The study of the structure of music begins with the classification of all aspects of music into five basic categories: sound, harmony, melody, rhythm, and form—the structural elements.

The sound of the music is the result of the voices and/or instruments used, the texture of the music, and the effects of dynamics. In music, texture refers to the way the melodic, rhythmic, and harmonic materials of a composition are woven together.

The study of the harmony of a composition includes the harmonic patterns and progressions, the tonal implications of the harmony, and how the harmony is sustained and elaborated.

The study of the melody of a composition includes the prominent melodic lines and their repetition and variation, the range and contour of melodic material, the phrase structure of the melodic lines, the scale basis for melodic materials, and the relationship and relative prominence of the various melodic ideas that appear together in a work.

The study of the rhythm in a composition includes the nature of rhythmic activity, the tempo and tempo changes, the density of rhythmic activity, and the harmonic rhythm or rate of harmonic change throughout a composition.

Form refers to the larger shape of the composition. Form in music is the result of the interaction of the four structural elements previously described. Certain formal patterns recur often enough in Western music to be given names (see Chapters 16–17).

We will consider each of the basic structural elements in isolation so that you can focus your attention on each in turn. However, you must always bear in mind that these structural elements seldom function in isolation in a piece of music.
Composers organize chords in specific combinations to signal the conclusion of musical passages. These points of repose are known as cadences. Furthermore, composers frequently embellish chords with nonchord pitches known as nonharmonic tones. This chapter is devoted to these two fundamental elements of musical composition.

A phrase is a substantial musical thought, which ends with a musical punctuation called a cadence. Phrases are created in music through an interaction of melody, harmony, and rhythm. The first part of this chapter concentrates on the harmonic and rhythmic aspects of phrases; in Chapter 6 we will take up the melodic aspects.

A harmonic cadence is musical punctuation that closes a phrase or section of music. Cadences differ considerably in musical strength. Some signify the end of a complete musical thought and can be compared to the period (.). Others bring an incomplete idea to a close but suggest something else to come. These can be compared to a comma (,) or a semicolon (;). Most cadences conclude with either the V or I chord. The dominant frequently appears as a seventh chord (V7).
Figure 5.1

A. Scarlatti: “O cessate di piagarmi,” from *Pompeo*, mm. 5–8.

Perfect Authentic Cadence
The *perfect authentic cadence* is a progression from V to I in major keys and V to i in minor keys. Both chords must be in root position. In this cadence the tonic note must also be the highest sounding pitch in the tonic triad. From the standpoint of finality, the perfect authentic cadence is the strongest cadence of all.

Imperfect Authentic Cadence
The *imperfect authentic cadence* is slightly weaker than the perfect authentic cadence. A perfect authentic cadence becomes imperfect when:

1. The highest-sounding tone in the tonic triad is a tone other than the tonic note.
2. The viiø triad is substituted for the V, making the cadence viiø6 to I or viiø6 to i.
3. One or both of the chords (V or I) is inverted. Examples are: V6 to I or V to i6.

Figure 5.2 illustrates both perfect and imperfect authentic cadences.

Figure 5.2

Perfect Authentic
a. b. Imperfect Authentic
c. d. Imperfect Authentic (Rare)
e. f. g.

Half Cadence
If the second chord of a cadence is V, it is a *half cadence*. This permits a large number of possibilities, but composers actually employ only a few. I to V, IV to V, or ii to V account for the vast majority of half cadences. A half cadence from iv6 to V in a minor key is sometimes called a *Phrygian half cadence* (see Figure 5.3d).
Plagal Cadence

The *plagal cadence* is nearly always one progression: IV to I in major keys, or its equivalent, iv to i in minor keys. Infrequently, the progression ii⁶ to I occurs as a plagal cadence.

Deceptive Cadence

If the first chord is V and the second is not I, the cadence is *deceptive*. Although there are a large number of possibilities, composers most often select vi (VI in minor). Figure 5.5 illustrates deceptive cadences.

Rhythmic Cadence

Phrase endings often contain characteristic rhythmic patterns that create a *rhythmic cadence*. Notice in Figure 5.6 that the phrase ending can be sensed by tapping the rhythm alone.
**Figure 5.6**

Bach: Brandenburg Concerto no. 3 in G Major, BWV 1048, I, mm. 1–2 (modified).

