Brazilian nationalistic elements in the Brasilianas of Osvaldo Lacerda

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BRAZILIAN NATIONALISTIC ELEMENTS IN THE BRASILIANAS
OF OSVALDO LACERDA

A Monograph

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Musical Arts

in

The School of Music

by

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M.M., Louisiana State University, 2002
December 2006
DEDICATION

This monograph is dedicated to my husband Líduino José Pitombeira de Oliveira, for being my inspiration and for encouraging me during these years of studies.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank Professor José Alberto Kaplan for his guidance and precious piano teaching in the years before my graduate studies; Professor Michael Gurt for his brilliance and exciting piano lessons and for his dedication in revising this monograph; my husband, Liduino José Pitombeira de Oliveira, for his constant assistance and clever advice; my parents, Célio Perdigão Di Cavalcanti and Amilde Bernardes Di Cavalcanti, for their love; my children, Roberto, Igor, and Caroline, for understanding how important music is to me; Jonas Evers, my grandson, for the good and relaxing moments; and my friend Joseph La Rosa for helping me with English grammar. I also thank composer Osvaldo Lacerda and pianist Eudóxia de Barros for their valuable support and information; Mr. Amaral and Mr. Nogueira, from Irmãos Vitale S/A Ind. and Com. and Ricordi Brasileira S.A., for authorizing the use of excerpts of Lacerda’s Brasilianas; and the members of my committee, Michael Gurt, Dr. Victoria Johnson, Dr. Robert Peck, Dr. Dinos Constantinides, and Dr. Andrew Sluyter. I also thank Dr. Willis Delony, a previous member of my committee, for revising parts of my monograph.
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ABSTRACT

Brazilian composer Osvaldo Lacerda (b. 1927) is an important figure in the Brazilian nationalist school of composition, following the tradition of Camargo Guarnieri. This study examines Brazilian nationalistic elements in the *Brasilianas*, a series of twelve suites for piano composed by Lacerda. These piano suites, written between 1965 and 1993, each comprise four movements, utilizing a wide variety of genres.

This monograph is divided into three chapters. The first chapter provides a background on Brazilian history and Brazilian musical nationalism. The second chapter consists of information about Lacerda. The third chapter contains historical aspects and musical characteristics of the genres used in the pieces followed by a brief analytical comment.
CHAPTER 1. MUSICAL NATIONALISM IN BRAZIL

1.1 Historical Background

Throughout its history, Brazil has been subject to various cultural influences. African, European, and native cultures have intermingled, resulting in the appearance of many new musical genres. A study of Brazilian history and cultural development can therefore help to provide a better understanding of those genres.

The territory that is now Brazil was originally occupied by more than five million native people, speaking more than a thousand languages.¹ Little is known about Brazilian history before 1500, when a Portuguese fleet, commanded by Pedro Álvares Cabral, landed in what is now Brazil, and claimed the territory for Portugal. Though Brazil was ruled by Portugal during the colonial period (1500–1822), other European countries, such as France, Holland, England, and Spain, tried to establish colonies in several parts of the Brazilian territory. The slave trade also brought many Africans to Brazil between 1555 and 1888, when slavery was abolished.

Brazil achieved independence from Portugal in 1822, when Dom Pedro I was proclaimed emperor. The imperial period ended in 1889, when Deodoro da Fonseca became the first president of the United States of Brazil.² The ensuing Republican period can be divided as follows: Old Republic (1889–1930), Vargas Republic (1930–1945), Nascent Democratic Republic (1945–1964), Military Dictatorship (1964–1985), and New Republic (1985 to present).

Brazilian music has its origin in the fusion of European traits, influenced by African and Indian elements during the colonial period. The Jesuit missionaries, who arrived in the 1550s, were culturally influential during the first years of coloniziation. The Jesuits taught the native

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¹ The website of the Brazilian National Indian Foundation provides useful information about the original inhabitants of Brazil. The address is <http://www.funai.gov.br/indios/conteudo.htm#>.
² The country’s name was changed to Federative Republic of Brazil, in 1967.
people how to play and manufacture European musical instruments, and they established Brazil’s first theatre (1555) and music conservatory (1559).

Musical activity increased considerably during the 1700s, a period called the “Gold Era,” when Brazil was producing 44% of the world’s supply of gold. This period saw the rise of the so-called *Barroco Mineiro* (baroque of Minas Gerais), which was actually more closely associated with pre-classical than with baroque style. At that time, nearly a thousand musicians were active in Brazil. The most important composer of this period was Lobo de Mesquita (ca. 1740–1805).

In 1808, Prince John and the Portuguese Royal Court fled the Napoleonic invasion, and arrived in Brazil. Prince John instituted important reforms that had a profound effect on Brazilian cultural life. In 1816, he created the Royal School of Sciences, Arts, and Crafts, which attracted important artists from Europe, including the composer Sigismund Neukomm (1778–1858), a pupil of Joseph Haydn. During the second half of 19th century, composers such as Carlos Gomes, Alexandre Levy, and Alberto Nepomuceno contributed to the development of Brazilian music. However, it was only after World War I that a collective sense of patriotism among Brazilian artists resulted in a nationalist movement, leading to the celebrated “Week of Modern Art.”

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5 Olsen and Sheehy, 302.
6 Ibid., 302-3.
1.2 Brazilian Musical Nationalism

In the beginning of the nineteenth century, European Romantic ideas were introduced into Brazilian political discourse, leading to Brazil’s desire to become independent from Portugal and laying the foundations for Brazil’s national self-realization.\(^8\) A significant musical result of Brazil’s burgeoning independent identity was the birth of the national opera during the 1850s.\(^9\) The foundation of The Academy of Imperial Music and National Opera, in 1857, was the first attempt to establish a national music with the use of the Portuguese language and nationalist subject matter.\(^10\) The first national opera, *A Noite de São João*, with music by the Brazilian composer Elias Lobo and text by the Brazilian writer José de Alencar, was performed in 1860.\(^11\) However, Italian music still dominated in the concert halls of Brazil from the middle of 19\(^{th}\) century to the beginning of 20\(^{th}\) century.\(^12\) Composers making significant contributions to Brazilian music during this period included Carlos Gomes (1836–1896), composer of the opera *O Guarani*, about an Amerindian character created by José de Alencar; Alexandre Levy (1864–1892), who introduced folk elements into his works, and Alberto Nepomuceno (1864–1920), who helped to establish the use of the Portuguese language in art songs.\(^13\) In spite of these composers’ efforts toward a Brazilian musical style, their works remained heavily influenced by European Romantic and post-Romantic music.\(^14\) This early phase of Brazilian nationalism can be seen as a precursor to the fuller awakening of Brazil’s musical self identity that was

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\(^8\) Ibid., 64-76.
\(^9\) Ibid., 77.
\(^11\) Kiefer, 81.
\(^12\) Verhaalen, 67.
\(^13\) Ibid., 68.
eventually manifested in the compositions of Heitor Villa-Lobos (1887–1959) and the aesthetic principles of Mário de Andrade (1893–1945).\textsuperscript{15}

Through his experience as a guitarist, Villa-Lobos gained an early familiarity with Brazilian popular music. In order to learn more about Brazilian folk and popular music, Villa-Lobos traveled to many rural areas of Brazil to collect folk songs. His research and musical experiences inspired Villa-Lobos, a mostly self-taught composer, to create an original compositional approach based on folk and popular elements of Brazilian music.\textsuperscript{16} One good example of Villa-Lobos’ use of Brazilian elements is \textit{Uirapuru} (1917), a symphonic poem using folk instruments, and inspired by an Amerindian story. Another such example is the \textit{Cirandas} (1926), a collection of piano pieces in which a different Brazilian folk melody is employed in each movement. Villa-Lobos’ career was an inspiration to subsequent generations of Brazilian composers.

Mário de Andrade, a Brazilian writer and musicologist, was an important figure in the creation of musical nationalism in Brazil during 1920s and 1930s.\textsuperscript{17} He taught music history and aesthetics in the Conservatory of Dramatic and Musical Arts of São Paulo, where he himself had studied as a young man. As a writer, he pioneered the modernist movement in Brazil with the book \textit{Paulicéia Desvairada}.\textsuperscript{18} In February of 1922, the development of modernism in Brazil culminated in the celebrated Week of Modern Art, a series of conferences, exhibitions, and concerts in São Paulo, organized by progressive literary figures, artists, and intellectuals, with

\textsuperscript{15} David Appleby, \textit{The Music of Brazil} (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1983), 116.
\textsuperscript{16} Ibid., 117.
the purpose of transforming Brazilian art from conservative academicism into modernismo. Andrade took an active part in this event as lecturer, and several works by Villa-Lobos were performed.

Andrade was one of the pioneers of ethnomusicology in Brazil, and his studies of Brazilian folk and popular music generated a great number of articles and essays. In 1928, he wrote the first manifesto of Brazilian musical nationalism, *Ensaio sobre a Música Brasileira*, in which he examines the characteristics of Brazilian popular music (rhythm, melody, texture, and instruments) and emphasizes the national elements that he felt should be used in nationalistic Brazilian art music. Another analytical study about the origins and social aspects of Brazilian music, written by Andrade in 1939, is the *Evolução Social da Música no Brasil*.

The Week of Modern Art inspired a number of composers to include national elements in their works. A representative list of such composers includes Luciano Gallet (1893–1931), Oscar Lorenzo Fernandez (1897–1948), Francisco Mignone (1897–1986), and Camargo Guarnieri (1907–1993). Guarnieri began his studies with Andrade in 1928. These studies, according to Guarnieri himself, were as intensive as a university curriculum: literature, sociology, philosophy, and art were intensively discussed.

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22 Verhaalen, 68-9.
23 Appleby, 116.
Guarnieri was one of the most productive Brazilian composers. He also worked towards the establishment of a national school of composition.\textsuperscript{25} His students include Aylton Escobar, Marlos Nobre, Almeida Prado, Sérgio Vasconcellos Corrêa, and Lacerda.

In 1950, Guarneri wrote a manifesto entitled “An Open Letter to the Musicians and Critics of Brazil.” This letter emphasized the responsibility of composers for the development of a national musical language, the dangers of formalism in music, and the anti-national character of dodecaphonism. Guarneri’s ideas stood in direct contrast to those of Hans Joachim Koellreutter (1915–2005), a German composer, flutist, and musicologist who had emigrated to Brazil in 1937. In 1939, Koellreutter had founded \textit{Música Viva}, a group of young composers dedicated to the study of contemporary compositional techniques, including the twelve-tone technique developed by Schoenberg. One month after the publication of the “Open Letter,” Koellreutter responded to Guarneri’s attack on his aesthetic principles with a strong public statement of his own, eventually leading to a rift between the students of the two composers. Interestingly, Guarneri eventually came to use quasi-serial techniques during the 1970s, in both his fourth and fifth piano concertos.

Some years after the exchange between Guarneri and Koellreutter, several musical movements, inspired by the ideas of Koellreutter, appeared in Brazil with the purpose of searching for new aesthetics and techniques. Though these groups dominated musical life in Brazil, the nationalist composers, led by Camargo Guarneri, continued their own path.\textsuperscript{26} Some

\textsuperscript{26} Neves, 137.
of Guarnieri’s students have become less influenced by nationalism, while others, like Osvaldo Lacerda, never abandoned the use of national elements in their compositions.\textsuperscript{27}

Brazilian nationalism is essentially neoclassical with respect to formal principles and language: it employs classical forms (suite, sonata, variations, etc) and traditional melodic and harmonic structures using elements of Brazilian folk music. It also shares characteristics with romanticism, such as a belief in inspiration, and a desire to communicate with the audience.\textsuperscript{28}

\begin{footnotesize}
\textsuperscript{27} Appleby, 170.
\textsuperscript{28} Neves, 192.
\end{footnotesize}
CHAPTER 2. OSVALDO LACERDA

Osvaldo Costa de Lacerda was born in São Paulo on March 23, 1927. He started his piano studies at the age of nine with Ana Veloso de Resende, and continued with Maria dos Anjos Oliveira Rocha and José Kliass. From 1945 to 1947, he studied harmony and counterpoint with Ernesto Kierski and, in the late 1940s, he studied vocal technique with Olga Urbany de Ivanow, a singer exiled from Russia.¹

His first attempts at composition occurred very early in life, but it was not until 1949 that he decided to pursue a career in composition. In 1952, after studying independently for three years, Lacerda began private composition lessons with Guarnieri. Lacerda worked with Guarnieri from 1952 to 1962, achieving the mastery of several compositional techniques, such as theme and variations, invention, and fugue. Through Guarnieri, Lacerda maintained a deep and constant contact with Brazilian folk music, because Guarnieri was a researcher in this field and thus collected many folk melodies.²

In 1963, Lacerda came to the USA, where he studied composition with Vittorio Giannini and Aaron Copland. In May 1965, Lacerda was chosen by the Brazilian Minister of International Relations to represent Brazil at the Inter-American Composers Seminar held at Indiana University, and at the Third Inter-American Music Festival in Washington D.C. In the late 1970s, Lacerda studied orchestration with Roberto Schnorrenberg.

¹ This biographical information was provided by Lacerda’s wife, the pianist Eudóxia de Barros, through e-mail. Eudóxia de Barros, “re: Enviando Dados Biográficos de Osvaldo Lacerda,” [e-mail]; from eudoxia@eudoxiadebarros.com.br received at dudadicavalcanti@yahoo.com, 13 October 2005. The article on Lacerda in the New Grove Dictionary was also useful. Gerard Béhague: “Lacerda, Osvaldo,” Grove Music Online (Accessed 08 July 2006), <http://www.grovemusic.com.libezp.lib.lsu.edu/shared/views/article.html?section=music.15771>.

Lacerda is the founder of the “Sociedade Paulista de Arte,” the “Sociedade Pró Música Brasileira,” and the “Centro de Música Brasileira,” all of which still contribute to the development of music in Brazil. Lacerda also played an important role in Brazilian musical pedagogy, and his music theory books are well known and widely used.

Lacerda was awarded First Prize in the Brazilian National Competition with his orchestral suite *Piratininga* (1962). He also won “Best Symphonic Work of the Year 1994” with *Cromos* for piano and orchestra, and was awarded the trophy “Guarani” as “Personality of the Year,” by the Cultural Secretary of the State of São Paulo, in 1997. Lacerda has been a member of the *Academia Brasileira de Música* since 1972.

Lacerda’s nationalistic idiom follows the style of Guarnieri. Both composers, like many Brazilian artists, were influenced by the ideas of the Brazilian writer and musicologist Andrade. According to Andrade, Brazilian national music should reflect ethnic musical characteristics found in popular music.³ Folk musical elements such as themes, motives, rhythms, modes, and forms can be used as source materials for composition. Guarnieri taught his students that folk elements should exist in the composer’s mind to be used naturally, not directly, as a “strange” element in the music, but blended and transformed by the composer. According to Guarnieri, “The folk element must be integrated in the composition as well as in the composer’s mind.”⁴ Thus, the composer, instead of being a folklorist, becomes an “unconscious” nationalist.⁵

Lacerda is a significant composer of songs, and his output includes many settings of texts by Brazilian writers. His musical language is characterized by clear and simple writing, avoiding

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³ This term was used by composer Almeida Prado, a former student of Guarnieri, in an interview with Matheus Bitondi, available at <http://p.php.uol.com.br/tropico/html/textos/2492,1.shl>.
complexities and technical difficulties for the performer. Lacerda also incorporated atonality and contemporary treatment of harmony and rhythm within his musical language. One important characteristic of Lacerda’s music is the use of the Brazilian northeastern mode, which consists of the Mixolydian mode with a raised fourth scale degree.⁶

Lacerda composed orchestral music, chamber music, songs, choral music, and piano music; a list of his works is given in the appendix. The *Brasilianas* (1965–1993), a collection of twelve piano suites in which Lacerda uses Brazilian nationalistic elements, will be discussed in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER 3. THE BRASILIANAS

3.1 General Considerations

The Brasilianas (1965–1993),¹ a collection of twelve piano suites, are representative of Lacerda’s nationalistic idiom. Three of the suites are for piano four hands and nine for piano solo. For each Brasiliana Lacerda employs four genres with a variety of characters and moods. Lacerda collected folk songs and dances from different parts of Brazil, and presented those elements in a sophisticated manner. Table 3.1 shows the genres employed by Lacerda in the Brasilianas.

Table 3.1. Genres used in the Brasilianas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brasiliana No. 1</td>
<td>Dobrado</td>
<td>1965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Modinha</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mazurca</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marcha de Rancho</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brasiliana No. 2</td>
<td>Romance</td>
<td>1966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chote</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moda</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Cóco</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Brasiliana No. 3</td>
<td>Cururu</td>
<td>1967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rancheria</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acalanto</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quadrilha</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Brasiliana No. 4</td>
<td>Dobrado</td>
<td>1968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Embolada</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seresta</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Candomblé</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Brasiliana No. 5</td>
<td>Desafio</td>
<td>1969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Valsa</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lundá</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cana-verde</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Brasiliana No. 6</td>
<td>Roda</td>
<td>1971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ponto</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Toada</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Baião</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brasiliana No. 7</td>
<td>Samba</td>
<td>1976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Valsa</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pregão</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arrasta-pé</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Brasiliana No. 8</td>
<td>Canto de Trabalho</td>
<td>1980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frevo</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Abôio</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Terno de Zumbumba</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Brasiliana No. 9</td>
<td>Ponteio</td>
<td>1984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Polca</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bendito</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Forró</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Brasiliana No. 10</td>
<td>Cantoria</td>
<td>1987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recortado</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Canto de Cego</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marchinha</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brasiliana No. 11</td>
<td>Tango</td>
<td>1989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maxixe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chôro</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Polca Sertaneja</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brasiliana No. 12</td>
<td>Cateretê</td>
<td>1993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Canto de Bebida</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Canção</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maracatú</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2 Brasiliana No. 1

Brasiliana No. 1 was composed in 1965, employing the following genres: dobrado, modinha, mazurca, and marcha de rancho. The dobrado is a type of military march in moderate tempo. European military marches, after being adapted by different local cultures, originated three genres: pás-redoublé (France), pasodoble (Spain), and marcha militar de passo dobrado (Portugal). The last of these was introduced in Brazil and became the dobrado. References of it can be found in the repertoire of the Bands of the National Guard as early as 1831. Originally for military band, the structure of the dobrado consists of a canto (main melody), a contracanto (secondary melody), a centro (accompaniment), and a marcação (bass line plus percussion). Each one of these elements is associated with a specific group of instruments (shown in Table 3.2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Canto</th>
<th>Flute, Clarinet, and Trumpet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contracanto</td>
<td>Sax tenor and Euphonium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centro</td>
<td>Horn or other instrument (except Tuba)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marcação</td>
<td>Tuba and Bass drum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The formal structure can be usually described as follows: (1) a short introduction; (2) the first part, in which the main melody is presented; (3) a section called forte, in which the low brass instruments play the main melody; (4) the first part restated; and (5) the trio, in the subdominant, sometimes preceded by a short bridge.

The term dobrado also designates a type of march used in the parades of the danças dramáticas, such as congos, caboclinhos, chegança de mouros, chegança de marujos, pastoril,

---


4 Fred Dantas: “A Filarmônica Hoje.”
and boi-bumbá.\textsuperscript{5} The dobrado used in the danças dramáticas has a text. One could infer, based on the detailed description of the chegãncas de marujos given by Renato de Almeida, that this type of dobrado was probably influenced by the Portuguese marcha.\textsuperscript{6} Figure 3.1 shows a folk dobrado collected by Andrade and used in the pastoril.\textsuperscript{7}

\begin{figure}[ht]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\linewidth]{fig3.1.png}
\caption{Dobrado das Pastorinhas}
\end{figure}

Lacerda’s “Dobrado” does not have an introduction and a trio, and it is constructed in ABA’ form. The traditional first part corresponds to the A section (in G major), in which the main melody (canto) is played by the pianist’s right hand, while the left hand plays a compound melody in staccato notes with the double function of centro and marcação. Figure 3.2 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Dobrado.”

\textsuperscript{5} Dança dramática (dramatic dance) is a term created by Andrade to designate a collection of dances connected by the same subject. It can have dramatic representation or not. The dança dramática has two parts: one stationary and one mobile. The dobrado belongs to the latter. The dança dramática is also known as auto and folguedo. Marcondes, 231-2.


\textsuperscript{7} Mário de Andrade, Danças Dramáticas do Brasil, Tomo I, 2a. Ed. (São Paulo: Editora Itatiaia Limitada, 1982), 370.
Figure 3.2. Opening of Lacerda’s “Dobrado”

The ensuing B section (in E minor), in which the left hand takes the melodic role and is accompanied by the right hand’s staccato upbeats, corresponds both texturally and formally with the aforementioned forte section. The composer indicates “salientando a mão esquerda,” which means “emphasize the left hand.” Figure 3.3 shows the end of the A section and the first three measures of the B section. Section A is recapitulated almost literally in measure 38. The two differences between A and A’ are the anacrusis (compare Figures 3.2 and 3.4) and an augmented sixth sonority that appears at the end (the A♮ that appears in the bass in the second measure of Figure 3.3 is replaced by an A♭ at the end). Figure 3.4 shows the end of the B section and the beginning of the recapitulation of the A section.

