulturliv at sørge for, at nærværende brevudgave efterfølgende gøres internationalt tilgængelig med en engelsk oversættelse, hvor også de problemer, der trods al glæde over udgivelsen er i den danske udgave, kunne løses.

Hovedproblemet med de tidligere brevudgaver har været, at de har bestået af udvalg og uddrag. Både Meyer og Schousboe havde den holdning, at ikke alt var interessant for offentligheden. I denne redaktionsproces er det uundgåeligt, at såvel udvalg som beskæring afspejlede udgiverens Carl Nielsen-billede. Og enhver, som har ønsket at gå dybere ned i et problem, har været henvist til at søge efter originalbreve, der kunne belyse sagen. Her har man ikke blot skullet kæmpe med utilstrækkelig katalogisering, men også været henvist til at gætte på, til hvem og i hvilke sammenhænge Carl Nielsen mon kunne have skrevet noget relevant. Ingen har før John Fellow – naturligvis bortset fra forfatteren – læst alle de ca. 3500 breve, der er bevaret fra Carl Nielsens hånd. Med udgivelsen får vi andre nu også adgang til materialet i dets helhed. Det kan ikke undgå at løfte Carl Nielsen-forskningen til et nyt niveau.

Bindet er opbygget med en indledning til udgaven og en kort introduktion til bindet, hvorefter følger 687 breve og dagbogsnotater, der begynder med en lille seddel, han skrev i 1886/87 til en udeleven elev, og slutter med udgangen af 1897. Bagest findes en liste over brevenes opholdssted, anvendte forkortelser og redaktionelle tegn samt billedproveniens. Desuden medfølger et særskilt trykt register til første bind, der indeholder brevskriver- og navneregister og et register over Carl Nielsens (men ikke andres) værker. Dette kan synes mærkværdigt men skyldes, at det samlede register for udgaven vil blive trykt ved udgavens afslutning.

En fuldstændig udgave er det kun i den forstand, at det er en udgave af alle kendte og bevarede breve. Der er breve, vi ved eller må formode har eksisteret, fx breve til Thomas Laub og Olfert Jespersen. Der er breve, vi ved er tilintetgjort og der er breve, vi aldrig har kendt eksistensen af. Dette gør Fellow udmærket rede for i sin indledning. Desuden er der den berømte lille pakke klausulerede breve, som efter datterens ønske først må åbnes i 2026. Det vil formodentlig til den tid blive en skuffelse for dem, der tror at noget afgørende vil være skjult her.

Enhver redaktionsvirksomhed består af en række valg. Fellow har valgt at supplere brevene fra Carl Nielsen med samtlige bevarede breve fra Anne Marie Carl-Nielsen til Carl Nielsen, som udgør ca. 500. Disse breve bringes altid i fuld længde. Desuden er der af den store mængde af breve til Carl Nielsen udvalgt omkring 2000, heraf nogle i uddrag, så udgaven i alt kommer op på ca. 6000 breve. Den samlede mængde af indsamlede og registrerede breve med tilknytning til Carl Nielsen angives til omkring 12500, og de øvrige breve er således nu registrerede og tilgængelige selv om de ikke udgives.

Udgivelsesprincipperne er konsistente uden at være rigide. Man kunne også kalde det nødvendig, velovervejet fleksibilitet. Med hensyn til retskrivningen har udgaven bibeholdt den originale stavemåde, også hvor Carl Nielsen staver forkert eller inkonsekvent. Det gør det nødvendigt for forståelsens skyld at lave tilføjelser i skarpe parenteser, og udeladelser af ulæselige ord markeres også, men lykkeligvis har udgaven undgået ethvert forsøg på at ligne en filologisk kildeudgave i tysk tradition oversat med forskellige sæt af kantede, lige og buede

parenteser. Dette valg gør ikke udgaven mindre videnskabelig, for det svækker ikke graden af korrekt gengivelse af brevenes originaltekst. Brugt med omtanke kan jeg også acceptere udgiverens beslutning om at gå ud fra, at brevene læses i sammenhæng, således at hvis det af sammenhængen fremgår umiddelbart for, hvad der tales om, behøver man ikke at gentage noten eller tilføjelsen.

