

Characteristics of Nature of Sound for Sitar



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Abstract

Acoustics is the branch of science dealing with audible sound and its property. The Music itself is a science and therefore the musical instruments that produce it, are also based on scientific principles.

All types of sound can be classified as 'Musical sound' or 'Noise'. The sounds which produce pleasing effect on the ear are called as musical sounds while the sounds which produce a jarring and unpleasant effect are called as noises (Ghonghat).

Musical sounds are not free from the noise, same way some noises have a more or less musical character.

Musical sound may differ from one another in three respects, viz., in pitch, in loudness, and in quality. Sound of the two sitars also differs because of their tonal quality.

Scientifically the properties of the musical tone are Frequency, Pitch, Intensity, Loudness, Growth, Decay, Duration, Portaments (variations of frequency modulation) and Deviations (changes in all the properties mentioned above).

However the most important characteristics are:

1. Pitch or Frequency
2. Loudness
3. Quality

Being a musical sound, sound of the sitar also depends on above three properties. Factors affecting the sound of sitar will be studied under this title.

Keywords: Loudness, Quality, Pitch or Frequency, Musical Sound

Introduction

Acoustics

The branch of science dealing with audible sound and its property is called acoustics.

It covers the study of Sound, Waves, Sonic booms, Musical instruments, Vibrations, Microphones and Speakers, among many other topics. The Music itself is a science and therefore the musical instruments that produce it, are also based on scientific principles.

Musical Sound and Noises

All types of sound can be classified as 'musical sound' or 'noise'. The sounds which produce pleasing effect on the ear are called as musical sounds while the sounds which produce a jarring and unpleasant effect are called as noises (Ghonghat). They can further be classified on the basis of the following factors,

1. Regularity or irregularity in shape of the curves.
2. With or without a definite periodicity in the curve, and
3. Absence or presence of any sudden change in their amplitudes.

Means the sound which are produced with a series of similar impulses follow each other regularly at equal interval i.e., when a definite periodicity without any sudden changes in their amplitudes are called musical sound. Where as the sounds which is having irregular periods and amplitudes in nature are called noises.

Musical sounds are not free from the noise same way some noises have a more or less musical character.

Characteristics of the Musical Sound

Musical sound may differ from one another in three respects, viz., in pitch¹, in loudness, and in quality.

Thirteen properties² of the sound is mentioned in 'Shreegurucharitra' and 'Sangeet Makarand'.

Scientifically the properties of the musical tone are Frequency, Pitch, Intensity, Loudness, Growth, Decay, Duration, Portaments (variations of frequency modulation) and Deviations (changes in all the

properties mentioned above).

However the most important characteristics can be explained as following,

1. Pitch or Frequency.
2. Loudness
3. Quality

Pitch or Frequency

Pitch is the characteristic of the sound which distinguishes between shrill sound and a grave sound. It is actually a sensation conveyed to our brain by a listener. So frequency is a physical quantity while pitch is a physiological quantity. Sound of a lion is of low pitch while sound of mosquito is of a high pitch.

sound waves falling on our ears which directly depends on the frequency of the incident sound waves.