Rhythmic cadence: _____

Rhythmic cadences often end with a longer note than the prevailing note values or are followed by a rest, which, in effect, lengthens the final note. A rhythmic cadence pattern may recur several times throughout a given composition (see Figure 5.7).

**Figure 5.7**

Polish Folk Song.

Rhythmic cadence: _____

Rhythmic cadence: _____

Rhythmic cadence: _____

Rhythmic cadence: _____

Phrases can exist at the rhythmic level alone, independent of harmony and melody. Drum cadences, for example, are clear examples of rhythmic phrases.

**History**

The history of harmonic cadences is interesting because so many early cadence types now sound quaint and unfulfilling. Prior to the baroque period and the establishment of functional harmony, cadences were considered simply a manipulation of melodic lines that converged or diverged to a point of rest, usually the final (the first degree of a mode). The following are typical of early cadences.

**Figure 5.8**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Firenze (c. 1375)</th>
<th>Machaut (1300–77)</th>
<th>Binchois (1400–67)</th>
<th>Palestrina (1525–94)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Double Leading-tone Cadence:</td>
<td>Landini Cadence:</td>
<td>Plagal Cadence:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The advent of the baroque period with its tonality and functional harmony brought about the familiar cadence types.

Figure 5.9

Pachelbel (1653–1706)  
Imperfect Authentic:  
Handel (1685–1759)  
Perfect Authentic:  
Bach (1685–1750)  
Deceptive:

The standard cadences (authentic, half, plagal, and deceptive) continued with little change from the baroque period throughout the classical period.

Figure 5.10

Beethoven (1770–1827)  
Mozart (1756–91)  
Haydn (1732–1809)  
Salieri (1750–1824)

Cadence types remained virtually unchanged during the romantic period, but composers sometimes decorated their cadences in a more florid manner. In the post-romantic and impressionistic period, some cadences were simply highly decorated (and often camouflaged) traditional cadences. Others resembled a return to the linear cadences of the pre-baroque.

During the contemporary period, the idea of cadence formulae (distinct types such as authentic, half, etc.) became nearly extinct. Some composers of atonal (no tonal center) music employed interpretation markings (crescendo, loud dynamics, etc.) effectively to bring their compositions to a close. Others, in an effort to avoid stereotyped cadences, chose to allow their compositions to come to a halt without any hint of cadence.

Jazz and popular music frequently include traditional cadences similar to those studied in this text, but often disguised with substitutions and decorations. During the third quarter of the twentieth century, some creative jazz artists adapted free-tonal and atonal techniques to suit their improvisational styles. Free-tonal style permits free use of all 12 tones of the octave but maintains a tonal center. Atonal music contains no tonal center whatsoever. Figure 5.11 shows some traditional cadences that have been decorated.
Figure 5.11

Decorated Authentic:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>a.</th>
<th>b.</th>
<th>c.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G:</td>
<td>V⁷</td>
<td>I₆⁻⁶</td>
<td>Bb:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Figure 5.11a the dominant (V) is decorated with an eleventh and the tonic contains an added interval of a sixth above the bass note. In Figure 5.11b the tonic chord contains the intervals of a sixth and a ninth above the bass note. In Figure 5.11c the tonic chord contains a thirteenth (an octave plus a sixth) above the root.

Harmonic tones should be familiar to you by now. They are the chord tones: root, third, or fifth. Nonharmonic tones (nonchord tones) are pitches that sound along with a chord but are not chord pitches. Most nonharmonic tones are dissonant and create intervals of a second, fourth, or seventh. Diminished or augmented intervals are also considered dissonant. The dissonance created by nonharmonic tones is calculated against the lowest-sounding tone of a chord, no matter how many other voices are present. An exception occurs when the nonharmonic tone is positioned in the lowest-sounding voice itself (usually bass). Nonharmonic tones generally occur in a pattern of three pitches:

1. Preceding tone (chord tone)
2. Nonharmonic tone (not a chord tone)
3. Following tone (chord tone)

A few nonharmonic tones involve patterns of more than three pitches and will be discussed later in the chapter.

The various nonharmonic tones are named by the intervals between the preceding tone, the nonharmonic tone, and the following tone. Figure 5.12 shows the common three-tone patterns. The nonharmonic tone is circled in each case.