Et andet valg har været at være tilbageholdende med mængden af forklarende noter. Igen i princippet en fornuftig beslutning, for en kildeudgave skal ikke i smug skrive en biografi i sine noter men lægge materialet frem med de nødvendige forklaringer. Hvad der er nødvendigt kan og skal til gengæld diskuteres. Udgiveren har lagt den linie at fodnoterne generelt indskrænkes til klargøringer af indforståede henvisninger til personer eller værker, som nævnes i brevet. En række steder er personidentifikationen i stedet klargjort med tilføjelse af for- eller efternavn eller det korrekte navn i skarp parentes inde i teksten. Sådanne klargøringer findes kun ved første forekomst i brevet for at undgå overlæsning. I teorien er det fint, men i praksis fungerer det ikke godt nok, som følgende eksempler vil vise. Selv en læser som undertegnede, der selv har arbejdet med primærkilderne, har svært ved at afkode mange af brevene rigtigt.

Mest alvorligt er mangler af den type, hvor der mangler oplysninger om, hvilke personer der tales om i brevet. I brev 104 får man fx ikke at vide, hvem "Hr. Kahn" og "Lilli Lehman" er. Dog kan man i det medfølgende register finde dem i navneindekset under deres fulde og rigtige navne med angivelse af fødsels- og dødsår og ofte profession. Det er simpelthen for besværligt og forudsætter, at man skal checke, om den indekserede person, man gætter på det er, har anført en henvisning til det brev, man læser. Det betyder for det første at man hele tiden skal sidde med indekset ved siden af, og tænk på hvad det betyder, når det bliver et samlet indeks til alle bind. For det andet beviser det jo, at udgiveren faktisk sidder inde med de oplysninger, som læseren mangler. Det holder ganske enkelt ikke. At man i brev 103 ikke får opklaret, hvem "Millionæren fra Finland" er, kan måske tilgives, hvis heller ikke udgiveren har kunnet gætte dette. I de foregående breve nævnes Järnefelt i brev 99 (hvor krydscheck med registrets brevnunre afslører, at det er Armas og ikke hans bror Eero) og Sibelius i brev 101, men det løser ikke gåden. I noten s. 196 anføres at "Popper-Menter" skulle være David Popper, gift med Sophie Menter, hvor den tyske navnepraksis normalt ville lade kvinden bruge dobbeltnavn. At det er hende, der menes, bekræftes i slutningen af det følgende brev (s. 203).

Identifikation af værker er ofte vanskelig, og det ville være urimeligt at fordr, at ethvert nævnt værk skulle forsynes med en note med opus eller værkfortegnelsesnummer. Det forekommer rimeligt at "Eroica" og "Tannhäuser" forudsættes bekendte, mens det er i underkanten, at fx strygekvartetten "Beethoven g Dur" ikke identificeres (brev 107) og klart en mangel at den uspecificerede "c moll" i brev 111, der hentyder til Beethovens 5. symfoni, ikke forsynes med en opklarende note. Indrømmet, i mange tilfælde vil heller ikke udgiveren kunne identificere, hvad en nævnt 'symfoni' eller 'kvartet' er, men i de tilfælde, hvor det lader sig afgøre, bør det fremgå. Også her sidder man med fornemmelsen af, at udgiveren ofte sidder inde med de oplysninger, man savner.

Tilbageholdenheden med at rette ortografi og tegnsætning er en rigtig beslutning, men der er alligevel steder, hvor en redaktionel indgriben savnes eller er misforståelig. I dagbogsnotaterne fra Paris skal man være meget skarpsindig for at fange, at "E.S. [Fritz] Bendix" (brev 244) er to personer. Emil B. Sachs er nævnt dagen før, men netop den redaktionelle tilføjelse giver indtryk af, at her er problemerne løst, hvad de kun ville være, hvis der også redaktionelt var indføjet et komma. Samme problem findes i brev 252, hvor "Hans Nicolai [Fritz] Bendix" optræder og man skal tilbage til brev 247 før man kan finde "Hans Nicolai [Hansen]" og dermed få en chance for at udlede, hvem der tales om. Der må herfra udgå en kraftig opfordring til, at man på disse punkter justerer praksis i de følgende bind.

Indekseringen er en særlig og meget vigtig ting i sådanne udgaver. Alle henvisninger sker til brevnummer. Registreringen synes at være konsistent og indekserer også de navne, som kun forekommer indirekte, fx findes "Fru Hansens Søster" i brev 4 indekseret under sit navn, som står i noten. Også nævnelser "Lohengrin" medfører en indeksering af Wagner i brev 96, mens den nævnte "c moll" i brev 111 ikke indekseres under Beethoven. Denne anvendelse af indirekte indeksering er meget nyttig og øger brugbarheden afgørende.