Figure 3.3. The end of section A and beginning of section B of the “Dobrado”

Figure 3.4. The end of section B and beginning of the recapitulation of section A
The *dobrado* is usually in 4/4, with regular phrase structure. It has the following distinctive rhythmic characteristics, which are also found in Lacerda’s “Dobrado:” (1) a sporadic dotted-eighth-plus-sixteenth figure usually followed by eighth notes (see third measure of Figure 3.2 and fourth measure of Figure 3.4); (2) ornamented trills played by flute and piccolo (see second measure of Figure 3.3); (3) broken triads in triplets (see third measure of Figure 3.5); (4) “walking” bass played by the tuba (this can be seen in all figures); (5) upbeat accompaniment in eighth notes (see third measure of Figure 3.3 and first measure of Figure 3.5); and (6) groups of two sixteenth notes in downbeat or upbeat position usually preceded and/or followed by eighth notes (see third measure of Figure 3.3 and first and second measures of Figure 3.5).

![Figure 3.5. A passage in section B showing the use of triplets and sixteenth notes in the accompaniment](image)

The second movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliiana No. 1* is entitled “Modinha.” The *modinha* is a romantic song whose country of origin is the subject of controversy. Some authors, like Tinhorão, state that the *modinha* is the first Brazilian song genre of popular origin, introduced in Portugal in 1775 by Domingos Caldas Barbosa. Others, like Marcos Marcondes, believe it comes from the Portuguese *moda*, a generic term for song or melody. The word *modinha* is a diminutive of *moda*, which means fashion. During the Second Empire in Brazil

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9 Marcondes, 525.
(1831–1889), the *modinha* acquired certain similarities with the Italian opera aria.\(^{10}\) The main characteristics of the *modinha* are: (1) a lyrical, sentimental, and mellow character; (2) frequent use of minor keys; (3) a non-standardized form although AB and ABA designs abounded; (4) scoring for voice and guitar (or piano); and (5) an evolution from duple to triple in the 19\(^{th}\) century, and later to quadruple meter (due to the influence of the schottische),\(^{11}\) though the great majority of the popular *modinhas* are in triple meter.\(^{12}\)

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minor mode, in 2/4, and the composer indicates the character *queixoso* (sad and hurt). The melodic line is mostly descending, which, according to Souza, is a characteristic of Brazilian folk music (see how the left hand melodic line moves down an octave in Fig. 3.6). The *legato* articulation and the stepwise motion of a song-like melody suggest a connection with the original format of the *modinha*.

The third movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 1* is entitled “Mazurca.” The word *mazurca* is the Portuguese spelling for *mazurka*, a folk dance in triple time from the province of Mazovia, in Poland. Performed by dancers in couples, named *mazurs*, the mazurkas were originally accompanied by a *dudy*, a type of bagpipe. Although common traits are found in all folk mazurkas (rhythm in triple time, accent shifted to the weak beats of the bar, rubato, pentatonic and modal scales, etc.), various characters and tempo distinguish the three different types: the *mazur*, in moderate tempo, the *kujawiak*, generally lyrical in slower tempo, and usually in minor key, and the *obertas*, the quickest of the three.

Frédéric Chopin, who wrote more than 50 mazurkas, combined national Polish folk idioms with art music. Chopin’s *Mazurkas* usually consist of three or four contrasting sections, with irregular accents on the second or third beat, sometimes using modal elements (c.f. Op. 41, No. 1) and pentatonic elements (c.f. Op. 17, No. 3 and No. 5), and frequently using a drone bass and grace notes.

The *mazurka*, and other salon dances from Europe, became popular in Brazil in the second half of the 19th century, when the military bands started playing them for the Sunday

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concerts. In addition, popular balls, modeled on the masquerade balls of Paris, brought fashionable European dances into the social life of imperial Rio de Janeiro. The mazurka is still present in the folk music of Brazil, especially in the states of Pernambuco, Alagoas, and Pará. It became part of Brazilian folk dance and music while incorporating some local characteristics. The Brazilian mazurca is found in recordings of popular musicians, like Luiz Gonzaga, and in popular celebrations, like the marujada de bragança (a Catholic festival for the day of Saint Benedict the Black), in which men and women dance accompanied by banjo, violin, and drums.

Table 3.3. Form of Chopin’s Mazurka Op. 7, No. 1 and Lacerda’s “Mazurca” from Brasiliana No. 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>25</th>
<th>33</th>
<th>45</th>
<th>53</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Section</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A’</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>A’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key</td>
<td>B♭</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>B♭</td>
<td>G♭</td>
<td>B♭</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chopin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lacerda</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lacerda’s Mazurca and Chopin’s Mazurka Op. 7, No. 1 have similar melodic gestures: one can see in Figures 3.8 and 3.9 that the opening gestures of both pieces move from F to B♭ and their melodic lines move upward. The two mazurkas also share harmonic features. Both pieces are in B♭ major and modulate to G♭ major, although the form of Chopin’s Mazurka is more extended and features a larger section in the dominant area (see Table 3.3). Despite significant melodic and harmonic similarities, however, Chopin’s Mazurka and Lacerda’s “Mazurca” contrast stylistically: Lacerda, unlike Chopin, does not indicate the use of rubato, and

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Lacerda’s “Mazurca” emphasizes mostly the downbeat whereas Chopin’s *Mazurka* tends to emphasize the second and third beats.

The last movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 1* is entitled “Marcha de Rancho.” The *marcha de rancho* is a type of slow march, usually in 4/4, originally performed during the
carnival parades. Figure 3.10 shows the rhythmic pattern of the *marcha de rancho* played by percussion instruments (the muffled bass drum creates an accent). The *rancho* is an organized group of people (similar to a Mardi-Gras krewe) who celebrate the carnival together, and have a specific song to represent them during the festivities. The composers of these *marchas de rancho* tended to elaborate them in order to give prominence to their group, adding wind and brass instruments and choir to the original percussion accompaniment. The oldest example of *marcha de rancho* (also known as *marcha-rancho*) is probably “Moreninha” by Eduardo Souto (1882–1942), first recorded in 1927. The melodic line of the *marcha de rancho* is *cantabile* in character, with many appoggiaturas and syncopations.

![Rhythmic pattern of the marcha-rancho](image)

**Figure 3.10. Rhythmic pattern of the marcha-rancho**

Lacerda’s “Marcha de Rancho” is in AB form. The A section is in the minor mode and the B section in the parallel major key. Both sections have two subsections (a, a₁, b, and b₁), and the piece ends with a short coda. Figure 3.11 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Marcha de Rancho.” The melody is embellished with appoggiaturas and syncopations, and receives a varied treatment. An interesting feature is the C♯ that appears constantly in the bass line creating an accent on the second and fourth beats, corresponding to the original muffled bass drum (see

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20 The *rancho* was originally a group that used to march during the Christmas’ parades. Marcondes, 663.
21 Ibid., 478.
Fig. 3.10). In the $b_1$ section, the texture becomes contrapuntal. This section presents a performance challenge in measure 31: the stretch of a tenth, as it appears in the third measure of the right hand of Figure 3.12, is uncomfortable, or even impossible, for many hands. One solution here would be to use the pedal for the first G (right hand) and then untie and play the second G without pedal allowing the staccato articulation of the left hand.

![Figure 3.11. Opening of Lacerda’s “Marcha de Rancho”](image)

![Figure 3.12. Lacerda’s “Marcha de Rancho,” mm. 29-32](image)

### 3.3 Brasiliana No. 2

*Brasiliana No. 2* was composed in 1966 and employs the following genres: *romance*, *chote*, *moda*, and *côco*. The *romance*, also known as *ballad*, is a strophic narrative song, usually in four rhymed eight-syllable lines, derived from the epic poems of the Middle Ages in France and Spain.\(^{22}\) The *romance* was very popular in Portugal during the 16\(^{th}\) century, when the form

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was brought to Brazil and gradually transformed into a national genre. Stories about animals and famous heroes inspired the Brazilian romances (also called xácaras), in which the melody is simple and unchanged throughout the various stanzas. The form is predominantly found in northeastern Brazil. Figure 3.13 shows an original folk melody called Romance do Boi Surubi.

![Figure 3.13. Romance do Boi Surubi](image)

Lacerda’s use of a Theme and Variation form in his “Romance” is perhaps an attempt to create variety while simultaneously preserving the sameness inherent in the melodic construction of the original romances. Figure 3.14 shows the theme of Lacerda’s “Romance,” which is presented unaccompanied and followed by four variations. Tempo, meter, melody, and harmony are varied throughout the piece. Noteworthy are the extensive use of the Neapolitan chord in the variations and the uneven phrase-lengths.

![Figure 3.14. Theme of Lacerda’s “Romance”](image)

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24 Ibid.
In the first variation, the theme starts in the left hand. It retains the meter, though the tempo is faster and the variation is two measures longer than the theme. The second variation is even faster, and its main feature is the use of different meters that result in a shift of the downbeat. This variation is seven measures longer than the theme. The third variation is a little slower than the second, is mostly in triple meter, and includes *rubato*. The fourth variation varies the theme by melodic fragmentation. The third and fourth variations are four measures longer than the theme. Table 3.4 summarizes the main characteristics of the variations. The piece ends with an imperfect authentic cadence.26 According to José Geraldo de Souza, this is an important characteristic of the Brazilian folk melodies.27

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Var.</th>
<th>Tempo</th>
<th>Meter</th>
<th>Length (measures)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>3/4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>Alternated (5/8, 3/4, and 2/4)</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>152, with <em>rubato</em></td>
<td>3/4</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>152, measured</td>
<td>Mostly 3/4</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 2* is entitled “Chote.” The *chote* is the Brazilian equivalent of the *schottische*, which is a round dance, probably of German origin in 2/4 time, like a *polka*, but slower with the effect of 4/4.28 The *schottische* was known in several European countries in the 1850s. In Spain, it was called *chotis* and in Portugal, *choutiça*. José Maria Toussaint brought it to Brazil in 1851.29 It started as a salon dance of the aristocratic balls, became popular in several regions of Brazil, and influenced several other dances. In Brazil it

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27 Souza, 4.
29 Marcondes, 837.
acquired different spellings: chótis, xótis, xote, and chote. Figure 3.15 shows a Brazilian folk chote. In the popular and folk music of northeastern Brazil, one finds chotes whose rhythmic patterns are shown in Figure 3.16.

Lacerda’s “Chote” is in ABA’ form. A is in E♭ major and B in C minor. Because the piece is in 2/2, the rhythmic figurations shown in Figure 3.16 appear, with some variation, in augmented form. Figure 3.17 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Chote.” Note the similarity between the rhythm of the second and fifth measures (right hand) and that shown in augmented form in Figure 3.16b. Similarly, the rhythm of measure eight (left hand) is an augmentation of Figure 3.16a.

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The third movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 2* is entitled “Moda.” The *moda*, also known as *moda caipira*, *moda paulista*, or *moda-de-viola*, is a type of song sung in thirds by two *cantadores* playing the *viola*. It is found in the rural areas of São Paulo, Minas Gerais, Mato Grosso, Goiás, and Rio de Janeiro, and differs from the Portuguese *moda*, which is a generic term for song or melody. Its simple melody and its narrative text suggest the influence of the *romance*. The melodic material is predominantly in the Ionian mode, and it lacks the melodic progression from the leading tone to the tonic. In the *modas*, it is common to have an introduction and a conclusion. The introduction, called *levante*, includes text and is usually based on the same (or slightly different) melody as the core of the *moda* itself. The conclusion, called *alto* or *baixão*, also includes text and is sung in falsetto. There is also an instrumental...

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31 *Cantador* is a type of troubadour. A *viola* is an instrument with five or six double metal strings tuned similarly to the guitar. Cascudo, *Dicionário do Folclore Brasileiro*, 236 and 909.

32 D’Assumpção, 159.

33 In the examples of *modas* I perused, the majority of the melodic lines always end in a descending motion with the last upper note on the third scale degree.
intermezzo between the strophes. Figure 3.18 shows a folk *moda* transcribed by Clorinda Rosato.\(^{34}\) Note the use of quintuplets to accommodate the prosody.

![Figure 3.18. Adeus, Campina da Serra](image)

Lacerda’s “Moda” is in ABA’ form. One can trace a parallel between the folk *moda* and Lacerda’s “Moda” considering the A section as the introduction, the B section as the *moda* itself, and the A’ section the conclusion, which is in a higher register probably in imitation of the falsetto. The pitch content of the melodic line of the A section, shown in Figure 3.19, reveals Lacerda’s compositional craftsmanship.\(^{35}\)

![Figure 3.19. Symmetrical relationships in the melody of the A section of Lacerdas’s “Moda”](image)

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\(^{35}\) The graph shown in Figure 3.19 is not a Schenkerian reduction but has the only purpose of showing symmetrical relationships within the pitch content of the melodic line.
This melodic line contains an ABA’ structure generated by minor thirds. These thirds are expanded and prolonged through the use of palindromes and repetitions. This section also contains fragments (labeled 1, 2, 3 and 4 in Figure 3.19) that will be used throughout the piece, after being transformed by transposition and/or chromatic alterations. The third relationship can also be found in the large-scale modal areas of the piece shown in Figure 3.20. Section A is in F♯ Ionian; section B, with the fastest rate of change in the piece, moves from A, C, E♭, and F♯ Ionian, which is also the mode of the last section (A’).

![Figure 3.20. Large-scale modal areas of Lacerdas’s “Moda”](image)

![Figure 3.21. Opening of the A section of Lacerdas’s “Moda”](image)
The use of quintuplets, sometimes found in the folk *moda* (see Figure 3.18), is also represented by Lacerda through the use of 5/8 meters sometimes followed by a 2/4 or 4/4 with *ritenuto*, which reinforces the psychological impression of faster notes in quintuplet. Figures 3.21, 3.22, and 3.23 show the opening of section A, the opening of section B, and the opening of section A’ of Lacerda’s “Moda,” respectively. \(^{36}\) Note the intermittent chords that appear in the piece, as a kind of *recitativo* accompaniment. These chords probably represent the *cantadores* playing the *viola* when performing a *moda*.

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\(^{36}\) In these figures, \((1 + m3)\) means the first fragment transposed up a minor third, \((3 + m3)’\) means the third fragment transposed up a minor third but with slight adjustments in the pitch content to accommodate with the key area (the same procedure is used in the tonal answer of a fugue, for example).
The last movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 2* is entitled “Côco.” The *coco* (literally coconut) is a folk dance, in 2/4 or 4/4, of African origin, found in northeastern Brazil. The *coco* has a happy character with vivid rhythm. Cascudo feels that the choreography in this dance was influenced by Amerindian culture. The dance is characterized by hand clapping (or by a drum and a rattle) and by responsorial singing, in which the soloist is known as *tirador de coco*. The form is strophic verse-refrain with variable length, and the repeated refrain has shorter text than the strophes. The melody makes extensive use of repeated notes. The *coco* originated in the state of Alagoas, probably during the 16th century, as a work song of the black rebel slaves in the *quilombos*. Figure 3.24 shows the folk *coco* Capim da Lagoa.

![Figure 3.24. Capim da Lagoa](image-url)

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38 Cascudo, *Dicionário do Folclore Brasileiro*, 292.
40 In the African language Yoruba, *quilombo* means housing. The Brazilian *quilombos* were communities that were constituted out of the struggle of rebel slaves during the centuries of slavery, as territories of housing, resistance and social organization. “Quilombos: Understanding Its Meaning” (Accessed 19 May 2006) <http://www.cohre.org/quilombos/eng/eng-02.htm>.
As a dance, it originated in the engenhos,\textsuperscript{41} gradually moving into aristocratic circles and later reverting back to folk manifestations.\textsuperscript{42} The coco is found in two main geographically oriented forms: coco-do-sertão and coco-de-praia.\textsuperscript{43} While the former changed little from its original model, the latter received more influences and evolved more noticeably.\textsuperscript{44} Those influences included methods of dancing, singing, or use of text. Traditionally, the coco was accompanied by percussion only. Additional instruments such as viola, sanfona, and pife (as an instrument of the banda cabaçal) appeared throughout its evolution.\textsuperscript{45}

Lacerda’s “Côco” has the form ABA’B’, in which the composer labels A as the strophic verse and B as the refrain. The A section is in A major and the B section in A minor. In comparing Lacerda’s “Côco” with the folk coco, one notes that the section corresponding to the strophic verse (A) is melodically more developed and extended in Lacerda’s version, while the section corresponding to the refrain (B) is simpler and shorter. The staccato notes in section B help to create the marcato and light character of the coco. Also, in the A section, Lacerda seems to represent a soloist (tirador de coco) with a richer instrumental accompaniment, even using contrapuntal writing, similar to what happens in the folk coco-do-sertão, while in the B section, the textural reduction makes the unison “choir” of the refrain more prominent than the instrumental accompaniment. The return to A, one octave higher, resembles the use of high pitch instruments, such as the pife. The condensed form of the A’ and B’ sections shows Lacerda’s artistic use of melodic fragments. Figures 3.25 and 3.26 show the opening of sections

\textsuperscript{41}Engenhos are sugar cane processing farms. Sugar cane became the basis of Brazilian economy in the 17\textsuperscript{th} century.
\textsuperscript{42}Giffoni, 141.
\textsuperscript{43}Duarte, 33. Praia means beach and a translation for sertão could be backwoods.
\textsuperscript{44}Giffoni, 144.
\textsuperscript{45}Sanfona means accordion. A pife is a rudimentary bamboo flute. The banda cabaçal is an instrumental ensemble comprising 1 zabumba (a kind of bass drum), 1 caixa (a kind of snare drum), and 2 pifes. Duarte, 117-21.
A and B, respectively. The first and third measures of the left hand in Figure 3.25 show rhythmic patterns used in the percussion instruments of coco.

Figure 3.25. Opening of Lacerda's “Côco”

Figure 3.26. Ending of Section A and Opening of Section B of Lacerda’s “Côco”

3.4 Brasiliana No. 3

*Brasiliana No. 3* was composed in 1967 and employs the following genres: *cururú, rancheira, acalanto* and *quadrilha*. The *cururu* is a round dance of Amerindian origin accompanied by songs in the major mode, in 2/4 meter, and includes *desaño*. The word *cururu* in the Tupi-Guarani language means toad. The first ethnomusicological reference to this dance was probably made by Karl von den Steinen, in Cuiabá (capital of Mato Grosso), in 1887. The *cururu* is performed exclusively by men, and is connected to the popular religious festivities of São Paulo, Mato Grosso, and Goiás. The Jesuits were probably responsible for its

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46 Marcondes, 226-7 and Rossini Tavares de Lima, *Folclore de São Paulo: Melodia e Ritmo*, 2nd Ed. (São Paulo: Ricordi, 1961), 9 and 22. The word *desaño* means literally challenge. The *desaño* involves the alternating singing of two *cantadores*. Some of the songs used in the *cururu* are called *toadas*. The *toada* will be discussed in *Brasiliana No. 6*.

47 Marcondes, 226-7.
introduction into these religious festivities.\textsuperscript{48} The text can be sacred (called \textit{função}) or profane. Its original structure consists of (1) \textit{Louvação} – a kind of introduction (also used to close the dance) sung in parallel thirds, sometimes in falsetto, in which the \textit{cantador} hails the Saints and the host; (2) \textit{Bateção} – a kind of teasing and mocking of one of the participants of the circle, usually through \textit{desafio}; and (3) \textit{Perguntação} - the \textit{desafio} of two \textit{cantadores}.\textsuperscript{49} The most commonly-used instruments are the \textit{viola de cocho} and the \textit{adufe}.\textsuperscript{50} Figure 3.27 shows an example of a \textit{cururu} collected by Rossini Tavares de Lima.\textsuperscript{51} In the examples of \textit{cururu} that I examined, there are similarities with the \textit{moda} with respect to the parallel thirds and the use of the seventh scale degree: whereas in the \textit{moda} there is no movement from the leading tone to the tonic, in the \textit{cururu}, this movement, when it occurs, exists only in the final cadence and in the lower note of the parallel thirds. Lima also collected several rhythmic patterns played by the \textit{viola}.\textsuperscript{52} These are shown in Figure 3.28.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{cururu.png}
\caption{Figure 3.27. \textit{Cururu}}
\end{figure}

\textsuperscript{48} Ibid. \\
\textsuperscript{49} Ibid. \\
\textsuperscript{50} A \textit{viola de cocho} is a type of guitar that is sculpted entirely in a block of wood. An \textit{adufe} is a type of tambourine. “Danças e Música Regionais,” (Accessed 20 May 2006) < http://www.brasilnoar.com.br/MT/mt_dancas.asp>. \\
\textsuperscript{51} Lima, 31. \\
\textsuperscript{52} Ibid., 33.
Lacerda’s “Cururú” is a Theme and Variations for the left hand (the right hand appears only in the last variation knocking on the piano wood), in which folk characteristics of the cururu appear in the theme and in the fourth variation. These characteristics include duple meter, the use of parallel thirds at the beginning and at the end resembling the louvação (which in the folk cururu also happens at the beginning and at the end), the major mode, the rhythmic patterns shown in Figure 3.28, and a simple harmonic structure. The exclusive use of the left hand can be in itself the depiction of a folk characteristic because the cururu is performed only by men. Figure 3.29 shows the theme and part of Variation I of Lacerda’s “Cururú.”
In Variations I, II, and III, even though Lacerda uses fragments of the theme, there is freedom in the melodic and harmonic treatment. The parallel thirds are rarely used in those variations but reappear in the fourth. Variation I retains the tempo and meter of the theme, but extends the melody with the use of chromatic notes and additional harmonic passages. Variations II and III go even further, using a different tempo, varied rhythmic figures, and more complex harmony; thereby blurring the thematic connections. The last variation returns to duple meter and moderato tempo, regaining the *cururu’s* character while stressing its rhythm, and depicting the folk percussion instruments by the use of knocking on the wood of the piano. It is written in the treble clef, perhaps to depict the falsetto used in the *louvação*. Figure 3.30 shows the opening of the fourth variation.