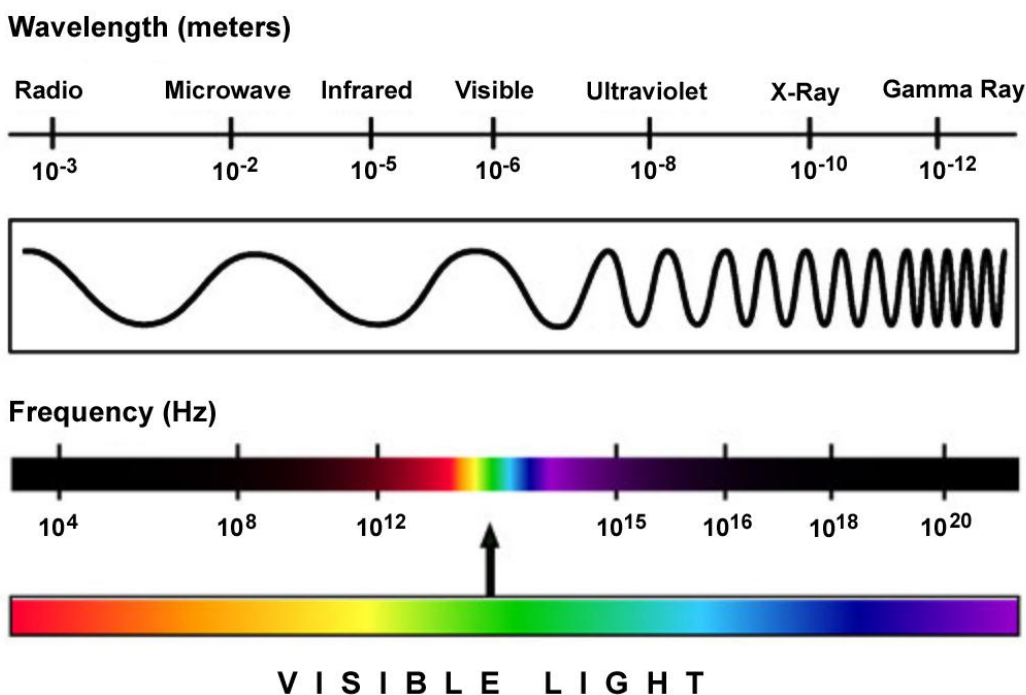
Higher is the frequency higher is the pitch of sound note, and vice versa.

The term pitch and frequency look same, but actually they are not the same. Frequency of a note is a physical quantity and can be measured easily and accurately. While pitch is merely a mental sensation experienced

Frequency is the number of occurrences of a repeating event over time.

Fig.1.1 Electromagnetic Spectrum

THE ELECTROMAGNETIC SPECTRUM



The frequency of “sound” as we know it (audible vibrations) is from just a little under 18 Hz to nearly 20 kHz (20,000 cycles per second). These upper and lower limits are not perfectly defined and vary considerably depending on a person’s gender and age along with several other factors including long term exposure to high-intensity sounds. Long term exposure to high intensity vibration within the human range of hearing (like rock bands) is known to result in a decrease of the ear’s ability to hear sounds. Vibrations below the range of hearing may be detected by humans as pressure pulses but are so slow that it is not possible to assign them a “tone.” The following chart shows the frequency range of various musical instruments and the human voice.