Figure 5.12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Passing Tone</th>
<th>Passing Tone</th>
<th>Neighboring Tone</th>
<th>Neighboring Tone</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(step) PT (step)</td>
<td>(step) PT (step)</td>
<td>(step) NT (step)</td>
<td>(step) NT (step)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape Tone</td>
<td>(step) ET (skip)</td>
<td>(skip) APP (step)</td>
<td>(common) SUS (step)</td>
<td>(common) RE (step)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anticipation</td>
<td>(step) ANT (common tone)</td>
<td>(step) ANT (common tone)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The most important distinction among the various nonharmonic tones is whether the dissonance occurs on the beat (accented) or off the beat (unaccented). Dissonances placed on the beat are much stronger and often create a powerful emotional impact, whereas those placed off the beat generally pass almost unnoticed smoothing out melodic lines. Some nonharmonic tones occur in both accented and unaccented contexts; others appear only as accented or as unaccented dissonances.

The common unaccented nonharmonic tones are the unaccented passing tone, unaccented neighboring tone, escape tone, and anticipation.

Figure 5.13 shows various unaccented passing tones in a four-voice texture. Figures 5.13a and 5.13b show single unaccented passing tones in descending and ascending patterns. Figures 5.13c–e show double unaccented passing tones in a variety of patterns.

Figure 5.14 shows various unaccented neighboring tones in a four-voice texture. Figures 5.14a and 5.14b show single unaccented neighboring tones. Figures 5.14c and 5.14d show double unaccented neighboring tones.

Escape tones occur only as unaccented nonharmonic tones. Figure 5.15 shows the most common pattern, in which a step upward is followed by a skip downward by a third.

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Anticipation

Anticipations occur only as unaccented nonharmonic tones. Figure 5.16 shows two common patterns.

Figure 5.16

All four of the unaccented nonharmonic tones (passing tone, neighboring tone, escape tone, and anticipation) appear in the Handel minuet excerpt shown in Figure 5.17.

Figure 5.17
Handel: Minuet in G Minor, G. 242, mm. 13–16.

The common accented nonharmonic tones are the accented passing tone, accented neighboring tone, suspension, retardation, and appoggiatura.

Figure 5.18 shows some accented passing tones in a four-voice texture. Compare the musical effect of these accented passing tones with the unaccented passing tones shown in Figure 5.13.
Figure 5.18

Accented Neighboring Tone

Figure 5.19 shows some accented neighboring tones in a four-voice texture. Compare them with the unaccented neighboring tones shown in Figure 5.14.

Figure 5.19

The excerpt by Verdi in Figure 5.20 includes both accented passing tones and accented neighboring tones.

Figure 5.20

Verdi: “Tu vedrai che amore” from Il Trovatore, mm. 1–5.
**Suspension**

The *suspension* occurs only as an accented nonharmonic tone. The melodic pattern of the suspension figure is always as follows: the preparation, the suspension, and the resolution (Figure 5.21).

**Figure 5.21**

![Figure 5.21](image_url)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preparation</th>
<th>Suspension</th>
<th>Resolution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>m6</td>
<td>m7</td>
<td>m6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consonant</td>
<td>Dissonant</td>
<td>Consonant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The suspended tone (the middle tone of the figure) is always dissonant. Suspensions are designated by the interval forming the suspended tone and resolution with the lowest sounding voice. Three common suspension types are shown in Figure 5.22.

**Figure 5.22**

![Figure 5.22](image_url)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>m6</td>
<td>m7</td>
<td>m6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consonant</td>
<td>Dissonant</td>
<td>Consonant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>m6</td>
<td>m7</td>
<td>m6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consonant</td>
<td>Dissonant</td>
<td>Consonant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>m6</td>
<td>m7</td>
<td>m6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consonant</td>
<td>Dissonant</td>
<td>Consonant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| e: 9 - 8 | 7 - 6 | 4 - 3 |

In determining the interval of suspension, the octave is usually removed. Thus 4–3 is used instead of 11–10. The exception is the 9–8 suspension.

Another common suspension is the 2–3 suspension. Whereas the suspension figure is in one of the upper voices in the three suspensions shown in Figure 5.22, in the 2–3 suspension the suspended tone is in the lower voice.

**Figure 5.23**

![Figure 5.23](image_url)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preparation</th>
<th>Suspension</th>
<th>Resolution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M3</td>
<td>M2</td>
<td>m3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The other voice (not containing the suspension figure) may move in almost any way as long as it provides the necessary preparation, suspension, and resolution phases for the suspension figure.