![Opening of Variation IV of Lacerda’s “Cururú”](image)

**Figure 3.30. Opening of Variation IV of Lacerda’s “Cururú”**

The second movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 3* is entitled “Rancheira.” The *rancheira* is a dance in triple meter derived from the *mazurka*. The dance comes from the Rio Grande do Sul, and can also be found in Argentina and Uruguay.\(^{53}\) Despite its connections with the *mazurka*, the *rancheira* sounds like a fast and lively rustic waltz. It is associated with the *fandango,\(^{54}\) along with other dances such as the *anu, balaio, chimarrita, chula, pericom, tatu,*

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\(^{54}\) Marcondes, 276 and 663. In Spain, the *fandango* is a dance that alternates singing and dancing, whereas in Brazil, *fandango* is a festivity that includes several dances (in the South) or a dramatic dance (in the Northeast). Almeida, 173-4.
and tirana. These are all round dances with hand-clapping, shoe-tapping and finger-snapping.\textsuperscript{55} The instruments used in the dances of the Fandango are: \textit{viola, adufe, pandeiro, and accordion} (called \textit{gaita} in Rio Grande do Sul, the \textit{accordion} is the main melodic instrument for the \textit{rancheira}).\textsuperscript{56}

Lacerda’s “Rancheira” is in ABA’ form; it uses chromaticism and some degree of polytonality. Figure 3.31 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Rancheira” with indications of implied harmony, foreign chords, and chromatic gestures, which are beamed with dotted lines. Lacerda’s “Rancheira” emphasizes the downbeat by the use of pedal and slur. The lively character of the piece is accomplished by the use of staccato and fast tempo while the rustic quality is realized by the use of dissonant harmonies. Lacerda also uses hemiola to create the feeling of duple meter or 3/2. This rhythmic ambiguity is also found in the Viennese waltzes, and in the music of Brahms and Schumann.\textsuperscript{57} Figure 3.32 shows two excerpts of Lacerda’s “Rancheira” in which hemiolas are employed (the hemiolas are indicated with brackets).

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure3_31.png}
\caption{Opening of Lacerda’s “Rancheira”}
\end{figure}


\textsuperscript{56} Ibid.


35
The third movement of Lacerda’s Brasiliana No. 3 is entitled “Acalanto.” The acalanto is a lullaby. The word acalanto was used for the first time by Brazilian composer Luciano Gallet (1893–1931). In Brazil, the majority of the acalantos are of Portuguese origin, and many were transmitted through oral tradition. However, one can find acalantos in which African words are mixed with Portuguese. The acalantos of Amerindian origin are sweet and involve mystical elements in the text. One commonly finds melismatic passages in which the text consists of vowels at the end of the acalanto to create monotony, which makes the child sleep easily. Other characteristics of the acalanto are simple melody, small range, use of onomatopoeia, monotony, and often the use of texts that incorporate fear. Figure 3.33 shows an example of a traditional acalanto entitled Boi da Cara Preta, which means black face ox.

Figure 3.33. Boi da Cara Preta

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58 Cascudo, *Dicionário do Folclore Brasileiro*, 27.
59 Ibid., 28.
60 Ibid. Cascudo believes that this melismatic feature reveals some Middle-eastern influence brought to the Iberian Peninsula during the Muslim occupation (ca.750-1236).
61 D’Assumpção, 133.
Lacerda’s “Acalanto” is in ABA’. It is in duple meter in the A Aeolian mode. The characteristic monotony of the acalanto is created by the use of an ostinato figure, played by the left hand probably to suggest the movement of a rocking chair. This ostinato consists of i and ii° in A Aeolian and creates a state of flux that seems never to resolve. In the right hand, Lacerda uses a synthetic symmetrical scale for the A and A’ sections and chromaticism for the B section. Figure 3.34a shows this scale and Figure 3.34b shows its symmetry around the tritone D-G♯.

Figure 3.35 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Acalanto.”

Figure 3.34. Synthetic symmetrical scale used in Lacerda’s “Acalanto”

Figure 3.35. Opening of Lacerda’s “Acalanto”
Figure 3.36 shows an excerpt of the B section, in which one follows the descending chromatic motion from C♯ (m. 29) to D (m. 32). The chromaticism used in this section creates tension and anxiety that might perhaps be associated with the acalantos that incorporate fear.\textsuperscript{62} The piece ends with an expansion of the ii\textsuperscript{6} through the use of piled fourths framed by the tritone F-B creating an unresolved and unfinished felling.

The last movement of Lacerda’s Brasiliana No. 3 is entitled “Quadrilha.” The quadrilha is a ballroom dance of French origin (quadrille) brought to Brazil by conductors of French orchestras in the first half of the nineteenth century.\textsuperscript{63} The French quadrille inspired the cielito and the pericon in Latin America, and the square dances in the United States.\textsuperscript{64} The quadrille consisted of five parts: (1) Le pantalon; (2) L’été; (3) La poule; (4) La pastourelle; and (5) Galop. The music was mostly in 2/4, except for the third dance (la poule) and sometimes the

\textsuperscript{62} Chromaticism is used in Expressionism to achieve the portrayal of fear and other inner emotions. Donald Grout and Claude Palisca, A History of Western Music (New York: W.W. Norton & Company, 1996), 733-5.


\textsuperscript{64} Giffoni, 214-5.
first (*le pantalon*) and the last one (*galop*), which could be in 6/8. The themes were rhythmic and animated, and the phrases were eight or sixteen bars long. The sections were repeated to a large extent.\textsuperscript{65}

In Brazil, many of the original rhythmic and formal characteristics were preserved, but several variants appeared, such as the *quadrilha caipira* (São Paulo), *baile sífilítico* (Bahia and Goiás), *sarauê* (Central region), and *mana-chica* (Rio de Janeiro).\textsuperscript{66} The *quadrilhas* gradually moved away from the aristocratic urban circles to become one of the trademarks of the popular June Festivals both in the urban and rural areas.\textsuperscript{67} The *quadrilha* is a vis-à-vis dance, and a caller, known as *marcador*, conducts the change from one figure to another. Figure 3.37 shows a folk *quadrilha* from Pará (North of Brazil) collected by Andrade.\textsuperscript{68}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure3_37.png}
\caption{Quadrilha}
\end{figure}

Lacerda’s “Quadrilha” is in rondo in five parts (A, B, A\textsubscript{1}, C, A\textsubscript{2}) with introduction and coda. The phrases are mostly four bars long, as in the folk *quadrilha* shown in Figure 3.37. The rondo form portrays the cyclic characteristic of the folk *quadrilha*. It is in D major, in duple meter and in fast tempo indicated by the composer as *alegre* (allegro); the constant motion emphasizes the animated character of the movement. Figure 3.38 shows the opening of

\textsuperscript{65} Lamb, “Quadrille.”
\textsuperscript{66} Marcondes, 649.
\textsuperscript{67} The June Festivals (*Festa Junina*) are annual Brazilian celebrations which take place in June. They celebrate the Catholic feast days of Saint Anthony, John the Apostle and Saint Peter.
\textsuperscript{68} Mário de Andrade, *Ensaio Sobre Música Brasileira* (São Paulo: I. Chiarato & Cia, 1928), 44.
Lacerda’s “Quadrilha.” Table 3.5 shows the key areas and the phrase lengths for each section of the piece.

**Table 3.5. Key areas and phrase length for the sections of Lacerda’s “Quadrilha”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Key</th>
<th>Length of the phrases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intro</td>
<td>D major</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>D major</td>
<td>4+4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>G major</td>
<td>4+4+4+4+4+1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A₁</td>
<td>D major</td>
<td>4+4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>B₃ major</td>
<td>4+4+4+5+2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A₂</td>
<td>D major</td>
<td>4+4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coda</td>
<td>D major</td>
<td>4+5+1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Opening of Lacerda’s “Quadrilha”](image)

**Figure 3.38. Opening of Lacerda’s “Quadrilha”**

### 3.5 Brasiliana No. 4

*Brasiliana No. 4* is the first piece of the cycle for piano four hands. It was composed in 1968 and employs the following genres: *dobrado, embolada, seresta,* and *candomblé.* The *dobrado* as a genre was already discussed in the *Brasiliana No. 1.* The “Dobrado” of the *Brasiliana No. 4,* like *Brasiliana No. 1,* does not have an introduction and a trio. It is also in 4/4 and ABA’ form. The key for the A section is B₃ major and the key for the B section is E minor.
Table 3.6 shows the formal plan and the functional structure associated with the right and left hands of both piano parts.

Table 3.6. Form of Lacerda’s “Dobrado”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A (first part)</th>
<th>B (forte)</th>
<th>A’ (restatement first part)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Piano I – RH</td>
<td>Canto</td>
<td>Centro/</td>
<td>Centro/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piano I – LH</td>
<td>Contracanto</td>
<td>Contracanto</td>
<td>Contracanto/ Contracanto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piano II – RH</td>
<td>Centro</td>
<td>Canto</td>
<td>Centro/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piano II – LH</td>
<td>Marcação</td>
<td>Canto</td>
<td>Marcação</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other characteristics of the *dobrado* such as the use of regular phrase, the characteristic rhythmic cells (upbeat figures, triplets, dotted eighth note plus a sixteenth note), and “walking” bass are found in this movement. Figure 3.39 show the opening of Lacerda’s “Dobrado.” Note that the *dobrados* of both *Brasilianas* (No. 1 and No. 4) start with the same melodic gesture (an ascending anacrusis in eighth notes spanning a perfect fourth).

![Figure 3.39. Opening of Lacerda’s “Dobrado”](image-url)
The second movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 4* is entitled “Embolada.” The *embolada* refers to a poetic-musical conception, in which the melody uses short intervals, repeated notes, small rhythmic values, and sounds like a poem declamation. The word *embolada* comes from the verb *embolar*, which means “to roll like a ball.” This probably has connections with the fast use of rhymes. The form is fixed refrain alternating with stanzas. The text of the stanzas may or may not be improvised, and the fixed refrain may be original or taken from traditional *cocos*. The subject of the text is usually comical and descriptive. It is from northeastern Brazil, and there are historical references to it as early as the beginning of the 20th century. The *embolada* can be performed as an independent genre or as the accompaniment to a northeastern dance called *coco-de-embolada*. Many popular artists in the urban centers throughout Brazil incorporated the *embolada* in their songs. The main instrument used in the original *embolada* is the *pandeiro*. The *embolada* is in duple meter. Figure 3.40 shows a *coco* that is also used as a refrain for an *embolada*.

![Figure 3.40. A refrain of coco used as embolada](image)

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70 Almeida, 166-7.
71 Marcondes, 262.
72 On January 1900 was founded an association called *Cocadores Federais* to dance the *coco* and to sing *emboladas*. Abelardo Duarte, 65.
73 Marcondes, 262 and Cascudo, *Dicionário do Folclore Brasileiro*, 367.
74 D’Assumpção, 156.
75 *A Pandeiro* is a Brazilian tambourine.
76 Almeida, 167-8.
Lacerda’s “Embolada” is built on two main thematic ideas, each one in a different key: idea x is in G (major, Mixolydian, and northeastern mode)\textsuperscript{77} and idea y is D\textsubscript{♭} (Mixolydian). The alternation of two thematic ideas can be a representation of the musical dialogue of two cantadores performing the embolada. These two ideas are transformed by expansion, contraction, and development. The formal plan is a loose ABA’, in which the A and A’ sections consist of dialogues between ideas x and y and the B section consists of the idea x accompanied by rhythmic chords in the key of y. Figure 3.41 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Embolada” and Figure 3.42 shows its formal plan. For the first part, Lacerda uses mixed meters, while for the other parts he uses duple meter. The folk embolada is particularly portrayed in the B section: the sung melody is depicted by the primeiro (first pianist) and the percussion-like rhythm is depicted by the segundo (second pianist). The use of duple meter, as well as certain rhythmic values (dotted-eighth-plus-sixteenth) are also found in Lacerda’s “Côco,” thus showing connections between these two genres.

The third movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 4* is entitled “Seresta.” The *seresta* is a Brazilian serenade. The name appeared in the beginning of the 20th century in Rio de Janeiro, and is connected with the bohemian musicians and singers who used to perform nostalgic love songs (*modinhas*) at night in the streets or under the windows of their women. This tradition comes from Portugal where one finds references to it as early as 1505. The *seresta* can be seen as an evolution of the *modinha* through a more intense absorption of the national traditions influenced by Brazilian literary Romanticism in the 1830s, and by the *choro* at the end of 19th century. The *seresta* does not have a defined style or form but it is usually a piece of slow or moderate tempo, sung as a lament.

Lacerda’s “Seresta” is monothematic, in E minor, in moderate tempo, and in ternary form (AA₁A₂). The theme is transformed throughout the piece by the addition or subtraction of notes over a very similar harmonic background. In the first section, the theme is presented by the right hand of the second pianist alone, while the left hand plays the accompaniment. In the second section, the first pianist plays the theme and the second pianist plays the accompaniment. In the third section, the right hand of the second pianist plays the theme, accompanied by sparse block chords played simultaneously by the left hand of the second pianist as well as both hands of the first pianist.

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78 Marcondes, 724.
79 One important characteristic of the Romanticism in Brazil was Nationalism. Tinhorão, *História Social da Música Popular Brasileira*, 129.
80 See *Brasiliana No. 11* for a definition of *choro*. 
first pianist. The different presentations of the theme in each section are varied in texture. This
textural variety can be metaphorically associated with an individual (represented by the theme)
passing through different emotional states. In this metaphor, the more dense the texture, the
more intense the emotional state. The texture is denser in the middle section and thinner in the
last section, which resembles a solitary voice accompanied by recitative-like guitar chords in a
seresta. The meter also seems to support the metaphor, since it is unstable in the middle section
and stable, in triple meter, in the last section. Figure 3.43 shows the last section of Lacerda’s
“Seresta.”

![Musical notation]

Figure 3.43. The last section of Lacerda’s “Seresta”

The last movement of Lacerda’s Brasiliana No. 4 is entitled “Candomblé.” The
candomblé is a fetishist cult of African origin, found in the state of Bahia, in which syncretism is
less evident compared with other Afro-Brazilian religions, such as candomblé de caboclo,
macumba, and umbanda. Therefore, original African traditions, for example language and use
of percussion, are more present in candomblé. Music and dance play important roles in the

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81 Olsen and Sheehy, 341.
rituals of this cult. The music is monophonic and includes responsorial singing, pentatonic and hexatonic scales, with percussion accompaniment. The strong ostinato patterns played by the percussion instruments combined with the continuous and repetitive singing produce a trance behavior. These rhythmic patterns are associated with specific deities called orixás. For example, the rhythmic pattern shown in Figure 3.44, transcribed by Gerard Béhague, is associated with Ogum, orixá of war. Tuplets and syncopations appear constantly in this music.

Figure 3.44. Rhythmic pattern of Ogum

The lyrics are mostly in the Yoruba and Fon languages. Even though the exact translation of these words into Portuguese is a very difficult task, participants know their general significance. Figure 3.45 shows an excerpt from the chant to Oxalá, orixá that symbolizes the

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82 Marcondes, 145.
83 Olsen and Sheehy, 342.
84 Alvarenga, 214.
85 Olsen and Sheehy, 343.
positive energy of nature. This chant, entitled *Ofulú Lorêrê Ê*, was collected by Guarnieri.\(^{88}\)

Note that the chant is predominantly pentatonic (C♯-E-F♯-G♯-B).

![Figure 3.45. *Ofulú Lorêrê Ê*](image)

Lacerda’s “Candomblé,” in 6/8 meter and ABA’ form, is built upon two main sonorities:

1. pentatonic, which is in keeping with the folk sonorities of the *candomblé*, and
2. trichord [016] and its superset [0167], which shows the influence of avant-garde music.\(^{89}\) These sonorities are juxtaposed in sections A and A’: a pentatonic theme is accompanied by an ostinato of broken trichords [016] (See Figure 3.46). The collection [0167] appears often in the B section, in which there is no pentatonic sonority. Besides the pentatonic sonority in the A section, the use of tuplets and syncopation also shows a connection between Lacerda’s “Candomblé” and the folk *candomblé*. Lacerda’s use of repeated patterns (ostinatos are indicated with bracket in Figure 3.46) in the A and A’ sections, and the use of strong rhythmic

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\(^{88}\) Alvarenga, 217. Lacerda wrote a piece for choir using this folk melody in 1958.

\(^{89}\) [016] is Allen Forte’s classification for a trichord that is formed by the juxtaposition of a minor second and a tritone, for example: E-A-D♯. Forte’s classification does not account for register, so octave displacements do not change set-class. All four possible subsets of three notes of the tetrachord [0167] are in the form [016].
chords in the B section, represent the hypnotic and trance-like sonorities used in the ritual of candomblé. Table 3.7 shows the form of Lacerda’s “Candomblé.”

![Figure 3.46. The opening of Lacerda’s Candomblé](image)

### Table 3.7. Form of Lacerda’s “Candomblé”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>A’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Piano I</td>
<td>Pentatonic theme</td>
<td>[0167]</td>
<td>[016] ostinato</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piano II</td>
<td>[016] ostinato</td>
<td>[0167]</td>
<td>Pentatonic theme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.6 Brasiliana No. 5

Brasiliana No. 5 was composed in 1969 and employs the following genres: desafio, valsa,lundú, and cana-verde. The desafio (challenge) is a poetic duel in which two singers confront each other to exhibit their ability in text improvisation.

Present in the folklore of several cultures, this genre was brought to Brazil by the Portuguese, and it was well accepted by

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the Amerindian and Afro-Brazilian populations.\textsuperscript{91} In Brazil, it occurs in several regions, but it is particularly important in the northeast. In the other regions, it can be part of dances such as cururu and cana-verde.\textsuperscript{92} The role of music in the desafio is secondary compared with that of the poetry. While in the northeast, instrumental music appears mostly as an interlude in faster tempo (called rojão or baião) or as single chords played by the viola at the end of the verse, in the other regions of Brazil, the desafio is accompanied entirely by the sanfona (accordion) or the viola.\textsuperscript{93} Figure 3.47 shows a desafio collected by Cascudo.\textsuperscript{94} The melody is in the Mixolydian mode, and the rhythm is an almost constant stream of equal note values.

![Figure 3.47. Desafio](image)

Lacerda’s “Desafio” is a two-voice fugue in which the subject is built on the trichord [016]. Figure 3.48 shows a reduction of the subject, which can be described as an ascending tritone followed by a chromatic descending motion that spans a perfect fourth. The countersubject (see Figure 3.50) also highlights the [016] collection. Several chromatic gestures occur throughout the piece. The starting pitches of each subject entrance belong to the C major

\textsuperscript{91} Alvarenga, 256.
\textsuperscript{92} Almeida, 162.
\textsuperscript{93} Marcondes, 240-1.
\textsuperscript{94} Alvarenga, 260.
scale, organized in alternating interval class 5 and 3, and ending with a tritone. Figure 3.49 shows that this scheme also highlights the generative collection [016].

Because of its clear atonal language, the connection between Lacerda’s “Desafio” and the folk desafio is abstract. This connection has two aspects: (1) the use of two voices seems to portray the two cantadores; (2) the fugato technique seems to be a metaphor for the poetic duel that occurs in the real desafio, in which a cantador proposes a set of obligatory rhymes and metrics and the opponent must respond accordingly or is considered defeated. Lacerda depicts this situation by presenting the last entrance of the subject in augmentation; because the other voice does not answer using the same procedure, the “game” ends. Figure 3.50 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Desafio.”

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95 Interval class is the smallest distance in semitones between two pitch classes (a group of pitches with the same name, for example, the pitch class C includes: $\infty \ldots C_6, C_7, C_8, \ldots \infty$). Interval class 5 refers to 5 semitones. Joseph Straus, *Introduction to Post-Tonal Theory* (Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 2000), 2-9.
The second movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 5* is entitled “Valsa.” The *valsa*—the Portuguese word for waltz—is a dance in triple meter danced by couples in close embrace. The genre probably originated in southern Germany, Bavaria, Austria, and Bohemia.\(^6\) Weber’s *Invitation to the Dance*, Op. 65 (1819) was an important piece for the establishment of the waltz in the concert repertory.\(^7\) Chopin’s concert waltz (Op. 18) was influenced by Weber’s *Invitation*. The form of Chopin’s waltz consists of introduction, several waltzes that are complete in themselves, a recapitulation, and a coda. Chopin also composed many waltzes in smaller forms.\(^8\)

The *valsa* became popular in Brazil at the end of the First Empire (1822–1831)\(^9\) even though one finds earlier references to *valsas* composed by Emperor D. Pedro I, and arranged for orchestra by Sigismund Neukomm.\(^10\) The popularity of the *valsa* in Brazil is also observed in the compilation of more the 1,700 *valsas* composed in Rio de Janeiro between 1850 and 1950.\(^11\) The *valsa* influenced the *modinha*, which became triple meter at the end of the 19\(^{th}\) century. With the addition of text, the *modinha* was incorporated into the *serestas* by the groups of *choro*, and became one of the favorite genres of the *seresteiros*. Popular *Valsas* were recorded at the beginning of the 20\(^{th}\) century and broadcast on the radio in the 1930s.\(^12\)

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\(^7\) Ibid.