Frequency Range of Musical Instruments and Human Voice

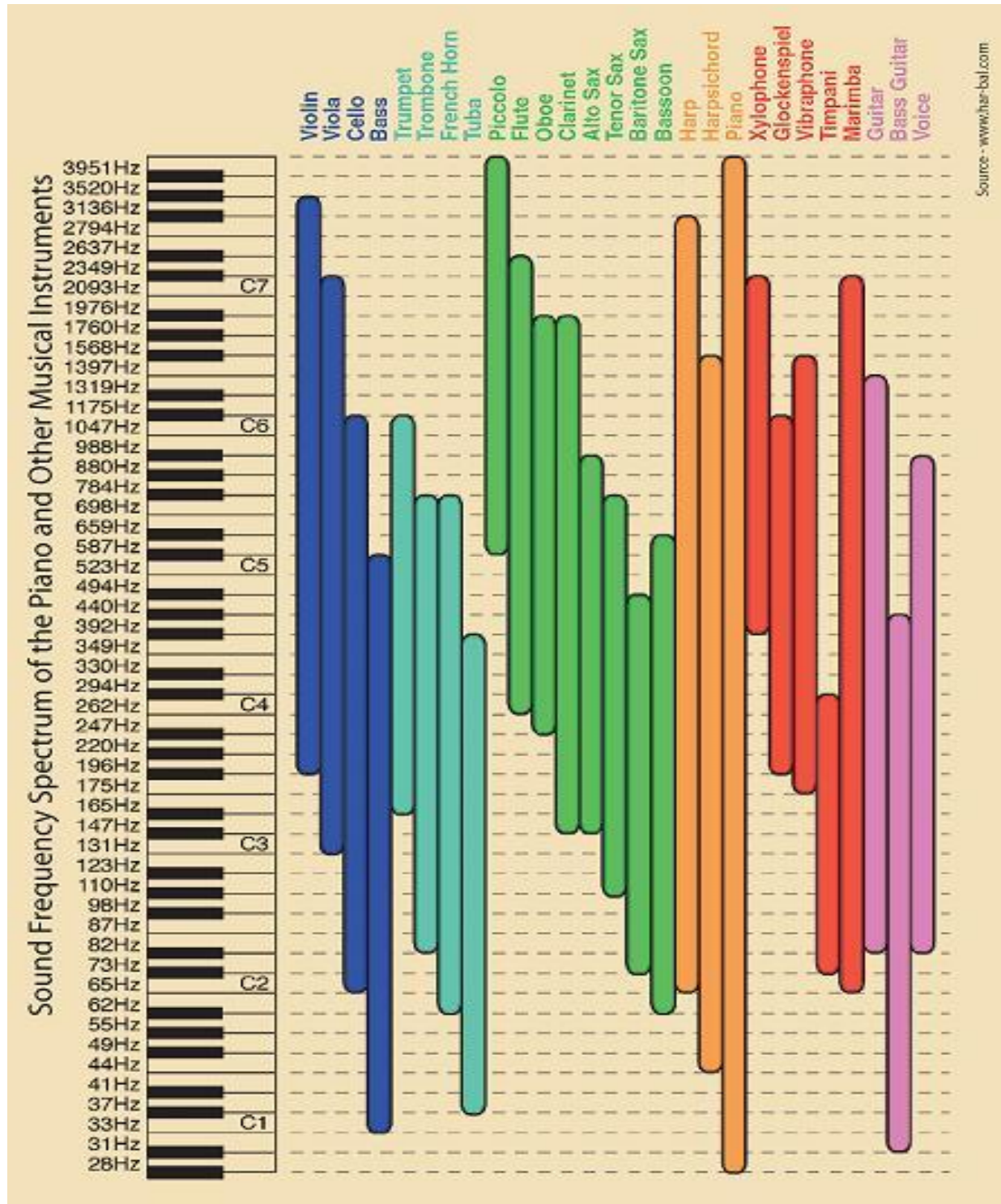
The above chart shows the frequency range of the piano and other musical instruments as well as the human voice. The frequencies shown here are the primary.

Tones, harmonics and overtones, which are responsible for the distinctive tonal qualities of the instruments, cover a broader range than that shown.

It is seen that, the pure tone range of the human voice is from about 80 Hz to less than 1 kHz. The human voice is, however, also comprised of overtones and harmonics which reach beyond these limits. It surprising that the pure tone range of the human voice and musical instruments encompasses such a small portion of the human spectrum of hearing. This is especially true on the high end. The highest frequency piano note is still way below the limit of the frequencies that most humans can hear. Yet, a person’s loss of the ability to hear frequencies substantially outside the range of the normal voice or musical spectrum can be debilitating. This indicates that these frequencies are critical to our ability to sense and interpret sounds in a way that may not be fully understood.