Indholdsmæssigt giver læsningen af de mange breve i kronologisk sammenhæng et fascinerende billede af tiden og Carl Niensens personlighed og omgangskreds. Men ikke nok med at man kan læse dem som en brevroman, der kommer også nye indsigter, som man næppe kunne have fået på andre måder. Fx er det interessant at støde på Carl Niensens første bemærkninger om sangkomposition, især fordi man nu ved, at det er de første: "Jeg har i denne Tid begyndt at studere Sange af berømte tyske Componister for at lære af dem, hvordan man behandler et Digt. Beethoven og de gamle før ham, har ikke skrevet Sange af nogen Betydning, fordi de ikke trængte dybt nok ind i Digtets Aand. ... Saa fremstod Schubert. Han læste sin Text atter og atter igjennem, indtil han var helt gennemtrængt af Digtets Aand og Stemning, og saa skrev han sin dejlige Musik dertil" (brev 11). I dette brev, som han skrev den 3. maj 1888 til sin kæreste Emilie, fortsætter han med levende at genfortælle digtet og musikken til Schuberts *Erlkönig*. "Der er ikke et Ord, som ikke har faaet det højeste poetiske og musikalske Udtryk. Man kan i Musiken tydeligt høre Hestens dundrende Hovslag og den uhyggelige Susen i en stor Skov om Natten, ja, selv Maanens kolde, magiske Straaler synes man at se". Her er der på ingen måde tale om at forholde sig den danske sangtradition eller den folkelige sang, men om en dyb leven sig ind i den tyske, romantiske liedtradition.

Det er også udbytterigt kronologisk at kunne læse alle breve og dagbogsnotater under hans første store udlandsrejse i 1890-91 som gik til Dresden, Berlin, Leipzig, Paris og Italien. Her noterer han fx den 30. november 1890: "Mon der ikke kunde tænkes en Musik der havde Lighed med impressionistiske Malerier; hvor Conturerne svømmer ud i Stemningstaage?" (brev 145). Vel at mærke før Debussy havde realiseret ideen. Og nogle dage før skriver han i et brev til Emil B. Sachs, at han har fået en ide til en symfoni med titlen "Af Jord er Du kommen til Jord skal du blive": "Mørk og uragtig i Begyndelsen, hvor alt endnu ligger i tusindaarig Dvale. Da lidt efter lidt Bevægelse og Liv men endnu halvt ubevidst, og saa stige og stige til den højeste Livsglæde. Saa tilbage igjen til den 'sorte Muld' som svøber os alle ind i sit bløde, tætte Gevandt; hvor man sover ind til evig – evig Forglemmelse. – Men jeg maa først være meget dygtigere" (brev 137). En første beskrivelse af den ide, som ligger til grund for første del af hans femte symfoni, komponeret 30 år senere?

Værket er ikke kun en brevudgave, men også en udgave af billeder af komponisten. Side-løbende med brevregistreringen er også alle kendte billeder registreret og de bliver udgivet i deres helhed i brevudgaven i kronologisk orden. Desuden bringer udgaven fine billeder af en række andre fra personkredsen omkring Nielsen. Dette arbejde er forestået af billedredaktøren Hanne Hee Lange.

Kritikken af kommenteringen skal på ingen måde overskygge, at det på alle måder er en umådelig vigtig udgivelse, som ikke ville være blevet realiseret uden John Fellows vedholdende engagement og store og grundige arbejde. Nu foreligger endelig den brevudgave, som kan give den fremtidige Nielsen-forskning et sikrere grundlag at arbejde på. Til gengæld håber jeg også, at udgiveren vil tage kritikpunkterne til efterretning, specielt hvad angår de manglende oplysninger på de punkter, hvor de er forhånden. Det bør kunne imødekommes ved at justere redaktionspraksis i de kommende bind.

Michael Fjeldsøe



Audun Myskja, *Musik som medicin. Lyd, musik og terapi*
 transl. Mogens Wenzel Andreasen, København: Borgen, 2005
 (orig. edn. *Den musiske medicin*, Oslo: Cappelens forlag, 1999)
 343 pp.
 ISBN 87-21-02415-4
 DKK 299

Den meget populære bog *Musik og medicin*, forfattet af den norske læge og musikerterapeut Audun Myskja, er nu kommet i dansk oversættelse. Den berører brydningsfeltet mellem musik og medicin, bl.a. at musik anvendes som støttebehandling (adjuvans) til anden behandling af sygdom. Det er denne anmelders formål at diskutere bogens tilgang til nogle af de vigtige problemstillinger der rejses i dette felt mellem den menneskelige organisme, lyd og musik.