\(^9\) Cascudo, *Dicionário do Folclore Brasileiro*, 899.


\(^12\) Marcondes, 803.
Important composers of valsas for the piano were Ernesto Nazareth, Camargo Guarnieri, and Francisco Mignone. The latter wrote two series of valsas called *Valsas de Esquina* and *Valsas Choro*, which incorporate the improvisation-like features of the choros and the melodic traces of the popular modinhas.\(^\text{103}\) Mignone’s *Valsas de Esquina* are in the minor mode and mostly in ABA form. Lacerda’s “Valsa” is in ABA form, in D minor, with the B section in F major. Figure 3.51 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Valsa.” Noteworthy are the chromatic elements, running notes, and an ornamented melodic line that resembles choro.

\[\text{Figure 3.51. Opening of Lacerda’s “Valsa”}\]

The third movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 5* is entitled “Lundú.” The lundu is an African dance, originally from Angola and Congo, brought to Brazil by the slaves.\(^\text{104}\) The first reference to this dance in Brazil was in 1780, in a document written by the Governor of Pernambuco, in which he mentions African dances, including the lundu, that were accused of being indecent by the Inquisition.\(^\text{105}\) After being stylized by the influence of Spanish dances, the lundu became the first Afro-Brazilian dance to be accepted in aristocratic ballrooms.\(^\text{106}\) In the 19\(^{th}\) century, the lundu as a dance disappeared gradually and was almost completely replaced by the lundu as a song. Domingos Caldas Barbosa (1738–1800) was an important figure in the

\(^{104}\) Marcondes, 459.
\(^{105}\) Alvarenga, 149.
\(^{106}\) D’Assumpção, 50 and Almeida, 73.
establishment of the *lundu* as a song (along with the *modinha*), especially among the aristocracy of Portugal.\textsuperscript{107} The *lundu* became more languid and sad when it evolved from dance to song.\textsuperscript{108} It also acquired malicious and sensual texts with a sense of humor.\textsuperscript{109} At the end of the 19th century, the *lundu* merged with other dances in duple meter, such as the *tango*, the *habanera*, and the *polca*, giving birth to the *maxixe*, the first genuine Brazilian dance.\textsuperscript{110} The *lundu* also inspired the *Fado*.\textsuperscript{111} Figure 3.52 shows an excerpt from the *lundu Ma Malia* collected by Andrade in São Paulo.\textsuperscript{112}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure3.52.png}
\caption{Ma Malia}
\end{figure}

Lacerda’s “Lundú,” of which the opening is shown in Figure 3.53, begins with the same gesture as the above example. Similar rhythmic patterns are found throughout both pieces (see measures 1 and 5 of both pieces). Lacerda’s “Lundú” is mostly in 2/4, in ABA′ form, and in B♭ major (with the B section in G♭ major). Lacerda’s “Lundú” and the folk *lundu* are similar in terms of mode, rhythm, and meter, even though Lacerda uses triple meter sporadically. Unlike the folk *lundu*, Lacerda’s “Lundú” is polyphonic and employs modulation.

\textsuperscript{107} Alvarenga, 150.
\textsuperscript{108} D’Assumpção, 50.
\textsuperscript{109} Tinhorão, *Pequena História da Música Popular*, 56.
\textsuperscript{110} Marcondes, 459. The *maxixe* will be discussed in the *Brasiliana No. 11*.
\textsuperscript{111} Almeida, 78.
\textsuperscript{112} Andrade, *Ensaio Sobre Música Brasileira*, 87-8.
The fourth movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 5* is entitled “Cana-Verde.” The *cana-verde* (green sugar cane) is a round dance, of Portuguese origin, accompanied by a song in 2/4.\(^{113}\) It may exist as an independent dance or appear as a part of other dances, such as the dances of the *fandango*.\(^{114}\) The name *cana-verde* is probably inspired by its choreography, which consists of constant changes of direction that resemble sugar cane plants swaying in the wind.\(^{115}\)

Although the *cana-verde* is found in the northeast, it is more common in central and southern Brazil, and it has several regional variants in the manner of dancing and singing.\(^{116}\) The text is usually in strophic-refrain form. The first singer, the *cantador*, introduces the refrain or fixed verses to which another *cantador* or any dancer may respond; the verses of the response may or may not be improvised. All the dancers may participate in the next refrain. When sung by two *cantadores*, the melody may be sung in thirds.\(^{117}\) The *cantadores* may perform *desafios* with the use of improvised texts.\(^{118}\) The *viola* is the main instrument, although the *pandeiro* is sometimes used, especially in Rio de Janeiro, to accompany the singing.\(^{119}\) Based on the examples of the folk *cana-verde* I examined, the melody is simple, in eight-bar phrases, using mostly constant

\(^{113}\) Marcondes, 144.
\(^{114}\) Giffoni, 89. The *fandango* is discussed in the *Brasiliana No. 3*.
\(^{115}\) Ibid., 91.
\(^{116}\) Ibid.
\(^{117}\) Alvarenga, 181-2.
\(^{118}\) The *desafio* was already discussed in the *Brasiliana No. 5*.
\(^{119}\) Marcondes, 144.
eighth note values, and accompanied by tonic and dominant chords. Figure 3.54 shows an example of cana-verde.

![Cana-Verde Notation]

Figure 3.54. Cana-Verde

Lacerda’s “Cana-Verde” is in duple meter and ABA′ form with the A section in F major and the B section in F minor. Despite the tonal inflections of the melody, the V-I progression, found in the folk cana-verde (see Figure 3.54), is replaced in sections A and A′ by two [016] trichords one half step apart. These trichords alternate—imitating V-I—to accompany the melodic line built in regular eight-bar phrases. In sections A and A′, the bass line contains a similar march-type accompaniment as in the example of folk cana-verde, as well as the same perfect fourth interval between the first and the third eighth notes in every measure. It is interesting to note that in some rural areas, the folk cana-verde is danced in march steps.120 The B section has a tonal accompaniment with sporadic use of the [016] trichord. The opening of Lacerda’s “Cana-Verde” is shown in Figure 3.55.

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120 Giffoni, 90.
3.7 Brasiliana No. 6

Brasiliana No. 6 was composed in 1971 and employs the following genres: *roda*, *ponto*, *toada*, and *baião*. The *roda* (literally circle), also known as *cantigas de roda* or *roda infantil*, is a children’s game involving singing and circle dances. The majority of these *rodas* were brought to Brazil from Portugal, but the repertory also contains traces of Afro-Brazilian, French and Spanish folklore.\textsuperscript{121} The *roda* was a popular game played by youngsters at the end of the 19\textsuperscript{th} century in Brazilian cities. Many of the songs (text and music) used in these games were influenced by Afro-Brazilian and Amerindian cultures.\textsuperscript{122} The music usually comes from folk and popular songs, and the text comes from fragments of tales and folk rhymes.\textsuperscript{123}

Lacerda’s “Roda” is a set of three variations on *Ciranda, Cirandinha*, which is probably the best-known *cantiga de roda* in Brazil. The lyrics refer to the *Ciranda*, a circle dance for adults, originally from Portugal, but still danced in Brazil.\textsuperscript{124} Figure 3.56 shows the melody and first strophe of *Ciranda, Cirandinha*. This theme was also used by Villa-Lobos in a piano piece called *Ó Ciranda, Ó Cirandinha* (or “Circle Dance” in the English edition).

\textsuperscript{121} Cascudo, *Dicionário do Folclore Brasileiro*, 785 and Alvarenga, 235-9.  
\textsuperscript{122} D’Assumpção, 109.  
\textsuperscript{123} Marcondes, 685.  
\textsuperscript{124} Ibid., 202.
The theme is presented in an unusual way: the folk melody is accompanied by acciacaturas (a half step below),\textsuperscript{125} as one can see in Figure 3.57, which shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Roda.” In the variations, Lacerda does not focus on melodic embellishments and diminutions, but rather works out short fragments of the melody. All the variations are in ABA’ form, in which the B section modulates to another key. Variation I uses fragments of the theme in a faster tempo, and preserves the duple meter. Variation II is slightly slower, uses rubato and changes of meter, and mixes the minor mode with atonal sonorities. Variation III is very fast, in 6/8, and the fragmentation is taken to an extreme in which the theme is practically unrecognizable. Figure 3.58 shows the end of Variation I and the opening of Variation II, in which trichords [012], [016] and [026] are indicated.

Figure 3.58. End of Variation I and opening of Variation II of Lacerda’s “Roda”

The second movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 6* is entitled “Ponto.” This is a ritual chant, used in some Afro-Brazilian cults,\(^\text{126}\) to invoke the *guias* (guides) or spirits.\(^\text{127}\) Figure 3.59 shows an example of a *ponto* collected and recorded by the *Centro de Pesquisas Folclóricas Mário de Andrade*.\(^\text{128}\) Even though the majority of the *pontos* I perused are in 2/4, I selected this one in 6/8 because it has a meter similar to Lacerda’s “Ponto.” The melodic line in Figure 3.59 falls mostly into the pentatonic scale E-F♯-G♯-B-C♯, but there is a clear tonal direction caused by the leading tone (D♯). The traces of tonality in this genre are probably a consequence of the cultural syncretism.

\(^\text{126}\) Lima, 111-3. The Afro-Brazilian cults originated through a syncretism (fusion) of several cults and religions (Gegê-Nagô, Bantu, Mina, Catholicism, Kardecism, Amerindian, etc) and receive different denominations throughout Brazil: *Candomblé* (Bahia), *Xangô* (Pernambuco, Alagoas, and Pará), *Tambor-de-Mina* (Maranhão), *Babassu* (Pará), *Macumba* (Rio de Janeiro), *Batuque* (Rio Grande do Sul), and *Umbanda* (São Paulo). According to Andrade, *ponto* is a general word for melody, in Afro-Brazilian music. Mário de Andrade, *Aspectos da Música Brasileira* (São Paulo: Livraria Martins Editora, 1965), 157.

\(^\text{127}\) The chants used in the cult of the *umbanda*, for example, do not invoke the deities called *orixás*, like in the *canbomblé*, but only *guias* or spirits subordinated to a specific *orixá*. Lima, 111-3.

\(^\text{128}\) Ibid., 117.
Lacerda’s “Ponto” is in ABA′ form, in 3/8, and the melodies of the A and A′ sections are mostly built upon the pentatonic scale D♭-E♭-F-A♭-B♭, with sporadic use of C. This movement contains Afro-Brazilian elements such as the use of a pentatonic collection and syncopation, but there are no percussion-like chords and ostinato patterns, which are common in traditional African-influenced rituals.\textsuperscript{129} Lacerda’s “Ponto” is probably based on the chants of those cults that integrate various musical stylistic features as a result of syncretism. An example of this integration is the use of the Mixolydian mode in the B section. Figure 3.60 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Ponto.”

\textsuperscript{129} An example of cult with strong African influences is the \textit{candomblé}, which inspired the last movement of Lacerda’s \textit{Brasiliana No. 4}.
The third movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 6* is entitled “Toada.” The *toada* (sung melody) is a brief lyric song of narrative or descriptive character. Comic and especially love texts are frequently used. The musical characteristics of the *toada* vary by region, but many are in duple meter. The use of four-verse strophes is also common. Examples of *toadas* can be found as independent songs or as part of folk dances, such as the *jongo* and the *cururu* in the southern and central regions, as well as the *bumba-meu-boi* and the *maracatu* in the northeast. In the southern and central regions the sentimental *toadas* have a simple melody moving mostly in stepwise motion, and mostly sung in thirds by *violeiros* (*viola* players). Figure 3.61 shows a *toada* collected by Andrade in São Paulo.

\[\text{Figure 3.61. Toada}\]

Lacerda’s “Toada” is inspired by the *toadas* of the southern and central regions of Brazil. The indication *amoroso* suggests a connection with the sentimental *toadas* of these regions. Other points in common are the frequent use of stepwise motion in the entire piece, as well as parallel thirds in the outer sections, which are comparable to a refrain. The form is ABA’ with key areas in F major (sections A and A’) and F minor (B section). A remarkable feature of this piece is a C pedal that lingers throughout sections A and A’ and only moves to the tonic (F) in the last measure. This pedal appears as a constant syncopated low note resembling the bass string of the *viola* that accompanies the voices of the *cantadores*, singing in parallel thirds. The

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130 Almeida, 105-6.
131 Ibid.
rhythmic figure that appears in the first measure of Figure 3.61 also permeates Lacerda’s “Toada” in augmented rhythmic values (see the right hand of the third measure of Figure 3.62). This rhythmic figure, along with syncopations, are commonly found in Brazilian music.\textsuperscript{133} Figure 3.62 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Toada.”

![Figure 3.62. Opening of Lacerda’s “Toada”](image_url)

The last movement of Lacerda’s Brasiliana No. 6 is entitled “Baião.” The baião is a type of dance from northeastern Brazil.\textsuperscript{134} The term Baião also refers to a fast instrumental interlude that appears in the desafio.\textsuperscript{135} Scholars disagree on the origin of the baião, as it is known today.\textsuperscript{136} It is generally believed to have come from the baiano (sometimes called baião), a type of dance that became very popular in the 19\textsuperscript{th} century. Traces of it can still be found today in the bumba-meu-boi.\textsuperscript{137} Figure 3.63 shows an example of baiano found in the bumba-meu-boi of Pernambuco.\textsuperscript{138} It seems, however, that the baião evolved from the aforementioned instrumental interlude, with the addition of some melodic and rhythmic features of the coco.\textsuperscript{139} In 1972, Luís Gonzaga (1912–1989), regarded as the creator of the baião, mentions the influence of this

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{133} Souza, 2-3.
\item \textsuperscript{134} Alvarenga, 156.
\item \textsuperscript{135} See Brasiliana No. 5.
\item \textsuperscript{136} Giffoni mentions that Pereira da Costa believes it was created through the mixture of maracatu and batuque whereas Rossini Tavares believes it comes from the fandango. Giffoni, 66. Alvarenga believes it comes from the lundu. Alvarenga, 156.
\item \textsuperscript{137} Giffoni, 66.
\item \textsuperscript{138} Andrade, Danças Dramáticas, Tomo III, 133.
\item \textsuperscript{139} Cascudo, Dicionário do Folclore Brasileiro, 128. Examples of coco can be found in the Brasilianas No. 2 and No. 4.
\end{itemize}
instrumental interlude on the rhythm of the new genre.\textsuperscript{140} The word \textit{baião} is already found in the lyrics of a recording made in 1928.\textsuperscript{141} Although this song contains a fashionable rhythm and dance from that time, it does not yet show the characteristic rhythmic pattern of the \textit{baião} as it is known today, especially in the instrumental part. Figure 3.64a shows the traditional rhythm of \textit{baião} (played by the \textit{zabumba}), as it was developed by Luís Gonzaga in 1946, and Figure 3.64b shows the modern \textit{baião}, which appeared in the late 1950s.\textsuperscript{142} The standard instrumentation for the \textit{baião} consists of accordion, \textit{zabumba}, and triangle. The \textit{baião} became nationally known after the recordings of Gonzaga, and it gained international recognition in the 1950s and 1960s after the recording of the instrumental \textit{baião Delicado} by Valdir Azevedo (1923–1980).

\begin{figure}[h]
  \centering
  \includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure3.63.png}
  \caption{Baiano da Mulataria}
\end{figure}

\begin{figure}[h]
  \centering
  \includegraphics[width=0.4\textwidth]{figure3.64a.png} \quad \includegraphics[width=0.4\textwidth]{figure3.64b.png}
  \caption{Traditional rhythm of \textit{baião} \quad Modern \textit{baião}}
\end{figure}

Lacerda’s “Baião” is in duple meter and in ABA’ form. The A and A’ sections are in C Mixolydian and the B section is in C Aeolian. Lacerda’s work presents clear features of the \textit{baião}: the rhythmic cell of the accompaniment and the use of Mixolydian mode. The use of

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{140} Tinhorão, \textit{Pequena História da Música Popular}, 221.
  \item \textsuperscript{141} This recording was made by José Luís Rodrigues Calazans, also knows as Jararaca, and can be found in the LP 10 360-B Odeon, available at the Nirez Archive, in Fortaleza, Brazil.
  \item \textsuperscript{142} Olsen and Sheehy, 332. A \textit{zabumba} is a double-headed bass drum popular in northeastern Brazil. It is played on the top skin with a soft mallet and on the bottom skin with a thin stick.
\end{itemize}
repeated notes in the melodic line resembles the *coco*. Lacerda incorporates two elements that do not belong to the traditional *baião*: (1) modal mixture (♭VI, ♭VII), commonly found in popular music; and (2) unresolved non-harmonic tones that create atonal sonorities. Figure 3.65 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Baião.”

![Figure 3.65. Opening of Lacerda’s “Baião”](image)

### 3.8 Brasiliana No. 7

*Brasiliana No. 7* was composed in 1976 and employs the following genres: *samba, valsa, pregão* and *arrasta-pé*. The *samba* is a popular Brazilian dance and musical genre in duple meter with syncopated rhythms. The word *samba* is probably a modification of *semba*, a Kimbundu word that translates into Portuguese as *umbigada*, an invitation to dance by a touching of the couple’s navels. The *umbigada* was a characteristic dance step found in many Afro-Brazilian dances, including the *batuque*, a circle dance performed by the slaves, and a precursor of the *samba*. After the abolition of slavery in 1888, the former slaves of Rio de

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143 Marcondes, 704.


146 Shaw, 3.
Janeiro, along with those who migrated there, moved to the hills.\textsuperscript{147} It was there, where the inhabitants used to perform a type of circle \textit{samba}, that the urban \textit{samba} was born.\textsuperscript{148} Regional variants of the \textit{samba} exist in Brazil, but they have been overshadowed by the urban \textit{samba}, which became standardized in the 1920s, especially in Rio.\textsuperscript{149} The \textit{samba}, with its several subgenres, eventually became the Brazilian national dance and song. The first popular urban \textit{samba} was \textit{Pelo Telefone}, composed by Ernesto Joaquim Maria dos Santos (1889–1974), also known as Donga, in 1917.\textsuperscript{150} In concert music, the first known piece to be entitled \textit{Samba} is the last movement of Alexandre Levy’s (1864–1892) \textit{Suite Brésilienne} for orchestra, written in 1891, and based on a type of \textit{samba} practiced in the rural area.\textsuperscript{151} Figure 3.66 shows an excerpt from an early urban \textit{samba}. In this example, note the rhythmic figure $\frac{\text{semiquaver}}{}\text{began}\frac{\text{semiquaver}}{}\text{end}$, which is widely used in the \textit{samba}.\textsuperscript{152} The complete standard \textit{samba} ensemble is not shown in this example. The guitar, \textit{cavaquinho}, and snare drum are missing here.\textsuperscript{153}

![Figure 3.66. Example of urban samba](image)

\textsuperscript{147} Tinhórão, \textit{História da Social da Música Popular Brasileira}, 263-4.
\textsuperscript{148} Marcondes, 704.
\textsuperscript{150} David Appleby, \textit{The Music of Brazil} (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1983), 70.
\textsuperscript{151} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{152} Alvarenga, 295. A \textit{surdo} is a type of tom-tom, a \textit{cuica} is a lion’s roar, and a \textit{tamborim} is a small round Brazilian drum played with a beater made of several flexible nylon or polyacetal threads bound together.
\textsuperscript{153} A \textit{cavaquinho} is a small plucked instrument similar to the guitar with four metal strings.
Lacerda’s “Samba” is in duple meter, in ABA’ form, and in a lively tempo. Sections A and A’ are in F major and section B in B♭ major. The melodic line, which extensively employs the rhythmic figure \( \text{semiqu} - \text{begg} / \text{quavermiddle} / \text{semiqu} - \text{end} \), is played by the right hand in sections A and A’ and mostly by the left hand in the B section. There is also an extensive use of upbeat figures, and the melody shows the many syncopated notes, characteristic of the samba. The two fermatas in this movement resemble a type of samba called samba de breque (break).\textsuperscript{154} The constant running melody and the use of sequence shows a relationship between this movement and the hybrid form samba-choro. Figure 3.67 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Samba.”

![Figure 3.67. Opening of Lacerda’s “Samba”](image)

The second movement of Lacerda’s Brasiliana No. 7 is entitled “Valsa.” The valsa as a genre was already discussed in the Brasiliana No. 5. This “Valsa” is a transcription of Lacerda’s Suite Guanabara for symphonic band, composed in 1965; it is in the major mode and in ABA’ form. The A and A’ sections are in C major and the B section is in A major. Some characteristics of choro, such as chromaticism, sequences, and running notes, are found in this movement. The bass line gains prominence in the B section with a new theme containing chromatic notes and slower rhythmic values. These features create a romantic sonority

\textsuperscript{154} The samba de breque has interruptions in the melodic flux that sometimes allow the interpolation of spoken phrases. These breaks are commonly used after the second part. Tinhorão, Pequena História da Música Popular, 162-8.
resembling the *seresta*. Figure 3.68 shows the opening of the B section of the “Valsa” of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 7*.