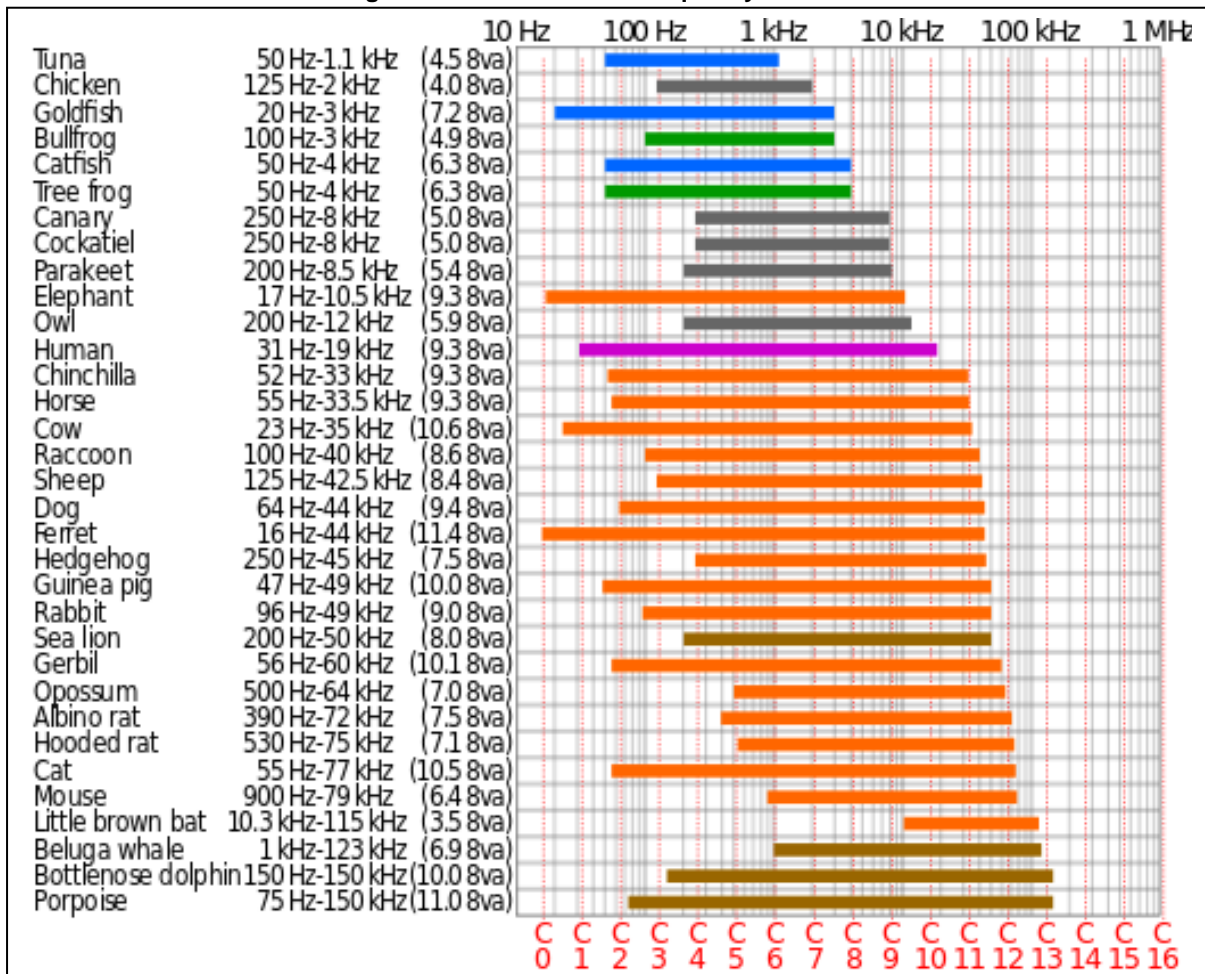
Following chart shows the audible frequency range of animals³.

Fig. 1.2



Source - www.har-bal.com

Fig⁴. 1.3 Chart of Audible Frequency of Animals



Once the frequency range is familiarized and each octave and their relative pitch or tone, one will be able to make adjustments within one's music system. It is much more compelling to alter the sound once one have had a chance to listen and study up. Always let your ears be the judge. If you feel your system could use slight adjustments or if you feel like having a trial and error session, just go into your receiver's menu settings and find the EQ. Most likely it has a fixed 10 band EQ (similar to below) adjustment

and you can raise or lower a particular frequency range to your liking. And of course, always listen carefully while making adjustments because most likely your tweeter is not going to be happy with a major bump at 2 kHz and above, while your woofer may not like a big boost at 32 Hz.

In musical instruments pitch is the term used to define the position of musical note on a musical scale.

	Sa	Re	Ga	Ma	Pa	Dha	Ni
	(C)	(D)	(E)	(F)	(G)	(A)	(B)
Frequency	256	288	320	341.3	384	426.7	480

As we go higher on the scale, pitch of the successive note rises.