Bogens sigte er bredt og søger at give et kig ind i de tanker, erfaringer og den lægevidenskabelige viden, der danner baggrund for moderne behandling med musik i bred terapeutisk forstand. Bogens 14 kapitler beretter foruden om menneskets musikalske krop, musik i dagens lægevidenskab og musik som forebyggende medicin, bl.a. om skabelsesmyter, musikterapiens historie, frekvensterapier, overtonesang og planter og dyrs forhold til musik.

Det fastholdes i bogen, at barnets tryghedsfølelse primært er knyttet til moderens stemme og hjerteslag, som er selve grundbilledet på tilfredshed og lykke. Barokmusik, hævdes det, skaber samme følelse af tryghed, fordi pulsen er den samme som moderens ideelle hjerteslag på 60-70 slag i minuttet, og her fremhæver bogen G.F. Händels 12 *Concerti Grossi* som tryghedsfremmende og derfor ideelle til ny læring. Koblingen mellem moderen og barokmusik er problematisk fordi den postulerer en særlig 'naturlighed' i Händels musik – en egenskab der andetsteds i bogen også tillægges gregoriansk sang. Hvad menes der med 'naturligt'? Endvidere rummer denne naturlighedslogik sexistiske undertoner: Romantiseringen af moderen implicerer den ide, at kvinden og navnlig moderen er mere 'naturlig' (og dermed samtidig mindre kultiveret) end manden. Kvinden er altså svaret på den moderne verdens sygdomme, begæret om at vende tilbage til en præmoderne idyl. Denne trang mod naturen er paradoksalt, når man tænker på, at den reproduceres i sammenhæng med moderne lægevidenskab der om noget har haft afgørende betydning for oplysning og sundhed i det moderne velfærdssamfund. Men måske er den palliative musiks indmarch på hospitalsgangene i bund og grund en indrømmelse af lægevidenskabens grænser?

Det er ikke naturens lyde som sådan, der er på dagsordenen i helbredelsesøjemed, men de udvalgte, gavnlige lyde. Fokuseringen på hjerteslaget som garant for fostrets tryghed er udtryk for dette eklektiske princip. Ud over man må stille spørgsmål ved det lægevidenskabelige belæg for at sige noget om fostres oplevelser af tryghed, så kunne man spørge til de andre lyde der omgiver det, f.eks. tarmlydene, hvis konstante tilstedeværelse gennem fostrets udvikling vel er lige så naturlig som hjerteslagets. Naturlighed som sådan er altså ikke målet for en lyds eller en musiks gavnlige virkning.

Yderligere specialisering af lyde foretages i den konsekvente søgen efter den optimale (ønskede) effekt. Intet menneske, gravid eller ej, har en konstant puls på 60-70 slag i minuttet. Man fikserer altså den eftertragtede hjerteslagspuls, og således er endnu et lag 'naturlighed' skrællet af, og resultatet er et idealiseret billede på 'hjerteslaget'. Der er talløse eksempler på afslapningsmusik, hvor hjertelyd anvendes, f.eks. Niels Ejes lægedokumenterede *MusiCure*, som er produceret på baggrund af forskning forestået af gruppen *Musica Humana*, hvilken også Myskja er aktivt medlem af og bidrager til med sin erfaring med brug af musikalsk behandling fra sin hospitals- og hospicepraksis.

At der er en biologisk virkelighed, synes klart, men det må samtidigt fastholdes, at alle forsøg på at forklare og ordne denne virkelighed implicerer en kontekstualisering, hvor det

dynamiske forhold mellem biologi, kulturelle værdier og sociale virkeligheder må tages i betragtning. I det valgte eksempel bevæger vi os ganske hurtigt fra hjertepuls i lægevidenskabelig forstand til hjertepuls som æstetisk objekt.