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CHAPTER 5  Cadences and Nonharmonic Tones

Figure 5.24

Suspending Voice:

Other Voice:  M3  M7  M6
Preparation  Suspension  Resolution

Remember that suspensions occur only between two voices—even in four-voice writing. You may ignore the other voices when considering the preparation, suspension, and resolution. The following are suspensions found in a four-voice setting.

Figure 5.25


b. Bach: “Was Gott tut, das ist wohlgetan” (“What God Does Is Well Done”), BWV 69a, mm. 3–4 (modified).

Suspensions can occur simultaneously in pairs, have decorated resolutions, occur in chains, or be accompanied by a changing bass line.

Figure 5.26

a. In pairs:

b. Decorated resolutions:

Consonance-Dissonance:  Con.  Diss. Con.
Interval: P8  P4  M3

Consonance-Dissonance:  Con.  Diss. Con.
Interval: P5  P4  M3
c. In chains:

\[ \text{F: IV I ii vi I}^6 IV IV^6 I \]

**Retardation**

A retardation is a nonharmonic tone similar to a suspension, except that the resolution is upward instead of downward.

**Figure 5.27**

The Haydn piano sonata excerpt that follows includes a suspension, an appoggiatura, and a retardation. Although the retardation in Figure 5.29 looks similar to a grace note, performance practice dictates that the retardation be performed on beat one—not before the beat.

**Appoggiatura**

The appoggiatura is a nonharmonic tone that is approached by skip and resolved by step in the opposite direction. It generally occurs as an accented nonharmonic tone.

**Figure 5.28**
Figure 5.29
Haydn: Sonata in A Major, Hob. XVI:30, II: Var. 1, mm. 14–16.

Compare the two phrases from Bach chorales shown in Figure 5.30. Figure 5.30a contains only unaccented nonharmonic tones, whereas 5.30b has three accented nonharmonic tones. The nonharmonic tones in 5.30a add rhythmic interest and make the voice leading smoother, but the dissonances in 5.30b are much more dramatic in effect and add considerable tension to the musical setting.

Figure 5.30


A few nonharmonic tones occur in patterns of four or more pitches. The most common are successive passing tones, changing tones, and the pedal tone.
**Successive Passing Tones**

Two passing tones occasionally fill an interval of a fourth. In such cases both the passing tones may be unaccented (Figure 5.31a) or they may be a combination of accented and unaccented passing tones (Figure 5.31b).

![Figure 5.31](image)

**Changing Tones**

Changing tones consist of two successive nonharmonic tones. The first leads by step from a chord tone, skips to another nonharmonic tone, and then leads by step to a chord tone (often the same chord tone). Other terms often used instead of changing tones are double neighboring tones or neighbor group. In many ways the two changing tones resemble neighboring tones with a missing (or perhaps implied) middle tone.

![Figure 5.32](image)

**Pedal Tone**

A pedal tone (also called a pedal point) is a held or repeated note, usually in the lowest voice, that alternates between consonance and dissonance with the chord structures above it. Thus, the dissonances are created by the moving chords above rather than the pedal tone itself. When a pedal tone occurs above other voices, it is called an inverted pedal tone.

![Figure 5.33](image)
Observe the successive passing tones, changing tones, and pedal tone in the concluding measures of an organ chorale prelude by Walther.

**Figure 5.34**


The following chart is a summary of nonharmonic tones studied in this chapter.

**Summary of Nonharmonic Tones**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Departure</th>
<th>Voice</th>
<th>Accented or Unaccented</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PT</td>
<td>Step</td>
<td>Step</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>May be either</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>Step</td>
<td>Step</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>May be either</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ET</td>
<td>Step</td>
<td>Skip</td>
<td>Soprano</td>
<td>Unaccented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANT</td>
<td>Prefer step</td>
<td>Same tone</td>
<td>Usually soprano</td>
<td>Unaccented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUS</td>
<td>Same pitch</td>
<td>Step down</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Accented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RE</td>
<td>Same pitch</td>
<td>Step up</td>
<td>Usually soprano</td>
<td>Accented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APP</td>
<td>Skip</td>
<td>Step</td>
<td>Usually soprano</td>
<td>Accented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Usually neither note accented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PED</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
<td>Usually bass</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>