Standard of Musical Pitch⁵

The basic pitch ('A' above middle 'C') employed in musical literature has varied widely since Pere Mersenne (Mersenne is considered as a father of acoustics), the famous French scientist and mathematician first determined the pitch of a musical note. In his time (1648) the lowest 'church' pitch was 373. And the chamber pitch was 402.9.

Handel's standard pitch in 1751 was 422.5.

At one time so called 'concert' pitch of 461.6 was used. Probably the first highly accurate

determination of the pitch of a sonorous body was made by Lissajous, another French physicist. Lissajous determined the frequency of the standard tuning fork of France, known as the 'diapason normal' of the French conservatory of Music. It was intended that this standard fork should execute 435 vibrations per second, but a later determination by the famous acoustician Rudolph Koeng, with improved facilities, showed that the diapason normal actually gave a frequency of 435.45 at 15⁰ C or 59⁰ F. Probably the first formal action to adopt a standard pitch occurred

in Germany when meeting of physicist at Stuttgart in 1834 adopted a pitch of 440.

An orchestral 'A' of 435 was legalised in France in 1859 and this pitch was soon adopted by several important symphony and opera orchestras, including the Boston Orchestra (1883). In 1892 the piano manufacturer's association adopted the French pitch of 435, as determined by Koenig and designated that value as 'international pitch'.

In 1939 an international conference on pitch was held in London and it was unanimously agreed to recommend to all interested organisations that 440 be adopted as the standard of orchestral pitch. This pitch is now generally used in the world.

In order to assist in maintaining an accurate pitch value, the bureau of standards at Washington, D.C., broadcasts several times daily, a standardising pitch of 440 by means of radio signals.

The highest note employed in orchestral music in orchestra music is given by the piccolo, which has a pitch of A#₇ (3729.3). The lowest orchestral tone is that of the bass viol, E₁ (41.2). The highest piano note is C₈ (4186), and the lowest A₀ (27.5).

In recent time sitar is tuned to 'D'.i.e.Safed2

Sr	String	Pitch	Material	Frequency
1	Baaj	G3	steel	196
2	Joda	D3	Copper	146.8
3	Laraj	A2	Brass	110
4	Kharaj	D2	Mixed Metal	73.4
5	Pancham	A3	steel	220
6	Chikari	D4	steel	293.7
7	Chikari treble/octave	D5	steel	587.3

Loudness

Loudness of the sound is defined as the degree of sensation produced on the ear. It is quite different than the intensity of the sound.

The intensity of the sound is the energy of the sound wave crossing per unit time, through a unit area, perpendicular to the direction of the propagation. Intensity of the sound is a physical quantity can be measured accurately. Intensity of the sound depends on the following factors.

1. The intensity of the sound is directly proportional to the square of the amplitude of the wave.
2. The intensity is directly proportional to the size of the vibrating body. Larger the size of the vibrating body, more is the intensity hence louder is the sound.
3. The intensity is directly proportional to the density of the medium through which it propagates. Means for the same vibrating body sound effect will be different if it is put in the air, than if it is put in liquid. This is also one of the reason why sound does not exist where there is a vacuum.
4. The intensity of the sound is inversely proportional to the square of the distance from the sounding body. Means intensity of the sound will decrease as we move away from the sounding body.

The acoustician is usually interested in comparing the intensities of two sounds rather than in the absolute value of either. In doing this it has

become the practice to deal with the ratio of the two intensities involved. The human ear is a remarkable physical organ. It responds to an extremely wide range of intensity. In fact, the ear will respond to a sound whose intensity is 10 billion times that require to produce a just audible sound. Because of this wide range of sensitivity, it has been found convenient to make use of a logarithmic scale in comparing sound intensity. There is a general relationship known as the Weber-Fechner law to the effect, that the response of any sense organ is proportional to the logarithm of the magnitude of the stimulus. As applied to the sense of hearing this would mean that if one were comparing two sounds, one which had an intensity of hundred units with another whose intensity was 10 units the oral response in the first case would be the twice that due to the less intense sound. This is because the logarithm of 100 is 2 while the logarithm of 10 is 1.

$$N = 20 \log_{10} (I / I_0) \text{ db.}$$

Where;

N is the intensity in decibels (db),
I₀ is the assumed reference intensity.