I *Musik og medicin* overlades det helt til læseren selv at dømme, i hvilken sammenhæng det præsenterede stof skal forstås. Grænserne mellem biologi, kulturhistorie, alternativ terapi-erfaring eller det rent anekdotiske er ikke klare i bogen, og det slører bogens fokus. Den relativt store mængde lægevidenskabelig fagterminologi virker i den forbindelse retorisk vildledende, da den også tilfører bogens anekdotiske og metafysiske afsnit en lægelig autoritet. Omvendt kan dette selvfølgelig også læses positivt som afgivelse af autoritet og en åbning mod andre indsigter i menneskets krop, psyke og kultur.

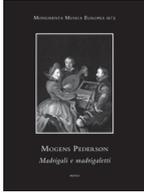
De positive erfaringer der gøres med musik som supplerende behandling er ikke blot tankevækkende, det effektsøgende og mekaniske syn på musik er også udfordrende for musikvidenskaben, der mestendels forholder sig til musik i forhold til historiske, æstetiske, teoretiske, antropologiske, kulturelle og religiøse problemstillinger. Disse problemstillinger er til stede også i medicinsk behandling med musik, og det er måske musikvidenskabens ansvar at blande sig i det multidisciplinære samarbejde omkring dette felt, der hidtil har inkluderet flere fagdiscipliner, bare ikke musikvidenskab.

Nok kan læger (og andre) opleve, at musik virker, og spørge patienter om deres følelse af velvære. Men for at kunne svare videnskabeligt på, *hvad* der virker i musikken, må vi først udspecificere de enkelte musikalske bestanddele, siden måle på dem. Dette er ikke så enkelt som det lyder, for det første må vi stille spørgsmål ved den videnskabelige værdi af isolerede målinger på f.eks. en enkelt rytme (som hjerterytmen), eller klang (som den gunstige durtreklang, s. 111-12) osv., når musik som oftest høres og giver mening i sammenhæng. For det andet involverer denne type naturvidenskabelig undersøgelse en analytisk implikation: vi må udvælge, altså definere, de bestanddele vi vil måle på. De er ikke givne på forhånd, selvom de kan synes nok så naturlige. Det vil med andre ord sige, at metoden definerer vores objekt. Hvis ikke andre discipliner gør det, så må musikvidenskaben understrege nødvendigheden af metodisk refleksion.

Man får ved læsning af bogen indtryk af, at der i musikmedicinske kredse er en kanon for helbredende musik, som omfatter udvalgte naturlyde, overvejende vestlig klassisk musik og eksotiske indslag. Gregoriansk sang karakteriseres som "vor egen tradition", som suppleres på bedste vis af "den indiske og kinesiske tradition, idet disse to kulturer har den måske længste tradition, vi kender for brug af musik som medicin" (s. 85). Der postuleres implicit en historisk sammenhæng mellem fortidige og fjerne kulturer og moderne vestlig musikmedicin. Mine indvendinger går på, at de forskellige kulturer der refereres til, alle har haft deres helt bestemte, universelle ideer om og forskrifter til, hvilken musik eller hvilke lyde der virkede hvordan og i hvilke sammenhænge. Et typisk fællestræk for de udvalgte naturlyde og typer musik der anvendes i moderne vestlig behandling med musik er distance. De er fjerne både i historisk og kulturel forstand, og er dermed lette ofre for kulturel essentialisering og eksotisering – vestlige forestillinger om anderledes verdener, problemstillinger som navnlig musikvidenskaben med en vis skæven til antropologien har arbejdet seriøst med i mere end et par årtier.

Mit ærinde er ikke at stille spørgsmålstegn ved om forskellige slags musik og hjertelyde virker i behandlingsojemed eller ej, menneskers positive erfaringer kan konstateres ad både lægevidenskabelige og musiknologiske veje. Derimod ønsker jeg at fremhæve den vigtige diskussion af, hvad det er ved, i eller omkring musikken og den musikalske krop, der virker, og hvilken position, den, der udtaler sig, har i relation til emnet og forskningen. Det er afgørende for vores viden om musik og medicin at vide, *hvad* det er for en slags viden vi står med og *hvordan* den er tilvejebragt, hvis ønsket er oplysning om musikalsk behandling og ikke mytedannelse om musikalske mirakler.