The third movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 7* is entitled “Pregão.” The *pregão* is a street cry, in which the vendors announce their merchandise.\(^{155}\) It may be classified as *canto de trabalho* (work song).\(^ {156}\) It contains few words, very simple chant, a melodic line that stays within a small range, and free rhythm.\(^ {157}\) There are two types of *pregões*: (1) individual—spontaneously created or inspired by popular genres, such as *emboladas*, *modinhas*, and *samba*; and (2) group—used by groups of vendors who sell the same merchandise, for example, the broom sellers in Rio de Janeiro.\(^ {158}\) Figure 3.69 shows the *pregão Cocada* collected by Andrade in Rio de Janeiro.\(^ {159}\)

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\(^{155}\) Cascudo, *Dicionário do Folclore Brasileiro*, 731.

\(^{156}\) Marcondes, 150. The *canto de trabalho* will be discussed in the *Brasiliana No. 8*.

\(^{157}\) Alvarenga, 229.

\(^{158}\) Almeida, 89.

\(^{159}\) Andrade, *Ensaio Sobre Música Brasileira*, 92.
Lacerda’s “Pregão” uses three individual street cries: (1) *Fita, renda e botão*, from São Paulo; (2) *Cocada*, from Rio de Janeiro; and (3) *Laranja pera*, from São Paulo. The piece has three sections, each one employing one *pregão*. The key areas of the melody for each section are: F major, D♭ major, and C major. Figure 3.69 shows the *pregão* used in the second section.

In all three sections, Lacerda presents the *pregão* twice. Though the original melodies do not have a regular meter, Lacerda applied meter to them and created tempo fluctuations at the end of each statement of the *pregão* themes. Similar accompaniment, consisting of chromatic scales, is used for the outer sections, even though these sections portray different moods. The contrasting middle section is slower, and the accompaniment consists of broken chords in triplets. Figure 3.70 shows the opening of the second section of Lacerda’s “Pregão.”

The last movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 7* is entitled “Arrasta-pé.” The expression means “foot-dragger,” which is a general term that refers to a folk ball involving
animated dances. As Lacerda mentions in the program notes for this movement, the *arrasta-pé* is also a folk march of São Paulo and Minas Gerais. Remarkably, I found similarities between the “Arrasta-pé” of *Brasilliana No. 7* and the “Cana-verde” of *Brasilliana No. 5*. Even though the references to the *arrasta-pé* in the literature are very limited, there are three connections between Lacerda’s “Arrasta-pé” and the *cana-verde*: (1) the opening of Lacerda’s “Arrasta-pé,” especially the accompaniment, is very similar to his “Cana-verde;” (2) the middle section of his “Arrasta-pé” consists of a melody in thirds, a characteristic usually found in the folk *cana-verde*; (3) Giffoni mentions that the foot-dragging is one step found in the *cana-verde*; and (4) Giffoni also mentions that, in rural areas, the folk *cana-verde* is danced in march steps.

Lacerda’s “Arrasta-pé” is in ABA′ form. The melody of the first section is atonal with centricity in F, while the folk-like melody of the second section is in thirds and in F major. For both sections, the left hand accompaniment, which is similar to the Lacerda’s “Cana-verde,” uses [016] trichords and chromatic sonorities substituting functional harmony. Although the melodies of the two sections contrast in sonorities, the march-type accompaniment works as an element of unity. Figure 3.71 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Arrasta-pé.”

![Figure 3.71. Opening of Lacerda’s “Arrasta-pé”](image)

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160 Marcondes, 45.
161 Alvarenga, 181-2.
162 Giffoni, 96.
163 Ibid., 90.
3.9 Brasiliana No. 8

Brasiliana No. 8 is the second piece of the cycle for piano four hands. The work was composed in 1980 and employs the following genres: *canto de trabalho*, *frevo*, *aboio*, and *terno de zabumba*. The *canto de trabalho* is a work song used to help with the coordination of body movements during work activity. It may be sung as a solo or by a group of workers. The melody is simple, with few words, and sometimes uses onomatopoeia or interjections to stimulate work. In Brazil, a variety of work songs has existed since the colonial period, when they were sung by slave workers in rural and urban areas. Colonists liked these songs because they increased production.

Originally from Portugal and Africa, few Brazilian work songs come from the Amerindian tradition. Among the various work songs of Brazil, the most famous are: (1) songs of the men who move pianos—very popular in the city of Recife; (2) songs called *aboios*, used by the vaqueros, consisting exclusively of vowels; (3) songs of the black workers in the diamond mines of Minas Gerais; and (4) songs of the street vendors, called *pregão*. With the industrialization of Brazil, work songs became less common. Figure 3.72 shows a *canto de trabalho* of rice planters, used by Lacerda in this movement. This song was collected by Lima, in 1949, in the rural area of São Paulo, and is included in Lacerda’s program notes for this piece.

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164 Marcondes, 150.
165 Ibid.
166 Ibid.
167 D’Assumpção, 127.
168 Ibid.
169 The *aboio* will be discussed in the third movement of this Brasiliana.
170 The *pregão* was discussed in the Brasiliana No. 7.
171 Ibid.
Lacerda’s “Canto de Trabalho” is a set of seven variations on the theme shown in Figure 3.72. The central harmonic issue of this piece is the conflict between A and E♭, which appear as tonal or atonal centers. Most of the time, Lacerda preserves the meter and the key of the original folk song. The theme, in A major, is introduced by the second piano and moves to the first piano. In the first variation, fragments of the theme, still in A major, are accompanied by the [016] collection and by the juxtaposition of A major and E♭ major modes. The second variation has chromatic gestures and atonal sonorities (quartal trichords and [016]), which ornament the theme. In the third variation, the theme is presented in a samba-like rhythm, accompanied by upbeat atonal and quartal chords. The fourth variation serves as a continuation of the third variation because it extends the idea of upbeat chords accompaniment. The theme now is in small figurations and chromatic notes. In the fifth variation, the fastest, while the second piano plays a chromatic ostinato centered in D♯ (E♭), the first piano plays the theme in A major, sometimes pointillistically and sometimes as part of broken trichords [016]. In the sixth variation, the longest, the conflict between the two centricities A and E♭ takes place in the minor

172 The samba was discussed in the Brasiliana No. 7.
mode. The episode that immediately follows this variation ends with a fragment of the theme in E♭ major. In the final and slowest variation, the theme appears in parallel thirds in the key of E♭ major. The movement ends with a coda built on fragments of the theme in E♭ major, accompanied by A major chords. Figure 3.73 shows the opening of the sixth variation, in which the first piano starts alone. Note that a top line formed by the first note of every two sixteenth notes contains a melody in A minor, while the bass line formed by the first note of every two sixteenth notes contains a melody in E♭ minor. Another interesting aspect is the extensive use of tritone, which is the interval between A and E♭.

Figure 3.73. Opening of Lacerda’s “Canto de Trabalho”

The second movement of Lacerda’s Brasiliana No. 8 is entitled “Frevo.” The frevo is an original Brazilian dance form created in Recife at the end of 19th century. The music of the frevo evolved from the gradual addition of syncopation into various forms, especially the march-polka, played by the street bands at the end of 19th century. The credit for the creation of the music of the frevo is given to Zuzinha, or Captain José Lourenço da Silva, band conductor in

174 Marcondes, 306.
Recife. The word frevo derives from the Portuguese verb ferver (or frever, as it is sometimes pronounced), and it means “to boil over.” The term frevo was first mentioned in a Recife newspaper in 1908, and in 1909 it was already used to describe the effervescence of the people in the streets during carnival, performing this new dance accompanied by fanfare groups. The frevo is a fast march, exclusively instrumental, in two-part form and duple meter, with frenetic syncopated rhythms and a vigorous, brilliant sound. It is performed by brass, woodwind, and percussion instruments.

The frevo has its origin in the steps of the capoeira dancers, who used to dance at the military band parades. Difficult to perform, the dance is individual and challenges the elasticity of the body. This is a genre in which both music and dance are virtuoso. Figure 3.74 shows the rhythm of frevo.

![Figure 3.74. The rhythmic pattern of frevo](image)

Lacerda’s “Frevo” is in ABA′ form. The melodic lines of the A and A′ sections are in F major, whereas quasi-atonal sonorities, such as the tetrachord [0268] (French augmented sixth),
the hexachord [013679] (Petrushka chord), and chromatic gestures abound in the accompaniment. The rhythmic pattern of the frevo is mainly present in the accompaniment played by the second piano in the A section. Contrasting with the A section, the B section is in the key of B♭ major. In this section, the second piano plays the main melodic role while the first piano intervenes with counter-melodies in a kind of dialogue, resembling the dialogue between brass and woodwind instruments in the frevo. Figure 3.75 shows an excerpt from the A section of Lacerda’s “Frevo.”

![Figure 3.75. Excerpt from the A section of Lacerda’s “Frevo”](image)

The third movement of Lacerda’s Brasiliana No. 8 is entitled “Abôio.” The aboio is a work song, used by vaqueros to tend their cattle, and is one of the most important types of rural work songs. Found mostly in the north and northeast areas of Brazil, the aboio is monophonic, mellismatic, improvised with free rhythm, and in slow tempo. It is vowel based and usually ends with free interjections, such as Ê boi (Hey ox). The genre probably

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184 Alvarenga, 226.
185 D’Assumpção, 130-1.
186 Ibid.
originated in Portugal, where similar *aboios* are performed.\(^\text{188}\) Unlike the traditional types, some *aboios* use lyrics or spoken texts.\(^\text{189}\) It is sometimes impossible to write down the *aboios* using traditional notation because of their quasi-recitative rhythms and imprecise pitches. Many of them require the use of graphical notation. Figure 3.76 shows an *aboio*, transcribed by Guarnieri, collected in the state of Paraíba in 1938.\(^\text{190}\) The headless notes indicate spoken texts (mostly free), and the regular notes can be sung with any vowel. The + sign indicates approximate pitch, and the waved lines indicate that the pitch should be bent down.

![Figure 3.76. Aboio](image)

Lacerda’s “Abôio” is in ABA′ form in which the first section has a melody in G Mixolydian, accompanied by non-functional tertian harmony, and the second section has a melody in A♭ Mixolydian accompanied by functional harmony. Whole tone sonorities appear frequently in this section. The A′ section brings back the G Mixolydian theme, this time played by the second piano in a low register. Also, fragments of the B section theme come back in Dorian and Mixolydian. Lacerda’s use of rubato, fermatas, and caesuras is an attempt to create the tempo flexibility that is characteristic of the *aboio*. The piece ends with a whole tone chord preceded by a succession of perfect fourths quoted from the two notes of the opening (G-D),

\(^{188}\) Alvarenga, 226.
\(^{189}\) Marcondes, 150.
\(^{190}\) Alvarenga, 226-7.
which may be associated with the expression É boi (Hey ox) of the folk aboiós. Figure 3.77 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Abôio.”

![Figure 3.77. Opening of Lacerda’s “Abôio”](image)

The last movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 8* is entitled “Terno de Zabumba.” The terno de zabumba is a folk ensemble, typically from northeastern Brazil, that plays in popular and religious festivities.\(^{191}\) The term *terno* signifies a group of people who sing and dance in a religious procession. This type of folk manifestation was brought from Portugal during the Brazilian colonial period.\(^{192}\) Cascudo mentions that the *zabumba* is a very popular instrument in Portugal, where one finds an ensemble called *Bombo*, similar to the terno de zabumba.\(^{193}\) In some Brazilian northeastern states, this ensemble is known by names such as *terno-de-música* or *esquenta-mulher*, in Alagoas and Pernambuco; *cabaçal*, in Pernambuco, Paraíba and Ceará; and *banda de couro*, in Ceará.\(^{194}\) The instrumentation consists of two *pifes*, one *caixa*, and one

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\(^{191}\) Marcondes, 771.

\(^{192}\) D’Assumpção, 59-63.

\(^{193}\) Cascudo, *Dicionário do Folclore Brasileiro*, 925. See the *Baião*, last movement of *Brasiliana No. 6*, for examples of rhythmic patterns.

\(^{194}\) Marcondes, 771.
This ensemble plays original music in northeastern genres, like the baião, or music from a varied repertoire including marches, frevos, valsa, samba, etc. The two pifes play the melodies mostly in parallel thirds and sometimes in sixths.

Lacerda’s “Terno de Zabumba” is in ABA’ form. It combines northeastern folk elements with modern sonorities. The folk elements are the use of baião rhythm in the accompaniment and the use of Mixolydian and northeastern modes in the melodies. In the A section, the theme, played in parallels sixths imitating the pifes, is in A Mixolydian. The main theme of the B section begins in E minor, after which it is transformed into the northeastern mode. The modern sonorities are the whole tone and chromatic sonorities. Also, the piece presents a fragment from the end of the A section in parallel tritones in the coda. The use of minor seconds, in the very opening of the piece, resembles the rudimentary quality of the pifes, when they play in unison. The composer’s indication “como flautas,” i.e., “like flutes,” corroborates this idea. Figure 3.78 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Terno de Zabumba.”

![Figure 3.78. Opening of Lacerda’s “Terno de Zabumba”](image)

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195 Ibid.
196 Cascudo, *Dicionário do Folclore Brasileiro*, 925, Duarte, 118, and Marcondes, 127. The genre frevo was discussed in the second movement of this *Brasiliana*. The genres valsa and samba were discussed in the *Brasilianas* No. 7.
197 Marcondes, 127.
3.10 Brasiliana No. 9

Brasiliana No. 9 was composed in 1984 and employs the following genres: ponteio, polca, bendito, and forró. The ponteio is a prelude, an instrumental piece with no specific form. The term comes from the verb pontear, which means “to play the guitar in finger-style.” The guitar players from rural areas (violeiros), who play the moda-de-violas, usually play some improvisatory passages before they start to play a piece. They call this performance practice pontear. Searching for a nationalistic idiom, Guarnieri used, for the first time, the term ponteio instead of prelude. His first ponteio, written in 1931, was the beginning of a series of 50 ponteios that represent an important contribution to the Brazilian piano literature. After Guarnieri, many Brazilian composers, such as Villa-Lobos, Lorenzo Fernandez, and others, also composed ponteios.

Lacerda’s “Ponteio” is an etude-like movement in ABA’ form, in which voicing and control of polyphonic playing are required. Another performance issue is the constant use of the hands in the same register that forces one hand to play over the other. The piece is an exploitation of sound effects using acciacatura-like chords and ornaments over a folk-like melody. In the A section, the upper notes of the chords played by the left hand highlight an F pentatonic scale in the 5th mode. The A section can be divided in two parts. In the first part, chords are played simultaneously, creating clusters, and in the second part, some notes are subtracted from the clusters and the chords are played out of phase. Also, some arpeggiations

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198 Marcondes, 637.
199 The moda-de-violas or moda was discussed in the Brasiliana No. 2.
201 Ibid.
are added. The B section works as a short intermezzo and the texture is mostly linear. The Brazilian northeastern mode is used in this section to build a folk-like melody. Like Guarnieri’s *Ponteios* and following Chopin’s Preludes, Lacerda’s “Ponteio” is a short movement in one mood and it concentrates on a single pattern or performance technique. Figure 3.79 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Ponteio”

![Figure 3.79. Opening of Lacerda’s “Ponteio”](image)

The second movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 9* is entitled “Polca.” The polka is a lively European couple-dance in duple meter.\(^{203}\) The polka is an urban social dance—not a folk dance—that appeared around the 1830s.\(^ {204}\) Although there are controversies about its origin, the Czech name *půlka* leads to Bohemia.\(^ {205}\) The first printed polka was written for piano; it was published in 1837 in Prague, where the polka became a salon dance. A dancing master from Prague brought the polka to Paris in 1840, and it later became the favorite dance of Parisian society.\(^ {206}\) The genre was adopted by all famous ballroom dance composers, and became part of the repertoire of military bands.\(^ {207}\) The polka is usually in ternary form with eight-bar sections,

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\(^{205}\) Sachs, 435.

\(^{206}\) Černušák/Lamb/ Tyrrell: “Polka.”

\(^{207}\) Ibid.
sometimes including introduction and coda.\textsuperscript{208} Examples of the polka’s rhythmic patterns are shown in Figure 3.80.\textsuperscript{209}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{polka_patterns.png}
\caption{Rhythmic patterns of the polka}
\end{figure}

In 1845, the polka was brought from Paris to Rio de Janeiro, where it was performed for the first time at the \textit{Teatro São Pedro}. It soon became fashionable in Brazil. Composers of Brazilian popular music wrote many pieces in this genre, adding Brazilian elements.\textsuperscript{210} The \textit{Polca}, as it is spelled in Portuguese, was played by \textit{choro} ensembles and blended with other genres creating hybrid types such as \textit{polca-choro}, \textit{polca-lundu}, \textit{polca-maxixe}, \textit{polca-militar}, etc.\textsuperscript{211} Later, it spread to the rural area and became folk music.\textsuperscript{212} Figure 3.81 shows an excerpt from a \textit{polca} entitled \textit{Glória} by Eduardo Ribas (1822–1883), originally published in 1856, in Rio de Janeiro.\textsuperscript{213}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{ribas_polca.png}
\caption{Ribas’ \textit{Polca}}
\end{figure}

\textsuperscript{208} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{209} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{210} Almeida, 185-7.
\textsuperscript{211} Marcondes, 636. The \textit{choro} and the \textit{maxixe} will be discussed in the \textit{Brasiliana No. 11}.
\textsuperscript{212} Ibid.
Lacerda’s “Polca” is in G major and rondo form (ABA’CA’’) with coda. The A and B sections have nine measures each, while the C section has eight. Unlike the Brazilian polcas I examined, Lacerda’s “Polca” has no immediate sectional repeats. The reappearances of the A section are varied. The common rhythmic patterns of the polka, shown in Figure 3.80, can be found throughout the piece. Lacerda’s “Polca” probably shows the influence of the bands that used to play polkas and other European genres, at the end of 19th century. This influence can be seen at the first reappearance of A, in which the melody is played by the bass line like low brass instruments; also noteworthy is the use of upbeat chords resembling the dobrado’s accompaniment.214 Another interesting feature is the use of accented notes on the second beat, which differentiates it from the traditional strong downbeats of the European polkas. The C section presents atonal sonorities built upon tritones and minor seconds. Figure 3.82 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Polca.”

![Figure 3.82. Opening of Lacerda’s “Polca”](image)

The third movement of Lacerda’s Brasiliana No. 9 is entitled “Bendito.” The bendito is a religious song of praise, of Portuguese origin and French influence, which is sung in processions, home devotions, and funerals.215 It is common in the rural areas of Brazil. The word bendito

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214 The dobrado was discussed in Brasilian No. 1.
215 Marcondes, 91.
means blessed and is usually the first word of the text.\textsuperscript{216} The practice of singing *benditos* goes back to the colonial period, when the Jesuits used Latin Catholic hymns and/or profane melodies by classical composers.\textsuperscript{217} These chants were transmitted orally and gradually distorted.\textsuperscript{218} Women play the predominant role when the *benditos* are sung at home.\textsuperscript{219} The melodic lines, usually built upon the Brazilian northeastern and major modes, are sung legato, mostly in unison or parallel octaves, and in flexible tempo.\textsuperscript{220} In the rural areas of Ceará, I have seen the use of portamento and heterophony. Figure 3.83 shows a *bendito* that, according to Lacerda in the program notes of his “Bendito,” was collected by Lima in the rural area of São Paulo.

![Figure 3.83. Bendito](image)

Lacerda’s “Bendito” is in theme and variation form, in which the theme is the *bendito* shown in Figure 3.83. The opening of the theme, in A♭ major, is presented in parallel octaves and then accompanied by functional harmony in moderate tempo. Five variations follow: in Variation I, the theme retains the same key and tempo and is mostly accompanied by half-diminished seventh and French augmented sixth chords. Variation II, the fastest, is in two voices and has different key signatures for each hand: the right hand plays the legato theme in A♭ major and the left hand plays a staccato bass line in D major. Variation III returns to the opening moderate tempo without key signature. The juxtaposition of different chords and a *forte* dynamic level characterize this variation, creating harsh sonorities culminating in a climax that

\textsuperscript{216} Cascudo, *Diccionário do Folclore Brasileiro*, 154.
\textsuperscript{217} Almeida, 131-2.
\textsuperscript{218} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{219} Olsen and Sheehy, 328.
\textsuperscript{220} Ibid.
dissolves gradually by the reduction of texture, tempo, and dynamics. The top notes of the right hand present a melodic line, which is mostly in parallel motion with the top notes of the left hand in major and minor seconds. This melodic line uses barely-recognizable fragments of the theme. The melody in Variation IV is played by the left hand, accompanied by repeated chords, in triplets, played pp by the right hand. Rhythmic patterns from the theme are used to form this atonal melody. The last variation, the slowest, has two key signatures, A♭ major and D major, and is written in three staves; the damper pedal is used throughout, creating a blurred effect. The bass has repeated A♭ chords like a drone. The middle and upper staves present the theme in D major played in thirds by both hands. The piece ends without tonic resolution in a diminuendo to pppp. Figure 3.84 shows the opening of the last variation of Lacerda’s “Bendito.”