In the above relation both intensity (I) under comparison and the reference intensity I₀ are expressed in watts or micro watts per square centimetre.

In considering the matter of intensity levels, it is to be noted that a change in sound intensity of one decibel is approximately the smallest change in energy content that can ordinarily be recognised by the human ear. This corresponds to the change in acoustic power of approximately 26 percent. In other words, the intensity of a given sound must be increased by one decibel, or 26 percent, before ear can detect any change in the 'strength' of the sound. When the intensity of the sound reaches a value of 120 db the listener begins to experience the pain. If the ear is subject to a sound of such intensity for a considerable period of time, damage to the organ of hearing may result. The following table gives the intensity levels of various sources of sound as given by different investigations.

Noise Levels Commonly Encountered⁶

Source of Sound	Intensity Level in db
Breathing	10 Barely audible
Whisper	20
Average office	50
Ordinary conversation 3 ft	65
Average factory	78
Noisy factory	85
Heavy traffic	90
Diesel engine	105
Airplane engine	110
Hammer blow on steel	114
Sound becomes painful	120

Loudness of the sitar voice is varied by a Sitar player by varying the amount of force applied on the string by plectrum, or by changing the angle of application of the force, or by changing the point (place) of application of force on the string, or by combining all of them.

The loudness changes from sitar to sitar even though all above factors are kept same.

Quality

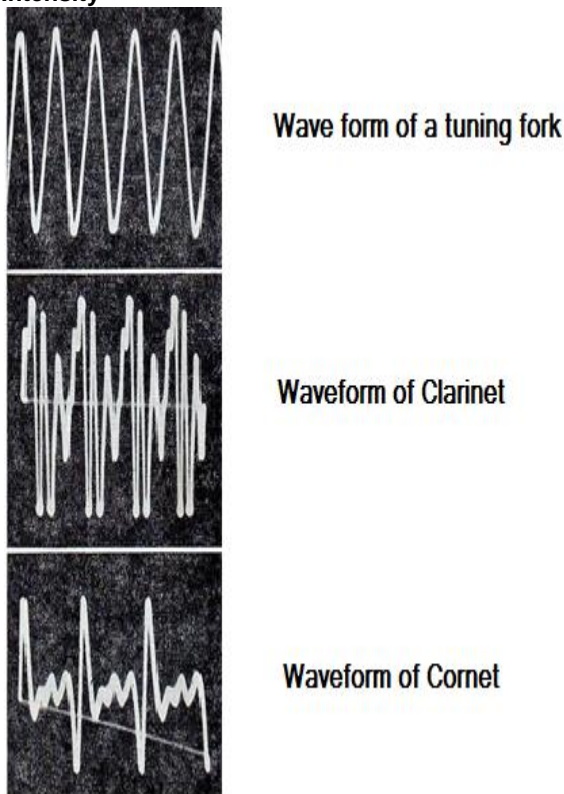
The quality of the sound is the property of the sound because of which we distinguish the musical notes produced by different musical instruments, or voices even though their pitch and loudness is same.

If same notes are produced by a sitar or a violin one can feel the difference between them because of the quality.

French use the word 'Timbre' to express this characteristic of a sound; and the Germans also have a word, 'Klangfarbe', a free translation of which is 'Tone colour', which is used by them to designate what we term 'Quality'.

Not only do our ears tell us that different sounds have different characteristics but the graphic representation of the corresponding sound wave also shows that definite differences exist.