Tore Tvarnø Lind

Music Reviews

Mogens Pederson (Magno Petreo) Madrigali e madrigaletti, ed. Kitt Messina
 Brepols: Turnhout, 2005
 'Monumenta Musica Europea. Renaissance', section II vol. 2
 i-lxiv, 1-214, lxv-cxiii pp.
 ISBN 2-503-51801-X
 EUR 100

It is always a pleasure to see Danish Renaissance music receive some attention from international scholars and publishers. The present volume of Pederson's surviving madrigals and madrigaletti edited by Kitt Messina certainly looks impressive: it opens with an extensive introduction and a critical apparatus which contains a very detailed account of textual matters, a subject which all too often receives only scant attention. Besides Pederson, the volume also contains three appendices with madrigals by Hans Nielsen, Francesco Di Gregorii, and Amante Franzoni, all of whom set music to some of the same texts as Pederson.

The introduction has two sections: a general one dealing with King Christian IV and his politics, the music at the royal court, and the cultural relations between Denmark, Germany, and England. Then a section concerned with Pederson's life and works and a more detailed study of selected madrigals follows. The historical introduction relies in some instances on older and out-of-date secondary sources. This leads to imprecise information such as Bertholusius being Polish though, according to the title-page of his *Sacrarium cantionum* (Venice 1601), he was 'Murianensis', that is from Murano (Venice) – a fact also mentioned in the *New Grove* (2001). In addition it is disappointing that the references in the notes contain so many Danish misspellings. The music analyses are somewhat superficial when comparing them with the very detailed exposition the madrigal texts receive. The table of modes, for instance, reveals many interesting details which are not discussed in the introduction, making one wonder what the purpose of the table is. Why has the twelve-mode system been chosen rather than the eight-mode system? (Has it something to do with Giovanni Gabrieli – one of Pederson's teachers – who may have adhered to the twelve-mode system?) When studying the table it is evident that in terms of modes the madrigals of book I are paired in two even though Messina has avoided giving a modal designation to some of the them: I, 11, for example, should be paired with I, 12 and assigned to mode 8. According to the editor I, 7 belongs to mode 3 (Phrygian) and can thus be paired with I, 8; however, there are intricate problems with the distinctions between the Phrygian and Aeolian modes, and especially the mode of I, 7 and I, 8 is difficult to determine. The Phrygian character is completely absent in I, 7 and I, 8 (the ending on E of I, 8 is indeed remarkable, that is not Phrygian at all), so classifying the pieces as mode 3 seems somewhat doubtful.

If a new edition is to have a *raison d'être* then ideally it should emend errors of earlier editions, including not only modern twentieth-century editions but also primary sources. In madrigal I, 3, b. 37 (Basso), the second note in the original (*e*) must be an error which ought to be corrected to a *d*. According to the editorial principles those cautionary accidentals which today are redundant have been retained; nevertheless, the natural (I, 3, b. 41) on note 3 in Tenor has been removed while the ones on note 2 (Quinto, b. 41) and note 1 (Canto, b. 42) have been retained. Far worse, however, is the odd-sounding row of dissonances in the origi-

nal edition (I, 21, bb. 22-23, Canto and Alto) which has not been emended in the present volume. It seems that the number of errors is greatest in the madrigals of Book I, whereas those of Book II have apparently had greater scrutiny. This is evident when comparing the lists of variants and emendations of Books I and II: the first one (21 madrigals) has approximately half a page of variants and emendations whereas the second one (10 madrigals) has two pages. The fact that Book II only survives in manuscript means that this book demands much greater editorial work than Book I for which the main source is the printed edition of 1608. However, that does not mean that editorial attention is of minor importance when dealing with printed music; neither does it mean that the editor can rely on a spurious authenticity by faithfully copying printer's errors.

Consequently the earlier modern editions are more reliable than the present one in terms of the music and so performers are advised to use these (i.e. Knud Jeppesen (ed.), *Dania sonans*, 1933, vol. 1; J.P. Jacobsen (ed.), *Dania sonans*, 1966/67, vols. 2-3). It is a pity that a thorough proof-reading did not reveal and correct the evident errors, many of which could have been detected by just collating with Jacobsen's edition of Pedersøn's madrigals. Despite these important failings in the musical text, some readers might value this publication for its excellent and detailed presentation of the madrigal texts.

Peter Hauge

Bibliography 2005

The bibliography is primarily based on questionnaires. It has a dual purpose: to register on the one hand the scholarly work of Danish musicologists, and on the other the publications of music researchers from abroad dealing with Danish music. It includes only titles published in the year with which the bibliography is concerned, as well as addenda to the bibliography for the preceding year. As a rule the following types of work are not included: unprinted university theses, newspaper articles, reviews, CD booklets and encyclopaedia entries.

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