![Figure 3.84. Opening of Lacerda’s “Bendito”](image)

The last movement of Lacerda’s Brasiliana No. 9 is entitled “Forró.” The term forró is associated with parties and dancing in northeastern Brazil, and its music is played by accordion-based groups. The term forró also designates a musical genre that developed from the modern version of the baião, which dates from the late 1950s. It seems that the name comes from an abbreviation of the word forrobodó used in the newspapers when referring to popular balls in the

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221 Olsen and Sheehy, 331.
222 Ibid., 332. The baião was discussed in the Brasiliana No. 6.
second half of 19th century.\textsuperscript{223} The forró, as a general term, includes various dances in duple meter such as xote, arrasta-pé, and baião.\textsuperscript{224} The typical instrumentation of the forró consists of the accordion, the triangle, and the zabumba. To this group, called the northeastern trio, other instruments are sometimes added, such as agogô, ganzá, and the guitar.\textsuperscript{225} The characteristic rhythm of the accompaniment of the forró grew up from the rhythmic pattern of the baião, with the addition of accented up-beats especially for the zabumba and triangle, allowing variety and free improvisation.\textsuperscript{226} As I could see many times in forró parties in my home town of Fortaleza, the forró music is in animated tempo, with continuous figurations, particularly for the accordion. The creation of forró clubs throughout the country popularized the genre nationally.\textsuperscript{227} Figure 3.85a shows the rhythmic pattern of modern baião and Figure 3.85b shows the rhythmic pattern of forró.\textsuperscript{228}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figures}
\caption{Figure 3.85a. Modern baião \hspace{1cm} Figure 3.85b. Forró}
\end{figure}

Lacerda’s “Forró” is in ABA’ form, in fast tempo. The texture consists of an accompanied melody mostly built on running notes. The movement has characteristics of northeastern music with respect to scales and rhythms. The first and last sections oscillate between D major and D Mixolydian, while the middle one oscillates between D minor and D

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{223}Marcondes, 301.
\item \textsuperscript{224}Olsen and Sheehy, 332. The xote or chote was discussed in the Brasiliana No. 2, the arrasta-pé was discussed in the Brasiliana No. 7, and the baião was discussed in the Brasiliana No. 6.
\item \textsuperscript{225}Olsen and Sheehy, 331. A ganzá is a type of shaker.
\item \textsuperscript{226}Ibid., 332.
\item \textsuperscript{227}Ibid., 332-3.
\item \textsuperscript{228}Ibid., 332.
\end{itemize}
northeastern mode. In the A’ section, the right hand plays the melody in the low register, crossing over the left hand’s accompanying chords. The rhythm of the baião and variations of it appear throughout the piece, especially in the A and A’ sections. Figure 3.86 shows the ending of the A section and the beginning of the B section of Lacerda’s “Forró.” The first four measures of this figure show another rhythm—a combination of the figure /semiquaver-middle/semiquaver/semiquaver/semiquaver/semiquaver/semiquaver/semiquaver/semiquaver/semiquaver/semiquaver/semiquaver/semiquaver/semiquaver/semiquaver/semiquaver/semiquaver followed by two eighth notes with an accent in the last one—that I have seen many times in forrós. In Lacerda’s “Forró,” this rhythm is commonly used in short passages.

![Excerpt from Lacerda’s “Forró”](image)

**Figure 3.86. Excerpt from Lacerda’s “Forró”**

### 3.11 **Brasiliana No. 10**

Brasiliana No. 10 was composed in 1987 and employs the following genres: cantoria, recortado, canto de cego, and marchinha. The cantoria is a term used in northeastern Brazil to designate the singing of the cantadores. The term refers to songs that use improvised verses with rhymes. These songs are also called repente and desafio.231

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229 The baião was discussed in the Brasiliana No. 6.
230 Marcondes, 149.
Lacerda’s “Cantoria” is an example of desafio in ABA’B’A’’ form, in which the various sections represent the cantadores singing alternately. The sections contrast both registrally and dynamically. The first cantador, represented in the A, A’, and A’’ sections, is depicted in a higher register and in mf, while the second cantador, represented in the B and B’ sections, is depicted in a lower register and in p mezza voce. In the A section, the melody uses the northeastern mode in G, and the accompaniment is in baião rhythm. Both A’ and A’’ sections are melodically varied, and A’’ is a shortened version of A’. In the B section, the melody is mostly in G northeastern mode finishing in G Aeolian mode, and the accompaniment has sporadic guitar-like chords, imitating the viola. These contrasting sections can be compared to a duel between two different cantadores. As in the desafios, the winner sings the last strophe. The dichotomy is also emphasized by Lacerda’s indications for the first cantador as “um tanto rude,” (“in a rude manner),” and for the second one as “mais suave,” (“more gentle).” Figure 3.87 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Cantoria.”

![Musical notation](image)

**Figure 3.87. Opening of Lacerda’s “Cantoria”**

The second movement of Lacerda’s Brasiliana No. 10 is called “Recortado.” The recortado is a popular dance, in verse-chorus form, that uses hand clapping and foot tapping; it is

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232 The northeastern mode in G comprises the following notes: G-A-B-C#-D-E-F. The baião was discussed in the Brasiliana No. 6.
The recortado may appear independently or following the cateretê, another dance with Amerindian origins that uses hand clapping and foot tapping. This pairing of dances occurs in the central area of Brazil. Although some other instruments, such as accordion, mandolin, and violin are used in recortados performed in Minas Gerais, the basic instrument used in this genre is the viola. When the recortado appears following the cateretê, it is generally danced and played only by men. Like the cateretê, the recortado is accompanied by one or two violeiros, and sung in thirds. In contrast with the cateretê, the recortado has a faster tempo and a more complex choreography. An interesting feature of the choreography is the switching of places between violeiros and dancers while they sing. The recortado was probably influenced by the batuque, an Afro-Brazilian dance. Both dances use the umbigada, as well as responsorial chant. In the music of the recortado, the refrain is sung by all dancers, and the strophe is sung by soloists, usually the violeiros. The refrain has a fixed text, while the strophes can be improvised. The examples of recortado I examined are in duple meter, in major mode, usually with comic text, although some are lyrical. Figure 3.88 shows the rhythmic patterns used for hand clapping and foot tapping in the recortado. Figure 3.89 shows a strophe of a recortado from São Paulo.

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233 Cascudo, Dicionário do Folclore Brasileiro, 770.
234 Giffoni, 227. The cateretê will be discussed in the Brasiliana No. 12.
235 Ibid., 228.
236 Lima, 55-6. Violeiros are guitar players from the rural areas.
237 Alvarenga, 188.
238 Ibid.
239 The batuque is an Afro-Brazilian circle dance performed by the slaves. Shaw, 3.
240 Alvarenga, 192-3.
241 Ibid., 188-93.
242 Lima, 63.
243 Ibid., 64.
Figure 3.88. Rhythmic patterns used for foot tapping (a) and hand clapping (b) in the recortado

Figure 3.89. Recortado

Lacerda’s “Recortado” is in ABA’ form, in which the A and A’ sections are in A major and the B section is atonal. The rhythmic pattern associated with hand clapping is used in the accompaniment of the A and A’ sections. As in the folk recortado, the melody of these sections is played in thirds. In the B section, sonorities such as the [016] collection, quartal harmony, and whole tone scale are used. The use of percussive sounds based on the rhythmic patterns of the recortado is clear in this section, especially in the passage with repeated seconds in the low register, which uses the rhythmic pattern of the foot tapping. Figure 3.90 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Recortado.” Note that the melody of Lacerda’s “Recortado” begins with the same rhythm as the folk recortado shown in Figure 3.89.

Figure 3.90. Opening of Lacerda’s “Recortado”
The third movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 10* is entitled “Canto de Cego.” Found mostly in northeastern Brazil, this is a type of chant sung by blind street musicians who beg for money.\(^\text{244}\) This practice has its origin in Portugal, where it can still be found.\(^\text{245}\) In the rural areas, some of these blind men become famous as guitar players.\(^\text{246}\) The *canto de cego* is traditionally performed in free markets of northeastern Brazil.\(^\text{247}\) The music is monotonous, languid, and sad, and it is commonly sung using the nasal sound typical in northeastern Brazil.\(^\text{248}\) The chant can be solo or may be accompanied by guitar or *rabeca*.\(^\text{249}\) The music is simple and often based on original material, but well-known songs can also be used. The lyrics are mostly related to lightness and darkness. Depending on whether or not s/he receives the money, the beggar sings the chant with lyrics that thank or criticize.\(^\text{250}\) Figure 3.91 shows a folk *canto de cego* from Maranhão.\(^\text{251}\)

\[\text{Figure 3.91. Canto de cego}\]

Lacerda’s “Canto de Cego” is in rondo form (ABA′CA′′). The theme is presented in parallel octaves in D♭ major/minor. The B Section is monophonic. In this section, chromaticism and the [016] collection abound. In the A′ section, the theme is played by the left hand against ornamental figurations in the right hand. The C section is also monophonic and chromatic.

\(^{244}\) D’Assumpção, 132.

\(^{245}\) Ibid.

\(^{246}\) Almeida, 108 and D’Assumpção, 132.

\(^{247}\) Marcondes, 150.

\(^{248}\) Ibid.

\(^{249}\) A *rabeca* is a rudimentary violin. D’Assumpção, 132 and Marcondes, 150.

\(^{250}\) Almeida, 108-9.

\(^{251}\) Ibid., 109.
the A’ section, the theme is played by the right hand, accompanied by tertian harmony. The composer uses the markings *triste* (sad) and *lamentoso* (like a lament); these feelings are evident in the B and C sections, in which the lack of energy is helped by the use of rubato and fermatas, and a monophonic texture. The theme was composed by Lacerda; it does not come from the folk repertoire, nor does it have northeastern characteristics with respect to scales and rhythms. In the coda, however, the opening of the theme appears in the Mixolydian mode, which is characteristic of northeastern music. Figure 3.92 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Canto de Cego.”

![Figure 3.92. Opening of Lacerda’s “Canto de Cego”](image)

The last movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 10* is entitled “Marchinha.” The diminutive of *marcha* (march), the *marchinha* is an urban genre, in duple meter, written especially for Brazilian carnival parties. The form began to be called by its diminutive around 1930, when it acquired a lighter character. Originally, the *marcha* was part of the folk cycles performed during Christmas; the tempo was slow. Chiquinha Gonzaga (1847–1935) composed

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252 Olsen and Sheehy, 325.
254 Marcondes, 478.
Ó abre-als in 1899; that work is considered the first march written especially for the carnival.\textsuperscript{255} Marchas imported from Portugal were also heard in the Brazilian carnival until the late 1910s.\textsuperscript{256}

After the 1920s, influenced by American jazz bands, the \textit{marcha} became faster. Many jazz bands appeared in southern and southeastern Brazil at that time,\textsuperscript{257} and the regular production of carnival \textit{marchinhas} started around that time. The lyrics dealt with contemporary subjects in an ironic and sometimes malicious way. The \textit{marchinha} differs from the \textit{marcha de rancho}, discussed in the \textit{Brasiliana No. 1}, with respect to tempo, meter, and melodic elaboration. The \textit{marcha de rancho} is slower, mostly in 4/4, and more elaborate than the \textit{marchinha}.\textsuperscript{258}

Lacerda’s “Marchinha” is in ABA’ form, in duple meter, and in fast tempo. The A section has a melody in G major/minor using a limited range, accompanied by the [0268] collection in a percussive ostinato in the low register. The accented second beat found in this accompaniment is characteristic of the tom-tom parts in the \textit{marchinha} and other carnival dances, such as the \textit{frevo} and the \textit{samba}.\textsuperscript{259} The B section is in A minor and mostly in two-voice texture. The A’ is slightly different from A, and is followed by a coda built on whole tone sonorities. Figure 3.93 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Marchinha.”

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure393.png}
\caption{Opening of Lacerda’s “Marchinha”}
\end{figure}

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{255} Ibid.
\item \textsuperscript{256} Tinhorão, \textit{História Social da Música Popular Brasileira}, 254.
\item \textsuperscript{257} Ibid.
\item \textsuperscript{258} Marcondes, 478.
\item \textsuperscript{259} The \textit{samba} and the \textit{frevo} were discussed in the \textit{Brasilianas No. 7} and 8, respectively.
\end{itemize}

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3.12 *Brasiliana No. 11*

*Brasiliana No. 11* was composed in 1989 and employs the following genres: *tango*, *maxixe*, *choro*, and *polca sertaneja*. *Tango* is a Latin American song and dance genre. The term designated many types of dances and songs in Latin American countries and Spain during the 19th century. During the 1850s, Cuban dance rhythms, including the *habanera*, spread throughout Latin America. The history of the *habanera* goes back to the late 1700s and early 1800s, when French refugees brought the *contredanse* to Cuba. Under the influence of African rhythms in Cuba, the dance became the *contradanza habanera*, and was re-exported to Europe. The *habanera* was introduced in Brazil by musical theatre companies from Europe, and it was popularized in Rio de Janeiro in the 1870s. In Brazil, Henrique Alves de Mesquista (1830–1906) was responsible for changing its name to *tango*. The label *tango brasileiro* was also used by Ernesto Nazareth (1863–1932) to designate a genre he helped to establish: the *maxixe*, which is a fusion of *habanera*, *polca*, and *lundu*. After the 1910s, the term *tango* was generally used in Brazil to designate hybrid genres (*polca-dobrado*, *polca-maxixe*, etc). Finally, during the 1930s, with the vogue of the Argentine *tango*, the term *tango*, as a designation of a Brazilian genre, ceased to be used in Brazil. Figure 3.94 shows some rhythmic patterns used by Nazareth in the accompaniment of his *tangos*, all composed for piano.

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261 Ibid.
262 The *contredanse* is a fast dance movement in duple meter from France. Randel, 201.
265 Ibid.
266 Alvarenga, 292. The *maxixe* will be discussed in the next movement. The *polca* was discussed in *Brasiliana No. 9* and the *lundu* was discussed in the *Brasiliana No. 5*.
268 Ibid.
Although I could not find a definite format for the Brazilian tango, I will make some comparisons between Lacerda’s “Tango” and Nazareth’s tangos. Lacerda’s “Tango,” in duple meter and ABA’ form, is shorter than Nazareth’s tangos, which are also in duple meter but in rondo form. The A section of Lacerda’s “Tango” consists of a melody, mostly presented as the top line of successive chords, loosely in E♭ minor and accompanied by [016] and chromatic sonorities in the left hand. This method of presenting the melody is commonly found in Nazareth’s tangos. The left hand of Lacerda’s “Tango” plays a single bass line differing from the accompaniments of Nazareth’s tangos, which usually use chords, resembling the guitar and cavaquinho. For the accompaniment, Lacerda chose the first rhythmic pattern of Figure 3.94, which is also used in the habanera. In the melodic line, it is common to find the second pattern of Figure 3.94 and some syncopation, which is also present in the melodies of Nazareth’s tangos. Despite many non-harmonic notes, the B section has clearer tonality—D major—than the A section, and it also varies the texture through the use of contrapuntal writing, which rarely appears in Nazareth’s tangos. Figure 3.95 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Tango.”
The second movement of Lacerda’s *Brasíliana No. 11* is entitled “Maxixe.” This genre was the first type of urban dance created in Brazil. The *maxixe* appeared in the 1870s; it was derived from the fashionable dance genres of the time, such as the polka and the schottische, combined with the influence of Afro-Brazilian choreography. Three musical genres contributed to the birth of the *maxixe*: the *lundu*, with its syncopations and sensual movements, the *habanera*, with its rhythms, and the *polca*, with its vivid tempo. The typical ensemble at that time, the *choro*, brought the European genres from the salons and stages to the suburbs of Rio de Janeiro, and added the Afro-Brazilian rhythms and syncopations. The *maxixe* appeared as a dance (and later as a musical genre) as a consequence of the intermingling of the Afro-Brazilian and Portuguese populations in the suburbs. The dance spread to the carnival clubs and review theaters of Rio de Janeiro, and developed many varied steps. Because of its explicit sensuality, the dance was not accepted by the aristocracy at first. The *maxixe* gained international recognition when it was performed in Europe, with more sophisticated choreography, by a famous Brazilian dancer, Antônio Lopes de Amorim Diniz, also known as Duque. Teaching and performing with his partners, Duque first called the dance *tango brasileiro*, probably because at that time the word *maxixe* had connotations of lower class or quality. The evolution of the *maxixe* into a musical genre started with the evolution of the

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269 Alvarenga, 292.
271 Alvarenga, 292. The *polca* was discussed in *Brasíliana No. 9* and the *lundu* was discussed in the *Brasíliana No. 5*.
272 Tinhorão, *Pequena História da Música Popular*, 58-63. The *choro* will be discussed in the next movement.
273 Ibid., 61-3.
274 Marcondes, 494.
276 Marcondes, 494.
polca into the polca-maxixe, labeled first as polca-tango to avoid the word maxixe. The word maxixe gradually became accepted, and publishers at the end of the 19th century began to use the word in their sheet music collections. The maxixe is in duple meter, fast tempo, and in sectional form. It has a playful character and mixes rhythmic patterns from polca, habanera, and lundu. Figure 3.96 shows the lundu Chô, Araúna collected by Andrade in Rio Grande do Norte. According to Tinhórao, this lundu with characteristics of the maxixe was originally by Xisto Bahia (1841–1894), and was danced as a maxixe in the review theater in Rio de Janeiro, in 1885. Later it became folk music.

![Figure 3.96. Chô, Araúna](image)

Lacerda’s “Maxixe,” with monophonic texture, is in rondo form, ABA’CA”, in which the A section is varied with each repetition. Staccato notes in fast tempo contribute to its gracious character. Lacerda indicates the character as gingando (“with swing”). The melody moves from one hand to the other in different registers. The A, A’, and A” sections are mostly in the lower register, while the B and C sections are in the higher register. The key areas are related by thirds: the A, A’, and A” sections are in E♭ major, the B section is in C minor, and the C section

278 Ibid., 63.
279 Alvarenga, 292 and Marcondes, 494.
280 Andrade, Danças Dramáticas, Tomo III, 46.
281 Tinhórao, Pequena História da Música Popular, 70.
is in G minor. The melody presents rhythms similar to the folk example shown in Figure 3.96, with extensive use of \( \text{\textfrac{4}{4}} \). Figure 3.97 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Maxixe.”

![Gingando](image)

**Figure 3.97. Opening of Lacerda’s “Maxixe”**

The third movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 11* is entitled “Chôro.” The word *choro* (weep or lament) designates a type of performing group, a style of performing, and a genre.\(^{282}\)

As a type of performing group, consisting basically of flute, *cavaquinho*, and two guitars, it appeared around the 1870s, when the popular musicians of Rio de Janeiro started giving their own interpretation to *polcas*, which were very popular at that time.\(^{283}\) The flutist Joaquim Antônio da Silva Callado (1848–1880) was an important figure in the establishment of these first groups of *choro*.\(^{284}\) The musicians associated with these groups were called *chorões* (weepers).

As a style of performing, the *choro* worked as a kind of filter through which various European, such as *polkas*, *schottisches*, and *waltzes* passed. Improvisation, nostalgic and melancholic character, and unpredictable modulations, used as kind of challenge amongst the players, were always present in the reinterpretation of these foreign genres by the *chorões*.\(^{285}\) These characteristics gradually helped to establish the *choro* as an independent genre. It is difficult to say exactly when this happened, but it was probably before 1920, when Villa-Lobos wrote the

\(^{282}\) Appleby, 85.
\(^{283}\) Tinhorão, *Pequena História da Música Popular*, 103. The *polca* was discussed in the *Brasiliana No. 9*.
\(^{284}\) Marcondes, 200.
\(^{285}\) Ibid.
first piece of his series entitled *Choros*.\(^{286}\) Since that time, the *choro* has always been present in Brazilian musical life, and its popularity has increased since the 1970s.

Lacerda’s “Chôro” is in AA′ form and in duple meter. The A′ section is truncated, and it is followed by a coda. The right hand presents a melodic line in C minor in moderate tempo, with chromaticism. The texture is contrapuntal and the bass line also uses chromaticism, making a kind of dialogue with the melodic line, similar to the way the flute does so with the guitar in the popular *choros*. Staccato notes contrast with legato articulations. At the end of each section the harmony moves away from the tonal center, perhaps to represent the unpredictable modulations used in the *choro*. Figure 3.98 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Chôro.”

![Figure 3.98. Opening of Lacerda’s “Chôro”](image)

The last movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 11* is entitled “Polca Sertaneja.” This piece is based on a type of *polca*, a genre already discussed in the *Brasiliana No. 9*. The *polca* combined with several genres, creating hybrid genres such as *polca-maxixe*, *polca-lundu*, etc.\(^{287}\) The *polca sertaneja* originated in the rural areas; the genre has a faster tempo than the *polca* and

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\(^{287}\) Marcondes, 636.
is traditionally accompanied by violas and accordions. When it is sung in duet, the melodic lines are in parallel thirds.\(^{288}\)

Lacerda’s “Polca Sertaneja” is in ABA’. The A section consists of a compound melodic line in C major and sporadic descending chromatic gestures in the right hand, accompanied by the \([016]\) collection and chromatic ascending lines in the left hand. The rhythm of the A and A’ sections consists mostly of eighth-note figures in staccato. In the B section, the rhythmic figuration of the right hand uses sixteenth notes. The left hand mostly follows the compound melodic line of the right hand in parallel motion, often by intervals of a sixth. Figure 3.99 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Polca Sertaneja.”

![Figure 3.99. Opening of Lacerda’s “Polca Sertaneja”](image)

3.13 Brasiliana No. 12

Brasiliana No. 12 is the third piece of the cycle for piano four hands. This work was composed in 1993 and employs the following genres: cateretê, canto de bebiba, canção, and maracatú. The cateretê is a type of rural dance found in the central and southeastern areas of Brazil, as well as in some parts of the northeast.\(^{289}\) In the state of Minas Gerais, the word cateretê has meanings related to a popular ball or feast.\(^{290}\) The cateretê is considered the most

\(^{288}\) Marcondes, 544-5.