Fig. 1.4 Waveforms of Tuning Fork (Top), Clarinet (Middle) and Cornet, (Bottom) Each at a Frequency of 440, and at Approximately The Same Intensity



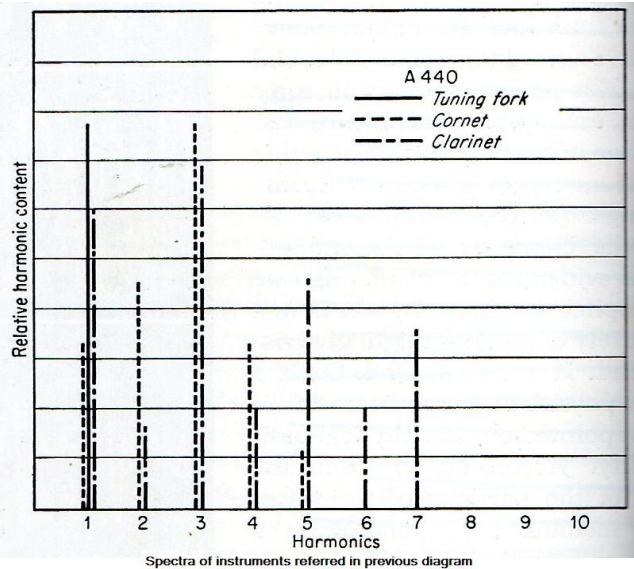
In fig 1.4 the recorded wave forms of the sounds emitted by three well known sources are shown. In making these recording the pitch and the loudness level was held approximately equal in all the three sources. The marked difference in waveform indicates, that some factor or factors other than pitch and loudness, give rise to the difference in tone character what we refer to as quality or timbre.

Now it will be understood that why does, one sound particularly a musical sound differs in character from another similar sound?

It is agreed that a musical sound consist of a periodic motion in some medium, usually air. This means that the motion of the particles constituting the

medium repeats itself once during each single period, and this regardless of the character of the motion. It is thus evident that, even though we hold the pitch and intensity constant, a wide variety of motions might give rise to a sound. Prof. G.S. Ohm a German physicist and mathematician first pointed out the physical basis of quantity. According to Ohm the motion of the particles of the transmitting media corresponding to a composite musical sound is in reality the sum of a group of simple periodic motions; and for each such simple oscillation there exists a simple tone, of a definite pitch, which the ear can detect. It accordingly follows that all but simple (pure) tones are composite. The several components which go to mark up such a complex sound structure are called partials tones, or briefly, partials; the partials having the lowest frequency is designated as the fundamentals. The partials having frequencies higher than the fundamentals are referred to as Upper partials or Overtones. In many cases the frequency of the overtones are exact multiples of that of the fundamentals; and in such cases the fundamental and the upper partials together are called Harmonics. In those cases where the frequency of the over tones are not exact multiple of the fundamental; the elemental tones are indicated by the term Inharmonic partials.

Fig. 1.5 Spectra of Instruments Referred in Previous Diagram



The diagram shows the fundamental and upper partials of the tone emitted by three instruments whose waveforms are depicted in previous figure 1.4. Such charts are known as sound spectra. The length of the vertical line indicates the relative strength of several harmonics.

Helmholtz carried out a long and carefully devised series of experiments for the purpose of testing the validity of ohm's law of acoustics. His work was published in English with the title 'Sensations of the Tone'. This was able to draw the important law that, "Difference in musical quality of tone depends solely on the presence and strength of partial tones

and in no respect on the differences in phase under which these partial tones enter into composition".

In general the sound produced by any source is complex in the nature. It is consisting of the fundamental tone (having lowest pitch), and overtones (Higher pitch). The quality of the sound depends on the number of overtones present with the fundamental, and their relative intensity and pitch. For example, an open pipe produces overtones forming a full harmonic series, while a closed pipe produces only odd members of the series. Hence note of an open pipe is sweeter than that of a closed pipe.

Tonal quality of the sitar depends on following factors as per my opinion and experience,

1. The components and material used to make a sitar.
2. Design of a sitar
3. Length, Thickness and metal type of the string.
4. Resonator type and size of the Sitar.
5. The way string is put on to the vibration.
6. Playing style of a Sitar player.

Aim of the study

To study the nature of sound of sitar by learning characteristics of the sound.

Conclusion

By leaning the characteristics of the sound one can understand the nature of sound of the sitar. Detail study will also enable us to understand the factors which will affect the sound of the sitar.

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