\(^{289}\) Giffoni, 104.

\(^{290}\) Marcondes, 181-2.
commonly encountered rural dance in São Paulo. Other names for the dance are: catira, xiba or chiba, batepé, função, and pagode. Probably of Amerindian origin, the cateretê is considered half profane and half religious. The Amerindians used to sing Catholic texts taught by the Jesuits, who employed a precursor of this dance, the caateretê, in Catholic festivities during the colonial period.

The dancers, usually male, perform in two lines with two cantadores in each corner playing violas and singing in parallel thirds. The choreography differs from region to region and alternates sections of singing, hand clapping, and foot tapping. The songs, which are in fact modas, are used only during the breaks in the dance. The dance is accompanied by the violas or by the rhythms produced by hands and feet. The cateretê usually ends with the recortado, a faster dance in which the dancers also sing. The melodies of the cateretê are monotonous, in duple meter, and employ simple rhythms. The verses have varied subjects, some of them humorous. Figure 3.100 shows a moda-de-viola of a cateretê from the village of Carapicuiba, in São Paulo.

Figure 3.100. Moda-de-viola used in the cateretê

291 Giffoni, 106.  
292 Marcondes, 181.  
293 Giffoni, 104.  
294 Ibid.  
295 Lima, 54.  
296 Giffoni, 106.  
297 The moda was discussed in the Brasiliana No. 2.  
298 Marcondes, 182.  
299 The recortado was discussed in the Brasiliana No. 10.  
300 Giffoni, 105.  
301 Lima, 60.
Lacerda’s “Cateretê” is in duple meter and in sectional form. Each section may correspond to parts of the folk *cateretê*. These sections are grouped in a type of ABA′ form, in which the A and A′ sections correspond to the *moda* sung in the folk *cateretê*, and the B section corresponds to the hand clapping and foot tapping that occurs during the dance. The *moda*, marked *dolce*, is presented in parallel thirds by the primo, preceded by an introduction that represents the instrumental prelude played by the *violas* in the folk *cateretê*. This *moda*—in D major—appears twice in the A section and once in the A′ section. Contrasting with the A section, the B section, indicated with a *rude* character, consists of staccato chords, built on the whole tone scale, depicting the hand clapping (primo) and foot tapping (secondo). Lacerda himself indicates this programmatic idea. Figure 3.101 shows the opening of the B section of Lacerda’s “Cateretê.”

![Figure 3.101. Opening of the B section of Lacerda’s “Cateretê”](image)

The second movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 12* is entitled “Canto de Bebida,” “drinking song.” The practice of singing and drinking together is common in Anglo-Saxon countries but not in Latin America. Some Brazilian drinking songs show Portuguese

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302 D’Assumpção, 136.
influence, with subjects related to navigation or Catholic saints. The genre is falling into disuse in Brazil, but some examples can still be found in the state of Minas Gerais. The most famous one is the *Peixe Vivo*, shown in Figure 3.102, which is popular in the city of Diamantina.

![Figure 3.102. Peixe Vivo](image)

Lacerda’s “Canto de Bebida” is in ABA′B′ form and employs two folk tunes from Minas Gerais: *Tim tim ô lá lá*, used in the A section, and *Peixe Vivo*, used in the B section. In the A section, the first folk theme (mm. 1—8), in F major and triple meter, is presented by the primo alone: the right hand plays the melody and the left hand accompanies it with [026] trichords. This is followed by a transitional section, in which the secondo has chromatic and [016] sonorities. Afterwards, the primo plays an atonal melody built on the rhythms of the theme and the secondo provides the accompaniment in [016] trichords. The A section ends with an ascending arpeggio and a chord, both employing two different whole tone scales. In the B section, the second folk theme (mm. 66—79), in B♭ major and duple meter, appears slightly changed from the original folk tune, shown in Figure 3.102. This theme is accompanied by tonal

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303 Ibid., 137-8.  
304 Marcondes, 149.  
305 D’Assumpção, 137.  
306 There are only two possible whole tone scales: C-D-E-F♯-G♯-A♯ and C♯-D♯-F-G-A-B.
harmony. The A′ section presents the first theme in parallel minor seconds played by the primo and accompanied by whole tone chords, chromatic gestures, and the [016] collection played by the secondo. In the final section, fragments of the second theme return, transformed by the [016] collection and accompanied by low diatonic clusters with mixed meter, free tempo, and sudden dynamic changes, in imitation of a drunkard. Lacerda marks this section como se fosse um bêbado cantando, “as if it were a drunken person singing.” Figure 3.103 shows the opening of the B′ section of Lacerda’s “Canto de Bebida.”

Figure 3.103. Opening of the B′ section of Lacerda’s “Canto de Bebida”

The third movement of Lacerda’s Brasiliana No. 12 is entitled “Canção,” “song.” The words lundu, moda, modinha, romance, toada, seresta, and cantiga denote types of Brazilian songs with particular characteristics associated with their formal, historical and musical aspects. The history of Brazilian song can be traced back to the 16th century. In Brazil, the people in the colonial cities produced the first popular solo songs, which were accompanied by guitars or
In art music, the modinha, which was accompanied by piano or harpsichord, acquired characteristics of the arias of the Italian operas in the beginning of the 19th century. Even the language used in most art songs was Italian, contrasting with that of the folk songs, which was Portuguese. In the second half of 19th century, European romanticism influenced Brazilian composers, who became conscious of a national movement. The efforts of Alberto Nepomuceno (1864–1920) helped to establish the use of the Portuguese language in concert songs. Villa-Lobos also employed folk themes and texts in his songs.

Other important composers of songs in Brazil are: Camargo Guarnieri, Cláudio Santoro, Guerra Peixe, and Osvaldo Lacerda, who composed almost 100 songs.

Lacerda’s “Canção” is an instrumental song in ABA’ form, in which a cantabile melody is the predominant musical aspect. In the A section, an accompanied melody in E minor is presented by each player alone in a type of dialogue. In the B section, the melody shifts between E major and E minor, and is played by the primo and accompanied by the secondo; later they switch roles. In the A’ section, the melody is played by the primo throughout and accompanied by the secondo. In this section, the composer asks for a slower tempo, perhaps to accommodate the ornamented notes. Noteworthy are the uneven phrase-lengths and the varied rhythmic figuration of the melody, creating a narrative character and a romance-like feeling. The coda ends with a pedal note accompanying fragments of the opening melody. Figure 3.104 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Canção.”

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308 Alvarenga, 284-5.
309 Marion Verhaalen, Camargo Guarnieri – Expressões de uma Vida (São Paulo: Edusp, 2001), 244.
311 Ibid., 28.
The last movement of Lacerda’s *Brasiliana No. 12* is entitled “Maracatú.” The maracatu is a semi-religious carnival parade representing the coronation ceremonies of African nobles. In its sacred origin the parades paid homage to Our Lady of the Rosary or the patron saint before the parade. The maracatu is found in Paraíba, Alagoas, Ceará, and in Pernambuco, where a group of maracatu is called nação (nation). There is no specific choreography, and the singing, sometimes responsorial, is accompanied by percussion instruments playing a monotonous ostinato. Figure 3.105 shows a typical rhythmic pattern of the maracatu of Pernambuco, played by a gonguê (type of cowbell). Figure 3.106 shows a maracatu of Nação Costa Velha.

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312 Marcondes, 475 and D’Assumpção, 79.
313 Cascudo, *Dicionário do Folclore Brasileiro*, 553.
314 D’Assumpção, 79-80.
315 Marcondes, 476 and Almeida, 269.
317 Almeida, 269.
Lacerda’s “Maracatú,” subtitled Passacalha e Dança (Passacaglia and Dance), is a theme with seventeen variations, followed by a dance. The piece opens with a four-measure ostinato similar to the rhythmic pattern of the gonguê, shown in Figure 3.105. This ostinato, a tetrachord broken into minor seconds and played by the primo in the high register, accompanies the theme and the first variations. The ostinato gives way to other rhythmic patterns, and is restated in the dance section, in low register, this time sounding like a bass drum accompaniment. The theme is centered on B, and consists of a four-measure bass line played by the left hand of the secondo; it is literally repeated for nine variations. In Variation X, a rhythmic variant of the theme, played by the secondo, is imitated canonically by the primo. In Variation XIII, the theme, played mostly in octaves by the primo, becomes more melodic. An episode connects the variations with the dance. Here, the theme appears with the same rhythm but modified into the collection. The dance is in a loose ABA’ form, in which two themes are presented. The first, presented in the A section, is in F Dorian and the second, presented in the B section, is in E Aeolian. In the A’ section the first theme of the dance is restated in B Dorian. The piece ends with the theme of the passacaglia played by the secondo in parallel octaves. Noteworthy is the use of the collection as an element of unity: it appears in the opening three notes of the passacaglia theme, in the introductory ostinato, and in the large-scale
key areas of the piece, as shown in Figure 3.107. Also, the tritone B-F, which appears in the opening theme of the piece, is the interval between the pitch center of the passacaglia (B) and the pitch center of the dance’s first theme (F). Figure 3.108 shows the opening of Lacerda’s “Maracatú.”

Figure 3.107. Large-scale structure of Lacerda’s “Maracatú”

Figure 3.108. Opening of Lacerda’s “Maracatú”
CONCLUSION

Lacerda’s *Brasilianas*, a series of twelve suites for piano, is a representative example of Brazilian musical nationalism. In each of the suites, characteristics of Brazilian folk songs and dances are described and presented in a refined manner. The forty-eight movements of the suites show a diversity of musical genres that reflects Brazil’s cultural richness. Lacerda’s skillful use of folk elements and his successful handling of variation technique make the *Brasilianas* a useful tool for the study of composition. This work is also good pedagogical material for pianists, as it includes varied rhythms, cantabile melodies, polyphonic playing, and contemporary sonorities.

In the *Brasilianas*, Lacerda uses textures, scales, forms, folk tunes, and programmatic ideas to convey the characteristics of each genre. He also uses the Portuguese language for the performance and character indications. General characteristics of the *Brasilianas* are: (1) lack of key signatures (except in the *Bendito*, in which he uses key signatures to indicate bitonality); (2) fragmentation of themes, especially in those pieces employing variation form; (3) extensive use of ABA form; (4) blending of sonorities (e.g. tonal melody accompanied by atonal sonorities); (5) frequent use of Neapolitan and French augmented sixth chords; (6) frequent use of the [016] collection; and (7) frequent use of the Brazilian northeastern mode. With its unique combination of neo-classical and contemporary musical language, Lacerda’s *Brasilianas* is an attractive introduction to the world of Brazilian music.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


APPENDIX A. LIST OF WORKS BY OSVALDO LACERDA

Voice and Piano  (94 works)

1949  Minha Maria  
Quando entardece  
Teus olhos  
Menino doente
1950  Cantiga I  
Lembrança de amor
1951  Noturno  
Felicidade  
Poema erótico
1952  Duas canções:  
1. “Menina, minha menina”  
2. “Trovas de amigo”
1953  Modinha  
Desafio  
Ausência
1955  Quatro miniaturas de Adelmar Taveres:  
1. “A luz desse olhar tristonho”  
2. “Não chega bem ao meu ombro”  
3. “Ando triste”  
4. “Dei-te os sonhos de minh’alma”
1962  Mandaste a sombra de um beijo
1964  Poema tirado de uma notícia de jornal  
Cantiga II
1965  Murmúrio  
Trovas:  
1. “Eu quero bem”  
2. “Chamaste-me tua vida”  
3. “Se eu fosses pé de pau”  
4. “A noite, quando me deito”  
5. “Fui no livro do destino”
1967  Uma nota, uma só mão
1968  Martírio  
A um passarinho  
Queixa da moça arrependida
1970  Tudo o mais são penas  
Ladainha  
Rotação  
Quando ouvires o pássaro  
Ponto de Oxalá  
Cantiga de ninar escrava  
Duas canções de Rangel Bandeira:  
1. “O alcoviteiro”
2. “Delírio vão”

Moinho
Bem-te-ví
Retrato
Sabença

1971
Você
Minha carta a você

1973
Teu nome
A valsa

1974
Se eu fosse apenas

1975
Cantiga de viúvo

1979
Outra voz, outra paisagem

Bilheteria àquela que ainda está por nascer

1980
Canções de Ofélia:
1. “How should I your true love”
2. “Tomorrow is Saint Valentine’s day”
3. “And will he not come again?”

1982
Relance
Boca
Amargura
Receita para o amor
Carnaval do desamor

1984
Relógio

1985
Lamentação da hora perdida

1986
Canção do dia inútil
Basta de ser o outro
Minha mãe
Acalanto para minha mãe

1987
Só tu
Contrição
Prece

1988
Dá-me as pétalas da rosa
Vida, que és o dia de hoje
Porque?
Alguém bateu a minha porta

1989
Canção à-toa

1990
Promessa

1991
Viola de Lereno:
1. “Declaração de Lereno”
2. “Efeitos da saudade”
3. “Amar não é brinco”
4. “É bem feito, torne a amar”

Castigo de amor
Mozart no céu
Em uma frondosa roseira
Lira
Se eu morresse amanhã
Canção do exílio
Farei o que tu fizeres
Desejos de doente

1992
Oteló
Beijos mortos

1993
Saudades
Descrênte do amor
Louvação de emboada tordilha
Eco e o descorajado
Conselhos de amor

1995
Três miniaturas de Cassiano Ricardo:
1. “Relógio”
2. “Serenata sintética”
3. “No circo”

1996
Três miniaturas de Ribeiro Couto:
1. “Tédio”
2. “Canção do beijo suave”
3. “Solidão”

Cinco haikais de Guilherme de Almeida:
1. “Filosofia”
2. “Infância”
3. “Noturno”
4. “História de algumas vidas”
5. “Romance”

1997
Canção da despedida
Herói que matara o reizinho inimigo (mini-drama)
Valsa romântica
Canção para a minha morte

2000
A maldição
São Francisco
Minha pequenina terra
Último beijo
4º Motivo da rosa

Two Voices and Piano (5 works)

1967
Ponto de Mãe Sereia

1993
Fuga saudosa
O estrangeiro
A canção do tédio

1998
Pensamentos
Three Voices and Piano (1 work)

1982  *Mucama*

Harmonizations for Voice and Piano (2 works)

1965  *Marília de Dirceu*
1975  *Duas harmonizações:*
    1. “Marília, tu não conheces”
    2. “Ora, adeus, senhora Ulina”

Voice and Various Instruments (13 works)

1952  *Ave Maria*
1967  *Três Salmos:*
    1. “No. 22”
    2. “No. 127”
    3. “No. 129”
1968  *As dádivas*
     *Vácuo*
     *Saudade*
     *Queixa de moça arrependida*
     *Ponto de Iemanjá*
     *Hiroshima meu amor*
1970  *Cantos de meditação*
     *Losango Caqui No. 6*
1972  *Festa chinesa*
1992  *Ogum*
2000  *Oração a Nossa Senhora Aparecida*

A Cappella Choir in Unison (1 work)

1990  *Dedicação a uma igreja*

Choir in Unison with Instruments (2 works)

1968  *Próprio para a festa de Nossa Senhora:*
    1. “Entrada”
    2. “Salmo aleluiaático”
    3. “Ofertório”
    4. “Comunhão”
1983  *Hino á Universidade Federal de Uberlândia*

Two-voice Choir a Cappella (2 works)

1982  *Suíte coral No. 5:*

113
1. “Leilão de jardim”
2. “Lua depois da chuva”
3. “O eco”
4. “Jogo de bola”

Suíte coral No. 7:
1. “São Francisco”
2. “A galinha d’Angola”
3. “As borboletas”
4. “O marombondo”

Two-voice Choir with Instruments (3 works)

1966 Missa a duas vozes:
1. “Kyrie”
2. “Glória”
3. “Credo”
4. “Sanctus”
5. “Agnus Dei”

1979 Suíte coral No. 4:
1. “O elefantinho”
2. “O relógio”
3. “O pato”
4. “As abelhas”

1987 Suíte coral No. 9:
1. “Eu pedi a Oxalá”
2. “Oração”
3. “O´ Doum”

Three-voice Choir a Cappella (3 works)

1971 Quadrinhas:
1. “De saudade”
2. “De amor”

1977 Suíte coral No. 2:
1. “Cana verde”
2. “Modinha”
3. “Baião”

1982 Suíte coral No. 6:
1. “Mãe”
2. “Saudade”
3. “A porta”

Three-voice Choir with Instruments (3 works)

1971 Missa a três vozes iguais:
1. “Kyrie”
2. “Glória”
3. “Credo”
4. “Sanctus”
5. “Agnus Dei”

1978 *Suite coral No. 3:*
1. “Ou isto ou aquilo”
2. “A bailarina”
3. “Uma palmada”
4. “O chão e o pão”
5. “A pombinha da mata”
6. “A língua do nhem”

1989 *Canto ao canto*

**Male Choir a Cappella (3 works)**

1959 *Ponto de Ogum*
1970 *Moda dos quatro rapazes*
1983 *Suite coral No. 8:*
1. “Trovas de amor”
2. “Tudo passas”
3. “Conceitos”

**SATB Choir a Cappella (32 works)**

1952 *Padre Francisco*
1953 *Ó mana, deixe eu ir*
*Boi tungão*
1958 *Candieiro*
*Capim de prata*
*Ofulú lorérê*
1966 *Missa Ferial:*
1. “Kyrie”
2. “Sanctus”
3. “Agnus Dei”
1967 *Poema da necessidade*
*Romaria*
*Quadrilha*
1968 *Cêu vazio*
*O poeta*
1969 *Ponto de São Manoel*
*Suite coral No. 1:*
1. “Cateretê”
2. “Lundu”
3. “Marcha rancho”
*Três pontos de caboclo:*
1. “Ponto dos Tamoios”
2. “Ponto do caboclo Tupinambás”
3. “Ponto do caboclo Cobra Coral”

_Fuga proverbial_

1971 _Quatro estudos para coro:_
1. “Uníssono”
2. “Insistência”
3. “Forte-piano”
4. “Onomatopaico (dobrado)”

_Desafio_

1974 _Sálmo No. 129 (De Profundis)_
_A anunciação a Maria_

1978 _Pai nosso_

1979 _Ave Maria_

1980 _Ladainha_
_A primeira missa e o papagaio_

1982 _Natal, Deus conosco_
_Poema de Natal_
_Frases de caminhão:_
1. “Se o amor é cego”
2. “Filosofia”
3. “A mulher”

1983 _Automação_

1984 _Balada do Rei das Sereias_

1997 _Canto de Natal_
_Oração para aviadores_

2000 _Daí–nos força, Senhor_

_Mixed Choir (S-Mezzo-A-Baritone) a Cappella (1 work)_

1989 _Suíte coral No. 10:_
1. “Para que tanto sofrimento?”
2. “Seresta antiga”
3. “Congada”

_SATB Choir with Instruments (2 works)_

1967 _Missa Santa Cruz:_
1. “Kyrie”
2. “Glória”
3. “Sanctus”
4. “Benedictus”
5. “Agnus Dei”
_Próprio do Espírito Santo_
1. “Entrada”
2. “Alezuia”
3. “Ofertório”
4. “Comunhão”

**Pedagogical Works for Choir (1 work)**

**1975**  
*Apresentação do coro*

**SATB Choir with Orchestra (1 work)**

**1970**  
*Provérbios*  
“No. 1”  
“No. 2”  
“No. 3”  
“No. 4”  
“No. 5”  
“No. 6 (2 provérbios)”  
“No. 7”  
“No. 8”

**Piano (60 works)**

**1953**  
*Variações sobre “ Mulher Rendeira”*  
*Toada*

**1955**  
*Ponteio No. 1*

**1956**  
*Ponteio No. 2*

**1958**  
*5 Invenções a Duas Vozes:*
  1. “Magoado”  
  2. “Movido”  
  3. “Sem pressa”  
  4. “Melancólico”  
  5. “Com flexibilidade, não muito rápido”

*Valsa No. 1*

**1960**  
*Valsa No. 2*

*Suíte miniatutra:*
  1. “Chorinho”  
  2. “Toada”  
  3. “Valsa”  
  4. “Modinha”  
  5. “Cana-Verde”

*Estudo No. 1*

*Série na clave de sol:*
  1. “Desafio”  
  2. “Ciranda”  
  3. “Valsa”  
  4. “Modinha”  
  5. “Arrasta-pé”

**1961**  
*Suíte No. 1*
1. “Dobrado”
2. “Choro”
3. “Toada”
4. “Baião”

1964  Valsa No. 3
      Ponteio No. 3

1965  Brasiliana No. 1
      1. “Dobrado”
      2. “Modinha”
      3. “Mazurca”
      4. “Marcha de Rancho”

1966  Brasiliana No. 2
      1. “Romance”
      2. “Chote”
      3. “Moda”
      4. “Côco”

1967  Brasiliana No. 3
      1. “Cururu”
      2. “Rancheira”
      3. “Acalanto”
      4. “Quadrilha”

1968  Ponteio No. 4
      Ponteio No. 5

1969  Brasiliana No. 5
      1. “Desafio”
      2. “Valsa”
      3. “Lundu”
      4. “Cana-verde”

Estudo No. 2
Estudo No. 3
Estudo No. 4
Estudo No. 5
Estudo No. 6
Estudo No. 7
Estudo No. 8

1970  Estudo No. 7

1971  Brasiliana No. 6
      1. “Roda”
      2. “Ponto”
      3. “Toada”
      4. “Baião”

Ponteio No. 7

Cromos (1o. caderno)
      1. “No balanço”
      2. “Pequeno estudo”
      3. “Lamurias”
      4. “Sanfoneiro em ré”
Cromos (2o. caderno)
1. “Menino manhoso”
2. “Valsinha sincopada”
3. “A flauta do indiozinho”
4. “Tagarelice”

Pequenas lições (1o. caderno)
1. “Seis por oito sincopado”
2. “Polegares presos”
3. “Mudança de compasso”
4. “Mãos cruzadas”

1972 Cromos (3o. caderno)
1. “Pingue-pongue”
2. “Jogando xadrez”
3. “Gangorra”
4. “Brincando de pegador”

Pequena canção
Galopando
Estudando piano:
1. “Melodia na esquerda”
2. “De duas em duas”
3. “Contra-ritmo”
4. “Legato e staccato”
5. “Terças”
6. “Oitavas na esquerda”
7. “Oitavas na doreita”
8. “Ornamentos”

Toada No. 6
1973 Estudo No. 9
1975 Valsinha Brasileira
Cromos (4o. caderno)
1. “Mixolídio”
2. “Dórico”
3. “Lídio”
4. “Pentafônica”

1976 Estudo No. 10
Brasiliana No. 7
1. “Samba”
2. “Valsa”
3. “Pregão”
4. “Arrasta-pé”

Estudo No. 11
Estudo No. 12
1979 Ponteio No. 6
1981 Pequenas lições (2o. caderno)
1. “Contratempo”
2. “Segundas”
3. “Canto do polegar”
4. “Notas repetidas”

1982 Ponteio No. 8
1983 Ponteio No. 9
   Ponteio No. 10
1984 Brasiliana No. 9
   1. “Ponteio”
   2. “Polca”
   3. “Bendito”
   4. “Forró”
1987 Brasiliana No. 10
   1. “Cantoria”
   2. “Recortado”
   3. “Canto de cego”
   4. “Marchinha”
1988 Cromos (5o. caderno – Aparelhos)
   1. “Metrônomo dodecafônico”
   2. “O canto do ventilador”
   3. “Caixinha de música”
   4. “Maquina de escrever”
1989 Brasiliana No. 11
   1. “Tango”
   2. “Maxixe”
   3. “Choro”
   4. “Polca sertaneja”
Valsa No. 4 (binária)
1990 Sonatina No. 1
   1. “Allegro moderato”
   2. “Andante com moto”
   3. “Allegreto”
Sonatina No. 2
   1. “Allegro non tropo”
   2. “Lento”
   3. “Vivace”
1991 Sonatina No. 3
   1. “Con moto moderato”
   2. “Andante lento, sostenuto”
   3. “Commodo con grazia”
1995 Berceuse de um gato que morreu
1996 Oito variações e fuga sobre um tema de Camargo Guarnieri
1998 Cinco variações sobre “Escravo de Jó”
2000 Acalanto singelo

Piano Four Hands (4 works)

1948 Três corais:
1. “Freu dich sehr, o meine Seele”  
2. “Ich freu mich in dir”  
3. “Sei gegrüsset, Jesu gütig”  

**1968 Brasiliana No. 4**

1. “Dobrado”  
2. “Embolada”  
3. “Seresta”  
4. “Candomblé”  

**1980 Brasiliana No. 8**

1. “Canto de trabalho”  
2. “Frevo”  
3. “Abôio”  
4. “Terno de zabumba”  

**1993 Brasiliana No. 12**

1. “Cateretê”  
2. “Canto de bebida”  
3. “Canção”  
4. “Maracatú”  

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**Harpsichord (1 work)**

**1975 Sonata**

1. “Allegro giusto”  
2. “Andantino con moto”  
3. “Allegro vivo”  

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**Solo (18 works)**

**1959** *Ponteio – violão*  
**1961** *Valsa – violão*  
**1964** *Choro – violino*  
**1974** *Melodia – trompa*  
*Rondino – trombeta*  
*Improviso – oboé*  
*Variações e fugueta sobre um tema infantil – fagote*  
*Melodia – clarineta*  
*Improviso – flauta*  

**1985** *Queixas e reclamações – fagote*  
**1988** *4 Melodias – clarineta:*  
1. “Nordestina”  
2. “De duas em duas”  
3. “Cromática”  
4. “Scherzino pentafônico”  
*4 Mini-melodias – clarineta:*  
1. “Toada paulista”  
2. “Modinha”
3. “Afro-brasileira”
4. “Valsinha desconjutada”

1994  Ostinato – flauta
1995  Variações sobre “Escravos de Jó” – flauta
      Cançoneta – vibrafone
      Improviso – clarineta
      Invocação e dança – clarineta
1999  Improviso No. 2 – flauta

**Duet (14 works)**

1953  Invenção pra flauta e fagote
1954  Invenção pra clarineta e trompa
      Invenção pra oboé e clarinete baixo
      Invenção pra trombeta e trombone (Ia.)
      Invenção pra trombeta e trombone (IIa.)
1957  Duo pra clarineta e fagote:
      1. “Tempo de marcha”
      2. “Magoado”
      3. “Bem humorado”
      Toccantine e fuga – clarineta e fagote
1973  Três duetos – flautas doce soprando e contralto:
      1. “Moderato sempre bem ritmado”
      2. “Moderadamente movido”
      3. “Vivaz”
1974  Choro-seresteiro – dois contrabaixos
1979  Variação sobre “O cravo brigou com a rosa” – saxofone contralto e marimba
1995  Balada – flauta e harpa
1996  Marcha de rancho e fuga – flauta e fagote
1998  Choro-seresteiro e fuga – clarineta e violino
1999  Fuga e postludio – violino e viola

**Piano with another instrument (50 works)**

1954  Oito variações sobre um tema folclórico – violino e piano
1959  Sonata – flauta e piano:
      1. “Moderado”
      2. “Moderadamente lento”
      3. “Alegre”
1962  Sonata – viola e piano:
      1. “Decidido”
      2. “Gantante”
      3. “Alegre”
      Valsa – choro – clarineta e piano
1964  Seresta –violino e piano
1967  Sonata – flauta doce soprano e piano
1. “Vivo”
2. “Lento”
3. “Tema e variações”

1968
Seresta – oboé e piano
Invocação e ponto – trombeta e piano

1972
Invocação – violino e piano
Três danças brasileiras antigas – violino e piano
1. “Chote”
2. “Lundu”
3. “Valsa”

Abôio – oboé e piano

1973
Ária – violoncelo e piano
Variações sobre uma velha modinha – clarineta e piano

1974
Poemeto – flauta e piano
Momento lírico – flauta e piano
Cantilena – flauta e piano
Toccatina – flauta e piano
Toada – oboé e piano
Primeira vals – oboé e piano
Segunda vals – oboé e piano
Canto lírico – oboé e piano
Variações sobre “Carneirinho Carneirão” – oboé e piano

1975
Romântica – flauta e piano

1977
Andante – trombone tenor e piano
Appassionato, Cantilena e Toccatà – viola e piano

1978
Canto e rondó – tuba e piano
Quatro peças para clarineta e piano
1. “Chalumeau”
2. “Clarino”
3. “Improviso”
4. “Toccatina”

1980
Concerto pra flautim e orquestra de cordas (redução)
1. “Vivace spiritoso”
2. “Andante”
3. “Allegro inquieto”

1981
Momentos musicais – flauta e piano
“No. 1”
“No. 2”
“No. 3”
“No. 4”

1983
Três peças – trompa e piano:
1. “Cantiga”
2. “Seresteira”
3. “Dança ritual”
Ária – trompa e piano
Pequena suite – trombeta e piano:
1. “Dobrado”
2. “Canção”
3. “Final”

1984  Canção e dança – trompa e piano
Três melodias – fagote e piano:
1. “Allegro con troppo”
2. “Moderato”
3. “Moderato”

Três peças breves – fagote e piano:
1. “Andantino con moto”
2. “Moderato”
3. “Allegro”

Suite – fagote e piano
1. “Contraponto”
2. “Cantilena”
3. “Rondó”

1985  Três momentos musicais – clarineta e piano
1. “Andantino”
2. “Andantino”
3. “Allegro”

Sonata – fagote e piano
1. “Moderato”
2. “Andantino con moto”
3. “Allegro”

1986  Sonata – oboé e piano
1. “Moderato”
2. “Lento, mas não muito”
3. “Movido”

1989  Elegia – violoncelo e piano
Cançoneta - violoncelo e piano
Acalanto pentafonico – violino e piano
Toccatina - violino e piano
Magoado - violino e piano

1990  Insistência em lá - violino e piano
Seresta – tuba e piano

1991  Sonata – flautim e piano
1. “Esperto”
2. “Lento, mas não muito”
3. “Vivo”

1992  Cromos – piano e orquestra (redução)

1996  Sonata – trombeta e piano
1. “Andantino con moto, quase allegretto”
2. “Andante”
3. “Vivace”

1999  Choro na clave de dó – trombone e piano
Trios (5 works)

1954 *Invenção para flauta, fagote e trompa*

1969 *Trio – violino, violoncelo e piano:*
1. “Lento”
2. “Movido”

1969 *Invenção para trombeta, trompa e trombone*

1972 *Seis melodias brasileiras – flauta doce soprano, contralto e tenor:*
1. “Candieiro”
2. “Dança do caroço”
3. “Acorda, donzela”
4. “Meu rico povo”
5. “Pobre cego”
6. “Cana-verde”

1990 *Três movimentos – três trombetas em si b*
1. “Festivo”
2. “Melancólico”
3. “Alegre”

Quartets (9 works)

1952 *Quarteto No. 1 – quarteto de cordas*
1. “Prelúdio e fuga”
2. “Ária”
3. “Dança”

1952 *Quarteto No. 1 – quarteto de cordas*
1. “Prelúdio e fuga”
2. “Ária”
3. “Dança”

1972 *Cançoneta – flautas doces soprando, contralto, tenor e baixo*

1972 *Variações sobre “Peixe Vivo” – flautas doces sopranino, soprano, contralto, tenor*

1972 *Seis temas do folclore brasileiro – flautas doces soprano I e II, contraltos I e II:*
1. “Casinha pequenina”
2. “Senhora Dona Rita”
3. “Teirú”
4. “Toada de Lauro Louro”
5. “É Lamp, é Lamp, é Lamp”
6. “Tatu e cabloco do sul”

1979 *Lídio – quarteto de cordas*

1993 *Variações sobre “Tutu Maramba” – flautas transversais*

1993 *Variações sobre “Tutu Maramba” – flautas transversais*

1994 *Pequena Suíte – quarteto de cordas:*
1. “No balanço”
2. “Valsinha sincopada”
3. “Modinha”
4. “Sanfoneiro e Ré”

1995 *Quarteto No. 2 – quarteto de cordas*
1. “Andante con moto”
2. “Allegro animato”
3. “Andante”
4. “Allegro”

2001  *Quarteto No.3 (Concertante) – quarteto de cordas*
1. “2o. Violino – Andante lento, religioso”
2. “Violoncelo – Allegreto elegante, quase andantino”
3. “Viola – Andantino”
4. “1o. violino – Vivace”

**Quintets (5 works)**

1962  *Variações e fuga – quinteto de sopro: fl, ob, cl e corno (trompa)*
1977  *Fantasia e Rondô – quinteto de metais: ttas I e II, cor, tne e tu*
1988  *Quinteto – quinteto de sopro – fl, ob, cl, fg e corno (trompa)*

1. “Moderadamente movido”
2. “Animado”
3. “Quase recitativo; moderado”
4. “Vivo”

1990  *Quinteto Concertante – quinteto de metais – ttas I e II, cor, tne e tu:*

1. “Chote (trombone)”
2. “Scherzo (trompa)”
3. “Seresta (tuba)”
4. “Rondô (trombetas)”

1997  *Suíte para cinco – quinteto de sopro – fl, ob, cl, fg e corno (trompa)*

1. “Dobrado”
2. “Embolada”
3. “Toada”
4. “Candomblé”

**Large Chamber Ensemble (3 works)**

1968  *Trilogia – metais – 4 ttas, 4 cors, 3 tnes, 1 tne baixo e tuba:*

1. “Allegro mosso”
2. “Andantino”
3. “Allegro animato”

*Dobrado, Ponto e Maracatu – metais - 4 ttas, 4 cors, 3 tnes, 1 tne baixo, tuba e percussão.*

1993  *Suíte – 8 violoncelos*

1. “Dobrado”
2. “Chote e pizzicato”
3. “Fuga seresteira”
4. “Rondó final”

**String Orchestra (8 works)**

1959  *Ponteio No. 2*
1964  *Concerto para Orquestra de Cordas*
1975  *Quatro Peças Modais:*
1. “Dórico”
2. “Pentafônica”
3. “Lídio”
4. “Mixolídio”

1976 Quatro Movimentos:
1. “Fortepiano”
2. “Trinados e trêmulos”
3. “Pizzicato”
4. “Ostinato”

1987 Pequenos estudos:
1. “De duas em duas”
2. “Basso ostinato”
3. “Melodia em oitavas”
4. “Sanfoneiro em Ré”

1988 Andante para cordas
1995 Quarteto No.1:
1. “Prelúdio e Fuga”
2. “Ária”
3. “Dança”

1999 Suíte No.1:
1. “Cântico”
2. “Dança (Xótis)”
3. “Elegia”
4. “Final”

Symphony Orchestra (6 works)

1956 Toada
Variações sobre “Mulher Rendeira”

1962 Suíte Piratininga:
1. “Dobrado”
2. “Toada”
3. “Valsa”
4. “Choro”
5. “Baião”

1972 Abertura No. 1
1982 Abertura No. 2
1992 Quatro Momentos:
1. “Romântico”
2. “Jovial”
3. “Religioso”
4. “Dançante”

Symphonic Band (2 works)

1965 Suíte Guanabara.
1. “Dobrado”
2. “Modinha”
3. “Valsa”
4. “Invocação”
5. “Marcha de Rancho”

Estácio de Sá (dobrado)

**Soloist with Orchestra (8 works)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Work Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td><em>Invocação e Ponto – trombeta e orquestra de cordas</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Seresta – oboé e orquestra de cordas</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td><em>Variações sobre uma velha modinha – clarineta e orquestra de cordas</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 1980 | *Concerto para Flautim e Orquestra de Cordas:*  
|      | 1. “Vivace spiritoso”  
|      | 2. “Andantino”  
|      | 3. “Allegro inquieto” |
| 1992 | *Cromos – piano e orquestra sinfônica:*  
|      | 1. “Andantino quase allegretto”  
|      | 2. “Con moto moderato”  
|      | 3. “Vivo”  
|      | 4. “Moderato”  
|      | 5. “Moderato”  
|      | 6. “Andante lento, solene e religioso”  
|      | 7. “Allegro scherzosso”  
|      | 8. “Andantino quase allegretto” |
| 1994 | *Ária – violoncelo e orquestra de cordas* |
| 1998 | *Concertino para Xilofone e Orquestra:*  
|      | 1. “Allegro”  
|      | 2. “Andantino”  
|      | 3. “Allegro vivace” |
| 1999 | *Suíte No. 2 – flauta e orquestra de cordas:*  
|      | 1. “Dobrado”  
|      | 2. “Embolada”  
|      | 3. “Canção”  
|      | 4. “Valsa”  
|      | 5. “Arrasta-pé” |

**Percussion (5 works)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Work Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1966 | *Três Estudos:*  
|      | 1. “Introdução e Fuga”  
|      | 2. “Cantilena”  
|      | 3. “Rondó” |
| 1968 | *Três Miniaturas Brasileiras:*  
|      | 1. “Sambinha dodecafônico”  
|      | 2. “Interlúdio” |
3. “Embolada”

Três Canções pra canto com acompanhamento de conjunto de percussão

1974

Suíte – xilofone e piano (2o. mov. Marimba)

1. “Arrasta-pé”
2. “Ponto”
3. “Toccata”

1979

Variações sobre “O crava brigou com a rosa” pra saxofone contralto e marimba

Transcriptions of Other Composers’ Works (5 works)

1948  Três antigos corais protestantes – piano a 4 mãos
1982  Apanhei-te, cavaquinho – Ernesto Nazareth
1986  Ave Maria – Frutuoso Viana
1989  Noite Feliz – Josef Mohr e Franz Gruber
1993  Ponteio No. 39 e No. 44 – Camargo Guarnieri

Books

1967  Compendio de Teoria Elementar da Música
1975  Regras de Grafia Musical
1959  Curso Preparatório de Solfejo e Didática Musical
1988  Exercícios de Teorias Elementar da Música
APPENDIX B. REQUEST OF PERMISSION I

Baton Rouge, 13 de outubro de 2005

Caro compositor Osvaldo Lacerda,

Meu nome é Maria José Bernardes Di Cavalcanti. Estou no último ano de doutorado em piano na Universidade Estadual de Louisiana (Estados Unidos). Entrei em contato telefônico com o senhor no domingo passado, dia 9 de outubro, sobre a possibilidade de analisar as “Brasilianas” como tema da minha dissertação. O ponto principal da dissertação ainda está em fase de decisão mas a princípio preciso ter uma ideia da série completa.

Para isto, agradece-se se pudesse me fornecer as seguintes informações:

1. Já existe algum trabalho acadêmico escrito sobre as “Brasilianas”?
2. Já existe algo escrito sobre a sua linha composicional?
3. Como posso adquirir as peças?
4. O “copyright” da obra é seu? Será, como posso entrar em contato com o responsável?

Estou incluindo em anexo o formulário de “copyright” exigido pela universidade para que eu possa dar início ao trabalho de pesquisa. Agradeço antecipadamente se puder preencher este formulário e enviá-lo ao meu endereço postal indicado abaixo ou escaneado e enviado via correio eletrônico (dudadicavalcanti@yahoo.com) em formato tif, jpeg, ou pdf.

Sinceramente,

Maria José Bernardes Di Cavalcanti
375 W. Roosevelt St. Apt. 2222
Baton Rouge, LA 70802
United States of America
Tel: 225-334-5025
APPENDIX C. LETTER OF PERMISSION I

Copyright Permission

Permission to Quote/Reproduce Copyrighted Material

I, Osvaldo Costa de Lacerda, owner of the copyright to the series “Brasilianas” by composer “Osvaldo Lacerda,” hereby authorize Maria José Bernardes Di Cavalcanti to use these musical compositions as part of her doctoral dissertation to be submitted to Louisiana State University. I further extend this authorization to University Microfilms, Inc., Ann Arbor, Michigan, for the purposes of reproducing and distributing single microform copies of the dissertation on demand for scholarly uses.

Date São Paulo, October 28, 2005

Signature: Osvaldo de Lacerda
APPENDIX D. REQUEST OF PERMISSION II

Dear Mr. Amaral,

Conforme combinamos ao telefone, estou enviando este e-mail para solicitar a permissão da Irmãos Vitale para utilizar exemplos musicais extraídos das Brasílianas 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8 e 9 do compositor Osvaldo Lacerda na minha monografia de doutorado, o qual estou cursando na Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, Estados Unidos.

Em anexo há dois documentos em PDF:

1) Permissão do compositor Osvaldo para analisar as Brasílianas utilizando exemplos musicais.
2) Formulário a ser preenchido, assinado pelo responsável e enviado em formato digital para o meu e-mail ou em papel para o endereço abaixo especificado. Se o senhor enviar meu sistema rápido posso ressaltar os despesas de correio através de Docc eletrônico, bastando para isso que o senhor me envie o nome do banco e os números da agência, conta e CNPJ da empresa.

Atenciosamente,

Maria Jose Bernades Di Cavalcanti
375 W. Roosevelt St. Apt. 2222
Baton Rouge, LA 70802
USA

Tel.: 225-334-5025
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IRMÃOS VITALE S/A IND. E COM., owner of the copyright to the Brasilanas 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9 by composer "Oswaldo Lacerda" hereby authorize Maria José Bernardes Di-Catalan, to use these musical compositions as part of her doctoral monograph to be submitted to Louisiana State University. I further extend this authorization to University Microfilms, Inc., Ann Arbor, Michigan, for the purposes of reproducing and distributing single microform copies of the monograph on demand for scholarly uses.

São Paulo, June 23, 2006

Signature:

[Signature]

IRMÃOS VITALE S/A IND. E COM.
APPENDIX F. REQUEST OF PERMISSION III

Caro Sr. Cesar Nogueira,

Conforme combinamos ao telefone, estou enviando este e-mail para solicitar a permissão de Ricordi para utilizar exemplos musicais extraídos da Brasileira 10 do compositor Osvaldo Lacerda na minha monografia de doutorado, o qual está cursando na Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, Estados Unidos.

Em anexo há dois documentos em PDF:

1) Permissão do compositor Osvaldo para analisar as Brasileiras utilizando exemplos musicais.
2) Formulário a ser preenchido, assinado pelo responsável e enviado em formato digital para o meu e-mail ou em papel para o endereço abaixo especificado. Se o senhor enviar num sistema rápido, posso respeitar as despesas de correio através do Doc eletrônico, bastando para isso o senhor me envie o nome do banco e os números da agência, conta e CNPJ da empresa.

Atenciosamente,

Maria Jose Bernardes Da Cavalcanti
375 W. Roosevelt St. Apt. 2222
Baton Rouge, LA 70802
USA

Tel.: 225-334-5025
RICORDI

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